TOWARDS AN INTEREST-BASED APPROACH TO TERMINOLOGICAL COMPETENCE ACQUISITION

A Dissertation Submitted to
Kent State University in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements For
The Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

by

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Overview

This study discusses the question: since learning is closely related to the interests of students, how can this relationship be utilized in order to further enable translation learners to acquire terminology competence?

For many years, terminology courses have been taught through common learning approaches based on text and classroom-based activities. The educational setting is a classroom with an instructor in front of the students for a set number of weeks as defined by the study plan. It should be highlighted that recently, with the emergence of advance technology, new components and practices have been integrated in terminology management programs, such as terminology tools and software that support processes of terminology management and terminographic documentation. However, there appear to be no terminology courses integrating the component of interest in their plan for the purpose of supporting learning for enhanced comprehension and recall of specialized terminology.

Unlike current terminology management courses, where there appears to be little emphasis on the students’ interests, this study casts light on how interest may substantially help students comprehend and recall specialized terminology. This study develops effective patterns of terminological competence acquisition for translation students with an interest-based terminology course.
1.2 Statement of the Problem and the Research Questions

Nowadays, terminology management courses are taught with little emphasis on students’ areas of interest in a way that promotes comprehension and recall abilities through the courses’ practical components. Current courses generally involve components that focus on the theory of terminology and the practical tools and software that are being used in this field. For example, training on the use of computer-assisted translation tools (CAT), such as translation memory, terminology database, and alignment software, often comes as a key practical part of current terminology management courses designed for translators. However, there seems to be little attention paid to interest with regard to building the practical component of the terminology course. Thus, it can be argued that when students attend courses in which they have little to zero interest, this might be reflected on their learning performance, which would probably be marked by unsustainable comprehension and recall.

This study investigates one overarching question: since learning is closely related to interest, how can this relationship be utilized to further enable translation learners to acquire specialized knowledge and language as reflected in terminological competence? In Chapter 3 studies from the field of interest studies are reviewed to highlight a number of key points, such as definitions, types of interest and key findings in this area of research. This study explores whether or not interest can influence learners’ abilities to better comprehend and recall specialized terminology in the field of translation studies. In general, comprehension and recall are known to be key elements for the learning process.

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1 See Appendix F for a list of current terminology courses for translators.
1.3 Statement of the Hypothesis

This study postulates that traditional terminology management courses may not necessarily be effective in helping learners acquire the specialized knowledge and language of a certain subject matter (i.e., business, medicine, translation studies, literature, etc.) if the student has little or no interest in the subject being taught. In other words, the study proposes that current terminology management courses may not meet students’ expectations to effectively assimilate and recall specialized knowledge and language. Thus, the current study hypothesizes that since interest and learning are closely related, a correlation should be detected between learners’ interests and their ability to comprehend and recall specialized terminology. It is predicted that high levels of interest will have a significant effect on students’ comprehension and recall for specialized terminology. The study proposes an interest-based model for teaching/learning specialized terminology for translation students at the undergraduate level. The study also proposes job shadowing as an experiential opportunity during which students observe competent professionals in their work environment in order to gain experience on the nature of work and skills practiced within real-life settings. Activities of this kind may help learners gain knowledge through experience; in other words, storing information in students’ episodic memory that is associated with the knowledge already stored in their semantic memory (Tulving, 2000). Thus, when interested, learners will be supported with enhanced ability to recall this knowledge at any time. Job shadowing is seen as a helpful experience that has a flexible timeframe (from a few hours to several days), which involves observing and following a competent worker. This experience can be seen as a supportive strategy for educating young learners. Through this experience, learners’ motivation and interest will improve if they already have learned the basics of the worker’s job that they shadow (Hernández-Gantes & Blank, 2008, p. 167). Job shadowing, as a part of the study’s model, is regarded as an
experiential activity related to learners’ areas of interest, through which they can closely experience specialized knowledge and language concepts in real-life settings. Distance education is also considered within the adopted educational activities as a possibility for interest development. It can be seen as an element of empowerment that supports learners’ motivation and autonomy. In this respect, Kiraly et al (2015) state that “from a social constructivist/emergentist perspective, however, we can see e-learning as an invaluable tool for empowering our students, for encouraging them to act professionally and responsibly and to take control of their own learning.” (p. 109)

1.4 Significance of the Study

Learning terminology can, in fact, help establish productive communication and reduce the misuse of terms and concepts, not only by specialists but also by translators and language mediators. Academics such as Sager, Dungworth and McDonald (1980) and Varantola (1986) assert that knowledge of terminology can go beyond the recognition and documentation of words and phrases, to involve the recognition of genre style and overall usage and can therefore ease communication between specialized discourse participants (cited in Cabré, 1999, p.46). Furthermore, Faber (2004, 2009) also describes terminological competence as the ability to:

1) identify and acquire specialized concepts activated in discourse; 2) do the evaluation, consultation, and elaboration of information resources; 3) recognize interlinguistic correspondences based on concepts in the specialized knowledge field; 4) manage information and knowledge acquired and its re-use in future translations (p. 4).

Therefore, it can be argued that such competence and knowledge of terminology are important in preparing translators for the job market in different specializations. On the one hand, familiarization with a number of specializations helps translation graduates gain the capability to
meet the needs of both local/international markets (e.g. translators specialized in legal and medical texts). On the other hand, having a limited number of specializations or possibly none may significantly affect the translators’ future experience. In this regard, Gouadec (2007) points out that “it might be likely for those who would graduate with narrow specializations to be excluded from several divisions in the job markets on the basis that their ‘specialist profiles’ would not fit in” (p. 337). Moreover, Cabré (1999) emphasizes the need for terminological knowledge by stating that translators and specialists share to a certain degree the need for terminology in their work. Therefore, Cabré (1999, pp. 9-47) stresses that terminology is not just a means to an end but that it maintains professional communication between specialists. Thus, terminological competence provides a foundation for professional translators. As Kiraly (2000) states, “becoming a professional translator clearly entails more than learning specific skills that allow one to produce an acceptable target text in one language on the basis of a text written in another. That is what I would call ‘translation competence’” (p. 13).

Therefore, terminological competence, allied to translation competence, provides translation learners not only with skills related to identifying and classifying terms and concepts but also with specialized knowledge and even skills in the related fields. Consequently, they can become professional translators (Kussmaul, 1995; Kiraly, 2000; Faber, 2004, 2009, 2012; Kelly, 2005). Thus, teaching terminology and specialized language is a key training component for helping translation learners achieve their academic goals and meet job market needs. Therefore, this element is taken into account in the course proposed later in this study.

In the field of translation pedagogy, researchers have been investigating different styles and approaches to translation teaching, but careful examination of the available literature reveals that almost none of the current approaches deals with learners’ interests in learning and building
knowledge related to terminology and specialized language. Therefore, this study introduces a new approach that revolves around learners’ interests to support enhanced comprehension and recall in the acquisition of knowledge in any subject matter. It is also expected that the integration of interest and terminology in one course will have positive lasting impact on translation students’ motivations and their self-concept (Kiraly, 2000). In the human mind, interest stems from the conation component of the trilogy of the mind: cognition, affection, and conation. Interest and motivation are considered to be key components of the conation, and are seen to be providing energy and persistence for a person to maintain willpower and achieve his/her own goals (Hilgard, 1980; Huit & Cain 2005, p. 6-7).

There is a strong relationship between learning and interest. Practically, and according to the literature, interest supports deep processing of information and plays a significant role in focusing learners’ attention, which results in learning with a high capacity to effectively recall the information learned (Dewey, 1913; Bartlett, 1932; Shirey & Reynolds 1988; Hidi, 1990, 2001; Karpp, Hidi, & Renninger 1992; Subramanian, 2009). Furthermore, research highlighting the relationship between interest and learning shows that interest supports the brain’s cognitive function (Piaget, 1981; Hidi & Anderson 1992; Hidi & Harackiewicz 2000; Subramanian, 2009). An experimental study conducted by Wade and Adams (1990) on a group of college students to investigate their ability to remember information in biographical texts also shows that there is a strong relationship between ‘text interestingness’ and learners’ abilities to recall.

As a consequence, and taking interest as a point of departure for structuring an interest-based model, this study investigates how efficient it is to invest in students’ interests in order to create learning environments that facilitate learning specialized terminology in several fields pertinent to learners’ interests. Thus, this study contributes to building a bridge between
terminology and interest studies in order to support translation competence. It proposes a terminology course designed for building terminological competence. The course is modified to integrate additional experiential practices such as job shadowing and distance education in conjunction with students’ interest. Students will undertake either job shadowing or distance education in their areas of interest to supplement their terminology course. This new component of the course, in addition to supporting learning, is expected to promote students’ enthusiasm and autonomy. Thus, this interest-based model is expected to positively support learners’ propensity towards learning, which may substantially facilitate the acquisition of the terminological competence.

1.5 Overview of the Dissertation

This dissertation is comprised of six chapters. This chapter focuses on the statement of problem, the research questions, the statement of hypothesis, and the significance of this study. Chapter 2 deals with definitions of key terms and concepts to facilitate an understanding of the flow of ideas. Chapter 3 includes the development of terminology theories and courses within the field. The chapter also reviews and discusses the literature on studies in relation to terminology courses for translation students. Moreover, it reviews studies conducted on the relationship between interest and cognitive performance, including comprehension, recall and attention.

Chapter 4 discusses the study’s methodology. In this chapter, the materials, the procedures, the participants, and the surveys are thoroughly explained. Chapter 5 is concerned with an analysis of the results of the tasks involved in this project. It is presented in two major sections: the pilot study and the formal study. Each section has several subsections for the pretest and posttest phases.
Finally, Chapter 6 includes the conclusions of the study taking into account Faber and Martínez’s (2009) terminology course plan for translation students in providing an interest-based terminology course that takes interest, job-shadowing and distance education into account. This chapter also discusses the limitations and future research.
Chapter 2: Defining Key Concepts

This chapter focuses on defining the key terms and concepts that are related to the current study. The terms and concepts are discussed in five sections: translation and terminology, interest studies, the human memory, experiential learning and job shadowing.

2.1 Translation and Terminology

2.1.1 Translation competence

Several scholars discuss the notions of translation competence in the field of translation studies. As Wilss (1982) argues, translation competence is “an interlingual super-competence based on a comprehensive knowledge of the respective SL [source language] and TL [target language], including the text-pragmatic dimension, and consists of the ability to integrate the two monolingual competencies on a higher level” (p. 58). Wilss (1996) also discusses competences in native and second languages when he argues that compound bilinguals are more engaged in translation than coordinate ones. According to the author, compound bilinguals are those who learn and master their native language and then start learning other foreign languages, while coordinate bilinguals are those “who have been brought up and live in a bilingual community” (Wilss, 1996, p. 147). However, he stresses, “perfection and fluidity in two languages is no guarantee for translation excellence” (Wilss, 1996, p. 147).

Bell (1991) defines translation competence as “the knowledge and skills the translator must possess in order to carry out a translation” (p. 43), while Hurtado Albir sees translation competence
as “the ability of knowing how to translate” (1996, p. 48). Moreover, Shreve (2002, p. 154) posits that translation competence is about various academia-based techniques and strategies that one should be exposed to in order to become a translator.

Meanwhile, Dimitrova (2002) discusses the importance of linguistic and cultural competence of the translator in the SL and TL in order to produce a satisfactory translation and for the translators themselves to fulfill their own roles. The author stresses that there is still a need to promote tangible measures for the distinction between translation ability, “a concomitant of knowing more than one language”, and translation competence “that characterizes a professional translator” (Dimitrova, 2002, p. 81). Pym's (2003) conceptualization for translation competence is considered as “1) The ability to generate a series of more than one viable target text (TT1, TT2...TTn) for a pertinent source text (ST); and 2) The ability to select only one viable target text from this series, quickly and with justified confidence” (p. 489). In this respect, Gile (2009) also highlights the importance of having sufficient knowledge of the subject-matter and themes of the texts that the translators translate (p. 9)

The PACTE research group was established in 1997 in order to investigate the acquisition of translation competence in written translation from/into foreign languages. In 1998, they proposed an initial version of a model for translation competence and a model for the acquisition of translation competence which they characterized as “dynamic” (PACTE, 1998, 2000, 2001; Hurtado Albir, 1999, 2001, pp. 375-408).

According to PACTE, translation competence is defined as the fundamental knowledge that all translators need to perform their tasks efficiently. This type of knowledge is similar to what experts possess, and is based on procedural and declarative knowledge (PACTE, 2003). They state
that translation competence “is like expert knowledge that comprises declarative and procedural knowledge and is made up of a system of sub-competencies” (PACTE, 2003, p. 6). PACTE then define sub-competences of translation as “a language sub-competence in two languages [bilingual]; an extra-linguistic sub-competence; an instrumental/professional sub-competence; a psycho-physiological sub-competence; a transfer sub-competence; and a strategic sub-competence” (2003, p. 6). This study focuses on the bilingual and extra-linguistic sub-competences since they directly tackle both source and target languages.

Bilingual sub-competence is defined as “predominantly procedural knowledge needed to communicate in two languages. It includes the specific feature of interference control when alternating between the two languages. It is made up of pragmatic, socio-linguistic, textual, grammatical and lexical knowledge in the two languages” (PACTE, 2003, p. 6). In contrast, extra-linguistic sub-competence is “the implicit or explicit knowledge about the world in general and specific areas of knowledge: bicultural knowledge; encyclopedic knowledge and subject knowledge (in specific areas)” (PACTE, 2003, p. 6).

2.1.2 Terminological competence

Faber and Martínez (2009) highlight that terminological competence is not only about individuals’ abilities to memorize terms and words, it is also about the knowledge represented by the terms. They state, “terminological competence does not refer to the acquisition of a list of terms, but rather to the ability of the translator to acquire the knowledge represented by these terms” (Faber and Martínez, 2009, p. 5). This type of competence/sub-competence includes the following processes (Faber and Martínez, 2009, p. 4):

- “The identification and acquisition of specialized concepts activated in discourse;
• The evaluation, consultation, and elaboration of information resources;
• The recognition of interlinguistic correspondences based on concepts in the specialized knowledge field; and
• The management of the information and knowledge acquired and its reuse in future translations.”

2.1.3 Specialized language, special and general language

In the field of terminology studies, scholars argue there are two significant types of language: special and general languages. Each type has its specific features. Therefore, the difference between general and specialized language is discussed in order to cast light on the difference between terms and words as language units.

It can be argued that since words can share more than one meaning, special and general language may be related. Sager et al. (1980, p. 2) point out that there are differences between special and general languages with regard to the levels of semantics, grammar, and pragmatics. The authors state, “special languages, or more precisely special subject languages, are usually thought of as the means of expression of highly qualified subject specialists like engineers, physicians, lawyers, etc. and are often derogatively referred to as ‘jargon’” (Sager et al., 1980, p. 3). Sager et al. (1980) also affirm, “special languages are semi-autonomous, complex semiotic systems based on and derived from general language, and their use presupposes special education and is restricted to communication among specialists in the same or closely related fields” (p.69).

Faber and Martínez (2009, p. 1) use the term ‘specialized language’ rather than ‘special language’ and assert that general and specialized languages are not “so very different” since they share such features as polysemy and synonymy. They also point out that every type of discourse,
either general or specialized, has its own characteristics. The authors affirm, “The characteristics that differentiate general discourse and specialized discourse go far beyond the dichotomy between word and term. Important variables are topic, user, and context, which make specialized discourse a communication tool that requires its own type of analysis” (Faber and Martínez, 2009, p. 6).

Faber (2012) also sees that the semantic capacity of the terminological units in specialized language is in fact what makes it different from the general language. In addition, Faber (2012) highlights that there are four underpinnings for specialized language: 1) cognition; 2) categorization; 3) semiosis; and 4) representation. Thus, mental representations of terminological units are a central concern for specialized language semantics (Faber, 2012, p. 93).

Consequently, what will be referred to as specialized language throughout this study is a combination between the notions offered by Sager et al (1980), Faber and Martínez (2009) and Faber (2012). Thus, knowing what a special language is makes it much easier to recognize the characteristics of general language.

The distinction between words and terms should also be clarified. Cabré (1999) states, “the basic components of any language are the lexicon, which consists of the words of language and the rules accounting for a speaker’s creativity. Words are also units of reference to reality and connect us to the real world” (p. 29). She, in fact, points out the difference between word and term when she describes the former of possessing a “set of systematic linguistic characteristics and has the property of referring to an element in reality. Whereas the term is a unit with similar linguistic characteristics used in a special domain. From this standpoint, a word of a special subject field would be a term” (Cabré, 1999, p. 35).
When studying the pragmatics side, it is possible to pinpoint differences between words and terms. Topics, situations, types of discourse and users all determine the difference between terms and words. Thus, specialized topics such as types of automobile engines are expected to be filled with (specialized) terms not (general) words. In contrast, the type of discourse that takes place between people in daily life about their family affairs and children is expected to contain more general words than specialized terms. In this respect, Cabré puts it in a simple way by saying that professionals mostly use terms, and words are used by all other people (1999, p. 36). Therefore, it can be argued that lexicology handles words and terminology deals with terms to reference specialized concepts in subject domains, and words account “for the lexical competence of speakers” (Cabré, 1999, p. 36).

2.2 Interest and Motivation

2.2.1 Situational and individual interests

Renninger and Hidi (2016) establish that interest is “a psychological state, and it is also a motivational predisposition to reengage with particular content that can develop” (p. 125). Studies in the field of interest show that there are generally two dominant types of interest that a person may have—individual and situational (Karpp, Hidi, & Renninger 1992). Academics define individual interest as the person’s ‘enduring’ psychological inclination, while situational interest refers to interests triggered by effects in the environment that have an impact on people’s values and knowledge (Hidi 1990; Hidi & Anderson 1992; Hidi, Renninger & Krapp 1992; Krapp et al 1992; Mitchell 1993; Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000; Hidi & Renninger 2006). Individual interests are those developed from a young age, while situational ones are acquired at any time based on existing environmental triggers. Thus, people can say that they have been interested (individual
interest) in reading since they were children, whereas they have become interested (situational interest) in reading about American politics after, for instance, watching a recent US presidential debate.

Renninger and Hidi (2011, p. 170) maintain that there are four stages of interest an individual can develop over time. These stages are: “1) triggered situational interest; 2) maintained situational interest; 3) emerging individual interest; and 4) well-developed individual interest.” In this model, attention plays a major role in the first stage and obviously relies on how a person reacts to a trigger that can be either brief or long. Attention constructs the base of any interest, and leads to the next stage of maintained situational interest. This stage, according to the authors, is marked by maintaining and repeating the new or existing interests that are influenced by the environment or are self-initiated by the individual. This stage of maintained situational interest leads to the next stage of emerging individual interest that individuals practice consistently until it becomes a well-developed individual interest (Renninger and Hidi, 2011). The sequential order of these stages is also an important aspect that should not be overlooked. The timing factor is dependent on the personal experience as it varies among individuals. In this regard, Renninger and Hidi state,

Phases in the development of interest are considered to be sequential and distinct and to represent a form of cumulative, progressive development in cases where interest is supported and sustained, either through the efforts of others or because of challenges or opportunities (Harackiewicz et al., 2008; Hulleman, Durik, Schweigert, & Harackiewicz, 2008; Krapp & Lewalter, 2001; Nolen, 2007; Renninger & Hidi, 2002). However, interest may also fluctuate or fall off (Bergin, 1999; Renninger & Lipstein, 2006). The length and character of a given phase is influenced by individual experience, temperament, and genetic predisposition, as well as the learner’s environment (Nolen, 2007; Renninger & Leckrone, 1991; Renninger & Riley, in press; Tsai et al., 2008) (Renninger and Hidi, 2011, p. 170).
Thus, the authors state that there are a number of factors that contribute to the influence of interest in any phase, such as knowledge, value and affect. Other scholars such as Krapp (2007) posit other classifications of how interests develop. He offers a three-stage process: emerging situational, stabilized situational, and individual interest. This process simply refers to how interests can be developed. First and foremost, a person recognize that he/she had a reaction towards a trigger that makes him/her inclined to do/practice something new for the first time. This is emerging situational interest stage. With the frequent practice and progress, it develops into a stabilized situational interest that can be described as a new habit. Over a period of time, people will see this specific interest becoming enduring and part of their lives. This is what makes it an individual interest (Krapp, 2007; Renninger and Hidi, 2011, p. 171). It should be highlighted in this context that the term situational interest was first introduced by Krapp (1989), and Hidi (2001, p. 193) sees that situational interest in general as a concept should cover all types of interest that are triggered by the environment including text-based interest.

Hidi (2001) discusses the differences between situational and individual interest based on Hidi and Baird (1986), Schiefele et al. (1988), Krapp (1989, 1999, 2000), Renninger (2000), among others. In this distinction, individual interest refers to “a relatively stable predisposition that develops over time and is associated with increased value, knowledge, and positive feelings”, whereas situational interest is defined as “a potential reaction to environmental input that has two possible stages, one in which interest is triggered and a subsequent stage in which interest is maintained” (Hidi, 2001, p. 194). Both types of interests are believed to be an aid to learning and cognitive functioning (Hidi 2001, p. 194).

In contrast, there are other related types of interest suggested by scholars, such as topic or text-based interest. Topic interest refers to the “interest triggered when a specific topic or theme is
presented” (Hidi, 2001, p. 194). However, it is apparent that there are differing views on whether or not topic interest is individual or situational. Ainley et al. (1999), for instance, after conducting an experimental study, argue that topic interest has an influence on learning through effect, which, in turn, has a positive impact on students’ persistence for learning. They also establish that topic interest is influenced by both individual and situational aspects in learners’ knowledge and personalities (cited in Hidi, 2001, p. 195). In addition, topic or text-based interest can also be triggered by text characteristics, such as visual imagery, novelty, surprising information, and other factors (Hidi, 2001, p. 195).

This study uses a broader definition of situational interest that is linked to text-based interest (also referred to as the interestingness of a text), as is discussed in Chapter 3.

2.2.2 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

In the human mind, interest stems from the *conation* component of the mind trilogy. This conception of conation goes back to the 1700s in Germany and generally implies that the human mind is seen in three distinct domains: cognition, affection and conation (Hilgard, 1980). Cognition refers to “the process of coming to know and understand; of encoding, perceiving, storing, processing, and retrieving information” (Huit & Cain, 2005, p. 1), whereas affection is seen as “the emotional interpretation of perceptions, information, or knowledge. It is generally associated with one’s attachment (positive or negative) to people, objects, ideas, etc.” (Huit & Cain, 2005, p. 1). Meanwhile, conation refers to “the connection of knowledge and affect to behavior and is associated with the issue of “why”. It is the personal, intentional, planful, deliberate, goal-oriented, or striving component of motivation” (Huit & Cain, 2005, p. 1).
Interest and motivation are considered key components of conation, and are seen to provide the energy and persistence for a person to maintain willpower and achieve his/her own goals (Hilgard, 1980; Huitt & Cain, 2005, pp. 6-7). Furthermore, Deci (1998) links interest, as a general concept that includes both situational and individual interest, to motivating behaviors towards learning activities under the concept of ‘intrinsic motivation’. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), intrinsic motivation is seen as individuals’ tendencies to undertake tasks without any ‘reinforcement’, because they hold their interest and therefore enjoy doing them. In other words, intrinsic motivation can be defined as an interest-based internal inclination towards doing activities, while extrinsic motivation refers to an individual’s propensity for undertaking activities because of external rewards (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 61). For example, if learners are not interested in a certain subject matter, they are expected to show a lack of intrinsic motivation in doing their tasks. Consequently, interest, including its related aspects such as enjoyment and satisfaction, is the base upon which intrinsic motivation builds (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Figure 1: The Interaction between Interest and Motivation during Learning based on Ryan and Deci (2000)
Figure 1 highlights how these components of the mind interact. It is apparent that interest, when comprised of both types, individual and situational interest, can be treated as the main gear for engaging in any life activity. Interest operates the intrinsic motivation of an individual, and enables the individual to undertake the task, with a high capacity of attention, comprehension, and recall. For such people, extrinsic motivation may not seem crucial in order to complete tasks. However, in any circumstances, it can be assumed that if intrinsic motivation exists, the extrinsic aspect is an additional support that will aid learners’ performance.

2.3 Semantic and episodic memory

Dickerson and Eichenbaum (2010) state that there are multiple forms of memory in the human brain, specifically procedural, emotional, and declarative memory. They argue that procedural memory is the first form of memory, and has a direct link with actions and movement-related learning, such as riding a horse or driving vehicles. Another type of memory discussed by the authors is emotional memory, which involves preference changes due to experiences that were unpleasant for the individual. A good example of this is when people change their food preferences because of a bad experience, such as food poisoning (Dickerson & Eichenbaum, 2010, p. 1). Furthermore, the authors highlight another type of memory called declarative memory which falls into two timeframe categories; working/short term and long term. In relation to the former, the authors state:

Working memory involves the short-term maintenance of information in mind, and often the manipulation of that information for the purpose of achieving an immediate goal. The classic example is remembering a phone number while picking up and dialing a phone. However, working memory is also important for comprehending long written or spoken sentences, performing calculations, and holding in mind a string of new information or a series of movements. Performing multiple simultaneous tasks also requires working memory (Dickerson & Eichenbaum, 2010, p. 1).
As for the long term declarative memory, Dickerson and Eichenbaum indicate that semantic memory and episodic memory are types of this memory. In their view, semantic memory refers to encyclopedic and factual knowledge that people learn over time. These types of knowledge include historical events, characteristics of objects and so on (Dickerson & Eichenbaum, 2010, p. 1). In contrast, episodic memory is seen as:

The ability to learn, store, and retrieve information about unique personal experiences that occur in daily life. These memories typically include information about the time and place of an event, as well as detailed information about the event itself. The ability to describe the details of a recent holiday gathering or office meeting that took place in the previous weeks or months, for example, depends heavily on intact episodic memory function. (Dickerson & Eichenbaum, 2010, p. 2).

Tulving and Craik (2000) contend that memory is essential for learning. They define semantic memory as the part of brain that has organized sets of facts, information, conceptual units, and words (Tulving & Craik, 2000, p. 632). While in their view, episodic memory refers to what the mind records as life events that are associated with certain times and places. Memories of getting your first speeding ticket or watching heart-breaking catastrophic events such as traffic accidents are examples of episodic memory (Tulving & Craik, 2000, p. 22).

2.4 Experiential Learning

Experiential learning is an approach through which learners engage with an experience and learn from it and is the opposite of the traditional approach where learners memorize information and knowledge. Weil and McGill (1989) underscore that experiential learning is a sort of transformational process that affects learning. They also argue that “experiential learning is definitely not the mere memorizing of abstract theoretical knowledge” (Weil & McGill, 1989, p. 27).
There are several definitions of experiential learning. First, Kolb (1984) describes it as “the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience” (p. 41). Another definition worth highlighting is Saddlington’s (1992, p. 44) insight, where experiential learning is seen as sets of processes that involve deep reflections of an experience that help learners gain knowledge and create new paths for other future experiences. Jarvis (1999) offers a definition that includes the qualities that this type of learning may generate as a consequence of engaging with experiences. He states, “experiential learning is learning that begins with experience and transforms into knowledge, skill, attitude, emotions, values, beliefs, and senses” (p. 1). Meanwhile, Beard and Wilson (2002, p. 16) define experiential learning on two occasions. Initially, they state that experiential learning is all about the perception that individuals gain from their own personal observations and experiences, which will be an aid for building new knowledge and promote past experiences. Four years later Beard and Wilson (2006) revised their definition by highlighting key elements, namely the person, experience and the environment. They now argue, “experiential learning is the sense-making process of active engagement between the inner world of the person and the outer world of the environment” (p. 2). Furthermore, experiential learning can somehow be linked to the concept of value with regard to motivation to learn. In this regard, Eccles (1983) suggests that there are three main task values: 1) attainment value; 2) intrinsic value; and 3) utility value. (1983, p. 89). Attainment value refers to “the importance of doing well on the task” while intrinsic/interest value refers to “the inherent, immediate enjoyment one get from engaging in an activity.” (p. 89). In addition, Eccles defines the utility value as the value that is “determined by the importance of the task for some future goal that might itself be somewhat unrelated to the process nature of the task at hand.” (pp. 89-90).
There are other definitions for experiential learning but the aforementioned definitions are the most relevant to the scope of the current study. In particular, Beard and Wilson’s most recent definition casts light on key elements, such as individual, actual experience and environment that are associated with the experience of learning.

In the next section, definitions for job-shadowing are discussed as a type of experiential learning that is part of the model that this study proposes.

2.5 Job shadowing

Job shadowing is an experiential opportunity that enables learners to shadow competent employees in their work environment in order to observe the nature of work and skills practiced in a real-life setting. Hernández-Gantes and Blank (2008) view job shadowing as a helpful experience that has a flexible timeframe (from a few hours to several days), which involves observing and following a competent worker. This experience can be seen as a supportive strategy for educating young learners because of the existence of controlling factors such as instructor supervision and time control. Through this experience, learners’ motivation and interest will improve if they already have learned the basics of the worker’s job whom they shadow (Hernández-Gantes & Blank, 2008, p. 167).

Job-shadowing in this study is regarded as an educational and experiential practice that is related to learners’ interests, through which they may be enabled to closely experience specialized knowledge and language concepts in real-life settings. This kind of practice may significantly influence both their episodic and semantic memory in a way that will enhance their ability to comprehend and recall specialized terms and concepts.
3.1 Historical Overview

The need to formulate terms referring to scientific concepts underlays the emergence of the field of terminology. In the 18th and 19th centuries, scientists including zoologists, chemists, and botanists, demonstrated that having systematic rules for naming and standardizing terms was crucial to ensure an ease of communication between specialists (Cabre, 1999). Therefore, it can be argued that terminology as a discipline that emerged as a result of scientists’ motivations to facilitate communication. In this context, Wüster (1898-1977) called for the establishment of “modern terminology” (Cabré, 1999, p. 2).

Certain scholars consider terminology to be a branch of applied linguistics but others see it as an independent discipline. Felber (1984) highlights that an early accomplishment in the field of terminology that started in Germany in the 20th century was due to an engineer named Alfred Scholomann. His work consists of seven volumes of technical terms in more than three languages. In addition, Cabré (1999) points out that the growing internationalization was behind calls for engineers and standardizers to agree upon rules in formulating terms. Therefore, InfoTerm (The International Information Center for Terminology) with its program, TermNet, was formed in 1971 to organize and support international cooperation in scientific terminology in order to facilitate communication between specialized language users (Felber, 1984).

In this field, academics note that the founder of the modern terminology came from the field of engineering. According to Cabré (1999), Wüster is the “founder of the modern
terminology” (p. 5). Furthermore, he oversaw the establishment of the four schools of terminology in England, Vienna, Prague, and the Soviet Union, adherents of which Wuster termed the ‘intellectual fathers of terminology theory’. In Germany: Schlomann was “the first to consider the systematic nature of special terms, while in Switzerland, Wüster regards Saussure as the first to highlight the systematic nature of language. In Russia, Dresen was a pioneer in emphasizing the necessity of standardization and in England Holmstrom was one of the first to call for the formation of an international committee to handle terminology issues and was also concerned with “disseminating terminologies on an international scale” (Cabré, 1999, p. 5).

There have been four main phases in the development of modern terminology: the first phase focuses on designing methods concerned with the formation of terms (1930-1960); the second phase through which processes and attempts to structure the field were made, and is marked by the first approaches at standardization (1960-1975); the third phase, which Cabré characterizes as “the boom”, included projects involving language planning and terminology; and the fourth phase is regarded as the ‘expansion’ of the field, in which computer science played a key role (1985-present). (Cabré, 1999, pp. 5-6).

The following section briefly discusses several key schools and theories of terminology to help grasp aspects of the theoretical component of this discipline, which is an integral part of the study’s proposed model.

3.2 Schools and Theories of Terminology

There are three main schools of terminology which represent the theoretical orientation of terminology: 1) the Vienna school, which is based on Wüster’s work and principles; 2) the Czech School in Prague, which is concerned with the structural and functional aspects of ‘specialized
language’; and 3) the Russian school in Moscow, which is concerned with the standardization of terms and concepts. Other schools of terminology came into existence as a result of the expansion of the three major schools including schools in France, Quebec, Scandinavia and Belgium (Cabré 1999, pp. 12-13). At this stage, it should be noted that terminology as a field of study is still developing.

There are two classifications through which terminology is seen by scholars within the same domain: prescriptive and descriptive (Faber & Rodriguez, 2012). The following section presents a brief chronological overview of theories and approaches.

3.2.1 The General Theory of Terminology

The General Theory of Terminology is regarded as the ‘first proposal’ in the field of terminology by the Austrian scholar engineer Eugen Wüster. Wüster published the first French-English technical dictionary under the title, *The Machine Tool: An Interlingual Dictionary of Basic Concepts*. He was concerned with the aim of organizing and standardizing terminological information in the arena of specialized knowledge. In this theoretical approach, Wuster differentiates between terms and words with regard to the relationship with concepts. According to Pavel & Nolets (2001), terms differ from words in their none-multiple meaning relationship with specialized concepts to which they are linked, as well as for “the stability of the relationship between form and content in texts dealing with [specialized] concepts.” (Faber & Rodrigues, 2012, p. 13). Wuster’s approach was also an attempt to avoid ambiguity in technical language and support the underpinnings of the new emerging field of terminology (Faber & Rodregues, 2012).

Wuster set out objectives for the establishment of the General Theory of Terminology. According to Cabré (1999) those objectives are:
1) eliminate ambiguity from technical languages by means of standardization of terminology in order to make them efficient tools of communication; 2) convince all users of technical languages of the benefits of standardized terminology; and 3) establish terminology as a discipline for all practical purposes and to give it the status of a science (p. 173).

However, Faber and Rodrigues (2012) underscore that although Wuster’s principles are concerned with efforts to standardize names for concepts, the approach tends to overlook the syntactic side of terminology. They also highlight that “the General Theory of Terminology also regarded terminology as exclusively synchronic and thus ignored the diachronic dimension of terms” (Faber & Rodrigues, 2012, p. 13).

3.2.2 Socio-terminology

This approach resulted from academics’ motivations to go beyond the prescriptive side of terminology to the descriptive one. According to Faber and Rodriguez (2012), socio-terminology is the first access point to the descriptive approach to terminology. This approach was proposed by Gaudin (1993) as a method of analyzing terminology from the social angle in that it asserts that there may be a number of variants for a term although they may still refer to one concept. This view plays a role in specialized communication. Thus, Faber and Rodrigues (2012) highlight that socio-terminologists see language in a process of constant change. Thus, they are not in favor of standardization for that reason. In addition, Pihkala (2001) underscores the importance of the communication environment when using specialized terminology, as this, according to him, comprises the underpinnings of socio-terminology (Faber & Rodrigues, 2012, p. 14).

3.2.3 Communicative theory of terminology

In 1999, Cabré presented her Communicative Theory of Terminology as being oriented toward communication in an attempt to narrow the gap between linguistics and terminology (Faber
& Rodrigues, 2012). Cabré postulates that contexts and discourses determine whether or not the lexical units can be granted a specialized meaning. This theory attempts to take into account the complexity of terms’ conceptual units from different perspectives such as cognitive, social and linguistic perspectives. However, Faber and Rodrigues point out that such a theory has certain limitations with regard to its way of viewing “conceptual semantics and semantic meaning” (2012, p. 15). The authors believe that the Communicative Theory of Terminology is not associated with one specific model of linguistics but that it is clearly divided between various models. Thus, they argue that the Communicative Theory of Terminology pays little to zero attention to the description of specialized meaning (Faber & Rodrigues, 2012, p. 16).

3.2.4 Socio-cognitive theory of terminology

In this theoretical approach, Temmerman (1997) focuses on the communicative environments as they are somehow responsible for producing situational and cognitive circumstances that have a key role in determining the potential meaning of terminology in any field. This theory also underscores the significance of conceptual organizations and structures that are based on cognitive linguistics. According to Temmerman (1997), the Socio-cognitive Theory of Terminology emphasizes that standardization should not always be the orientation for terminology as a discipline. (p. 53). The author also emphasizes that it is important, when studying terminology, to cast light on the interactive relations of the three components of the semantic triangle (language, mind and world), according to the findings of cognitive semantics in the socio-cognitive domain. These, she argues, have not received sufficient attention and require further exploration as they are usually supposed to “function in a social setting” (Temmerman, 1997, p. 55).
3.2.5 Frame based terminology

Faber (2007, 2009, 2012) bases her theory of frame-based terminology on altered principles of Frame Semantics and on the premise that meaning is ‘context-dependent’. Faber asserts that using an amended version of basic Frame Semantics principles is what frame-based terminology facilitates the recognition and organization of specialized domains (Faber & Rodrigues, 2012, p. 23). It can be argued that frame-based terminology, as a new cognitive approach to terminology, has something in common with the communicative theory of terminology (Cabre 1999), given the tendency to underline the conceptual organization of terms and to claim that terminological units have a “multidimensional” nature (Faber & Rodrigues, 2012, p. 23).

Moreover, frame-based terminology handles meaning as a component that has a close relationship to the context, without which meaning can scarcely be deduced. Faber and Rodrigues (2012) highlight the role of conceptual structures and semantic frames to fulfill an optimal understanding of the meaning associated with words. Frame-based terminology, as an approach, seeks to convey information that is related to terms and contexts, in an attempt to provide a full description that leads to an ideal specialized meaning. In this regard, Faber and Rodrigues (2012) state: “Frame-based terminology endeavors to give a full accounting of the information necessary to fully describe a term, and which should be included in fully specified terminological entry” (p. 31).
3.3 Teaching Terminology

3.3.1 Picht and Partal

Picht and Partal (1997) discuss terminology training from different angles. First, the authors highlight that terminology training is performed in various academic and nonacademic environments. Their work is significant since it is regarded one of the major published works in terminology training and is frequently cited by recent terminology researchers such as Faber (2009, 2012) and Alcina (2009). Picht and Partal (1997) also discuss every type of terminology training program and propose enhanced practices that help meet the job market requirements. Picht and Partal classify the prevalent types of terminology training as: 1) compulsory terminology, which is often taught in the first year of a translation program and which is focused on tools and practice; 2) optional terminology, which generally shares almost the same objectives of the former but with resilience that makes students able to manage their learning process to ensure enhanced learning and deep reflection; and 3) post-graduate training courses that are designed for specific types of users (1997, p. 305).

Terminology as an optional component and terminology as post-graduate training are in line with the current study’s proposal with regard to giving students the autonomy to select their experiential learning path based on their interests. In this context, Picht and Partal (1997) highlight that giving learners the option to enroll in terminology courses helps ignite their motivation for further theoretical reflections and probably develop an interest in conducting research and projects related to terminology. Therefore, interest would encourage students to learn more about fields in which they have interest in conjunction with their terminology course content as proposed by the current study model. In relation to post-graduate terminology training, Picht and Partal (1997)
highlight the various types of terminology training programs based on each group task, such as teachers, consultants, translators and researchers. Each course type has a set of objectives that ought to be met in order to help the individual achieve teaching/learning goals, such as “raising a certain consciousness in students of the importance of terminology in the translation process” (Picht & Partal, 1997, p. 307).

There are over 15 elements of training suggested by the authors, of which several are worth highlighting. On the one hand, the compulsory elements, such as introduction to the field, aims and objectives of terminology, basic concepts in terminology, terminography,\(^2\) distinction between terms and concepts, and terminology management processes, are relevant in forming the current study’s model (Picht & Partal, 1997, p. 309-311). On the other hand, a narrow focus will be placed on a number of elements within the optional training components. Since the study’s model is specifically designed for translation learners, the optional component of “terminology and special language text production” (Picht & Partal, 1997, p. 313) and “terminology, professional communication, special languages and knowledge transfer” (ibid) appears relevant to the current study. These components tackle how terminology can aid processes of acquiring professional knowledge and communication transfer in professional settings, such as organizations, enterprises, and agencies. The authors also include components that handle topics about the history and schools of terminology, terminology and corpora and terminology planning (ibid).

In relation to the teaching materials, the authors underline that unfortunately textbooks were rarely available since there is little attention paid to this specific discipline. However,

\(^2\) “Terminography is not limited to collecting the terms of particular domain for informative or descriptive purposes, but rather the aim is to establish certain terminological units as standardized forms as references forms, thereby discarding other variants for the same concepts. The final goal is achieving precise and unambiguous professional communication” (Cabré, 1999, p. 38)
handouts, manuals, and theoretical articles may fill this gap (Picht and Partal, 1997, p. 319).
Nevertheless, Picht and Partal (1997) do not refer to the concept of interest. Although their research tackles terminology training solely from a pedagogical standpoint, it seems relevant, to a certain extent, and is useful as a reference for developing the study’s model.

3.3.2 Alcina

Alcina (2009) explores methods for teaching and learning terminology in an attempt to come up with new strategies and methods to help learners meet the demands of current/future job market. She points out that it is the right time to re-evaluate terminology course teaching materials. In this paper, the author highlights the obvious link between education and psychology in order to arrive at an optimal understanding of how knowledge can be transmitted in a way that influences promising changes in the learning process (Alcina, 2009, p. 2). In this light, she states:

we need to begin by examining studies on learning theories and adapt them both to the own nature of the discipline we are concerned with, Terminology, and to the professionals we are going to train, whether they are foreign language learners, terminologists or translators; and on the basis of these reflections [on the learning processes] design the most appropriate teaching program (p. 2).

According to Alcina, it is obvious that treating learners as active subjects in the learning environment is a path by which to achieve success in the teaching-learning process. In this regard, she points out that active subjects search for information that is relevant, process it, put it into classifications and make relationships to previous knowledge and arrange ideas that provoke new patterns (Alcina, 2009, p. 3).

Alcina stresses that the concept of ‘significant learning’ is important in being able to actively assimilate information. She clearly states: “Significant learning implies, firstly, that there is a substantial rather than arbitrary relation, between the new information and the pre-existing
cognitive structure. And secondly, it implies that the student must have a positive attitude towards this learning, and must be willing to establish this significant relation” (Alcina, 2009, p. 3). She goes on to show how significant it is when we integrate new information to previous cognitive patterns using this type of learning as it supports comprehension and the recall of knowledge for the sake of objective interpretation, reasoning and problem solving. The teaching design proposed in this study comprises: 1) objectives, which refer to teaching expected outcomes; 2) contents, which refer to teaching materials; 3) methodology, pedagogical strategies and practices; and 4) assessment, which refers to controlling and measuring teaching/learning processes and outcomes (Alcina, 2009, pp. 3-4).

There are three main objectives that seem to be relevant to the scope of the current study. These objectives revolve around the acquisition of: 1) knowledge; 2) skills; and 3) attitude. In relation to ‘knowledge’, the author states that gaining/improving one’s cognitive skills is in fact linked to the acquisition of knowledge. Thus, it is asserted that knowledge acquisition can involve three cognition-related levels: 1) recall; 2) interpretation; and 3) problem solving. She adds that tasks should be designed taking these three levels into account (Alcina, 2009, p. 5). Skills’ acquisition is explored in three distinct levels: 1) imitation; 2) control; and 3) automatism (Guilbert, 1994 cited in Alcina, 2009, p. 5). These levels demonstrate that skills can gradually be mastered. Finally, in relation to the final objective ‘attitudes’, Alcina emphasizes that it is a ‘subjective’ intellectual emotional mix that learners utilize while handling new experiences and situations, and whenever learners show interest in the subject materials it may substantially be due to their relationship to their professional profiles (De Juan Herrero, 1996 cited in Alcina 2009, p. 5).
As for study materials, the author highlights that contents should be chosen taking into account the course’s objectives, the subject’s status and teaching-learning situations. In addition, technical resources, such as computers and software, should be used if available (Alcina, 2009, pp. 5-6).

Alcina (2009, p. 6) proposes three essential stages for assessing the process of teaching/learning:

- Initial or diagnostic assessment: this helps measure leaners’ skills, personalities, previous knowledge and so on in order to be able to design/amend teaching skills to meet teaching-learning objectives.
- Formative assessment: this helps measure learner progress during the process of learning-teaching to see whether or not there would be a need to adapt any objective to reach the desired goals.
- Summative assessment: this helps measure the learners’ levels after reaching a number of objectives to test their knowledge.

Thus, Alcina (2009) agrees that the assessment process should involve a number of stages to measure changes and progress before and after building knowledge, in addition to the importance of including both practical and theoretical aspects of terminology. Alcina (2009) does not refer to terminological competence, but her work offers insights with regard to the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitude.

**3.3.3 Gijón, Amat, Lao and Solé**

Gijón et al. (2009) demonstrate how problem based learning (PBL) can be applied to terminology learning/teaching in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). They argue that
PBL is a beneficial aid for learners to be able to gain general competences and subject-specific competences (Gijón et al., 2009, p. 111). Citing studies about translation competences, the authors point out that terminology skills/competences are generally listed under the subject matter sub-competence (Nord, 1991; PACTE, 2000; Schaffner & Adab, 2000; Gijón et al., 2009). Like other scholars, the authors highlight that when it comes to terminology teaching/training there is a narrow number of bibliographical references and there is little attention given by translation schools to the necessity of teaching terminology to translation students (Gijón et al., 2009, p. 107).

Gijón et al. (2009) raise several points that are relevant to the current study. First, the authors propose a methodology that seeks to apply PBL in terminology courses for translation learners. The methodology of Gijón et al. study appears to be useful for its:

- Learning objectives that are focused on the attainment of theoretical and methodological skills central to terminology works.
- Tendency to make use of various resources (i.e., handbooks, expert consultation, etc.).
- Proposed theoretical component of the course.
- Eight-stage methodology.

Learners through the proposed eight stages will perform the following tasks (Gijón et al., 2009, pp. 110-111):

1. Identify related ideas;
2. Identify and explore crucial concepts;
3. Write and explain their statement of hypotheses;
4. Measure and state their current level of knowledge about the issue to be handled;
5. Determine resources to be consulted;
6. Compare and evaluate all information collected.
7. Highlight the topics that have been helpful while handling this issue; and
8. Provide solutions in line with what have been learned throughout this process.

According to Gijón et al. (2009), PBL is probably one of the most effective training approaches to terminology in translation curricula because it gives learners the ability to practice different skills to efficiently handle complex terminology related issues within translations tasks. Their eight stages of PBL can contribute to the design of further tasks that may be integrated into the current study’s model.

3.3.4 Faber and Martinez

Faber and Martinez (2009) also approach terminology through the viewpoint of pedagogy. In their article, ‘Terminological Competence in Translation’, the authors point out that there have been no significant attempts to conduct research in the field of teaching terminology and specialized language. They also stress that current programs of terminology at Spanish universities, for instance, are still based on prescriptive principles inspired by Wuster’s school of terminology. Therefore, they see the need to conduct research designed to explore new methods for teaching terminology at the undergraduate level. Faber and Martinez’s work can be regarded significant for its descriptive nature. The authors propose a model for teaching terminology that is based upon a thorough representation of theoretical premises and backgrounds of other scholars, such as Cabré (1999, 2003) and Temmerman (2000). Thus, it has a substantial relevance to the model of the current study.

The authors’ proposed course is mainly derived from a frame-based approach to terminology and harmonizes well with the communicative and socio-cognitive theories of terminology. The model is based on a key assumption that translators and authors operate from
different levels of knowledge. Faber and Martinez (2009) emphasize the importance of introducing
students to the theoretical aspect of terminology and specialized languages pointing to the
necessity for using various teaching models that enable students to function as “the manager of
their learning processes” (Faber & Raya, 2003 cited in Faber & Martinez, 2009, p. 8). Furthermore,
the authors underline that in-class presentations and group work might be helpful in developing
students’ ability to perform well and gain knowledge throughout the course.

Faber and Martinez’s (2009) study’s significance comes from the way the course model is
organized in three main sections concerning the acquisition, documentation and managing of
specialized language. The authors also state that the use of a learner-centered approach of teaching
is essential to achieve the course’s goals. The approach is based on a cognitive restructuring that
involves “conscious, deliberate reformulation of processing schemas” (Faber & Martinez, 2009,
p. 8). Helping learners live the experience of conceptual change within the course is also seen as
an important objective that should always be taken into account. Therefore, it is predicted that
integrating interest, as a practical/experiential component, in a terminology course plan could
support this type of change. The authors consider the following procedures to be essential: “1)
identifying the previous ideas of the students; 2) questioning their ideas by using counterexamples;
3) introducing new concepts; and 4) providing opportunities for students to use new ideas in
various types of situations and confirm their explanatory and predictive power” (Faber & Martinez,
2009, p. 8). It can be argued that these aforementioned procedures can go alone with Alcina’s
notion of significant learning discussed above.

In relation to teaching materials, the authors recommend various resources such as
specialized texts, manuals, journal articles, monographs, multimedia texts, and software
applications (Faber & Martinez, 2009, p. 9). Such materials can take students’ interest into account
in order to ensure persistent and continual learning. As far as evaluation and assessment\(^3\) are concerned, the authors point out that learners are the center of evaluation in this course, and they use evaluation stages that are not extremely different from Alcina’s (2009). They borrow Fenwick and Parson’s (2000) notions of evaluating students’ performance to arrive at the final assessment in which they set out three different stages in order to be able to measure the progress of their students: 1) initial evaluation; 2) formative evaluation; and 3) final evaluation. Faber and Martinez (2009, p. 9) also emphasize the importance of including learning activities that support collaborative work among students in the classroom in order to be able to evaluate their attitudinal, procedural and conceptual knowledge gained in their terminology course.

Another remarkable part of Faber and Martinez’s model is the method they posit as the best to organize their class. According to the authors, it is the way that the teacher organizes learning and teaching materials that determines the success of the course. They provide a template that can be used to organize the class that is designed to motivate learners to actively participate and interact with their classmates while learning to approach the goals set for the course (see Appendix D). The template includes four main phases: 1) introduction; 2) group work; 3) exposition and discussion of results; and 4) evaluation of results (Faber & Martinez, 2009, p. 11).

In addition, the authors address the notion of ‘good translation’, which they clearly relate to the ability to use both the knowledge of theory and skills in translation. Therefore, they assert that having a terminological competence\(^4\) for the translator may substantially help in the

\(^3\) In Faber and Martinez (2009) evaluation is regarded as progressive and corresponds to the notion of assessment as is used by Baehr (2010), Straight (2002) and Colina (2011) who see assessment as focusing on process and giving feedback for improvements, whereas evaluation is focused on product and final judgement of the work provided (Dewi, 2015, p. 13).

\(^4\) Faber & Martinez (2009) assert that “terminological competence does not refer to the acquisition of a list of terms, but rather to the ability of the translator to acquire the knowledge represented by these terms.” (p. 5).
production of a good translation that communicates the specialized knowledge from a specialized source language to a specialized target language. The authors highlight four distinct requirements that help translation learners acquire skills and knowledge linked to terminology as follows: (2009, p. 12):

• Selecting teaching objectives and learning contents carefully;

• Applying teaching methodologies that help utilize proper activities and learning techniques;

• Working hard by using suitable educational materials in order to achieve the teaching goals; and

• Paying attention to the fact that in order to effectively achieve the course goals, evaluation strategies should be applied in agreement with the teaching methodology.

It is apparent that the authors, through their course model, aim to reinforce the autonomy of learners and emphasize their responsibility of being in control of the learning processes, and to be able to professionally handle any translation work that involves the handling of specialized language texts (Faber & Martinez, 2009, p. 12). It can be argued that integrating interest into a course plan such as this is expected to promote not only learning but also motivation, persistence and terminological competence acquisition.

Overall, Faber and Martinez’s model fits into the current study schemas in that the current study is conducted in the same field, namely specialized language and terminological competence. In general, their study proposes a program that helps learners develop their knowledge of specialized language and terminological competence to become competent translators who can handle the translation of specialized text relying on their own translation and terminological competences.
In a recent article, Sikora (2014) discusses the notion of terminological competence in relation to translation competence and proposes a new terminology course designed for translation students. The author bases her discussion on Polish higher education schools for translation. She compares and analyzes two notions of translation competence by European Master’s in Translation System\(^5\) and European norm EN-15038.\(^6\)

Sikora (2014, p. 500) views terminological competence as an essential part of the translation competence that may substantially help translators support their performance in the translation market. Sikora’s definition of terminological competence does not differ significantly from that of Faber and Martinez (2009). According to the author, terminological competence should include thematic competence (the ability to gain knowledge in specialized fields) alongside technical, research and information mining competences (Sikora, 2014, p. 504). This notion of terminological competence focuses on the acquisition of specialized knowledge through ‘thematic competence’, which is relevant to the current study’s model that seeks to help students acquire knowledge in any field of their interest with enhanced comprehension and recall.

\(^5\)“European Master’s in Translation is a partnership project between European Commission and European higher education institutions which was commenced in 2009. The main goal of this project is improving the quality of translator training throughout Europe in order to provide the market with highly skilled professional translators who would be able to respond to the needs and requirements of the contemporary information era and knowledge society” (Sikora, 2014, p. 501).

\(^6\)“EN-15038 is another document worth consideration as it also defines the set of translator professional competences considered essential in the contemporary translation industry. The goal of this standardization of the translation process as well as education and experience norms is raising the profile of the translation industry and enhancing the quality of translation services” (Sikora, 2014, pp. 501-502).
Sikora (2014) proposes a course of terminology management that is similar to the Faber and Martinez (2009) proposed program in terms of objectives and content. The specific course proposal is outlined in Table 1.

Table 1: Sikora’s Proposal of a Translation-Oriented Terminology Management Course

| 1. | Basic theoretical introduction to terminology, terminology management, translator’s terminological needs, benefits of terminology management |
| 2. | Presentation of available terminology resources (dictionaries, glossaries, databases, term-bases, linguistic corpora, parallel texts, source and target specialized texts) |
| 3. | Practicing various methods of specialized terminology and information search and evaluation |
| 4. | Presentation of available TM tools and their functionalities |
| 5. | Practicing term extraction, analysis, retrieval, storage and management methods with the use of TM tools |
| 6. | Practicing ensuring term consistency with the use of CAT tools |
| 7. | Compiling and management of a project-based term-base |
| 8. | Management of a translation-oriented terminology project |
| 9. | Practical application of TM tools in translation projects all over the course |


3.4 Terminology in Translation Pedagogy

3.4.1 Gouadec

In a comparative study, Gouadec (2007) underscores the essential role of academic institutions in training future translators to meet the demands of the market, and proposes that one aspect of the integration of theory into practice is the mutual participation between academics and professionals. The author focuses on a number of key issues, such as the remodeling of current programs and establishing new courses that can help translation students gain the required skills to obtain job offers (Gouadec, 2007, p. 332).

By comparing the marketplace skills’ demand and the level of many academic courses in translator training, Gouadec (2007, p. 344) argues that those courses are not established to meet
the current requirements of the profession. Thus, he points out that one of the methods that could be of benefit in training translators for professional work is to offer opportunities to participate in professional environments in different circumstances, such as observing, and practicing under supervision. Alternatively, the courses could simulate the professional environment for training purposes. Moreover, Gouadec (2007, p. 356) suggests that the training of translators could be outsourced to professional companies when there is a lack of competent academic trainers. This notion is relevant to the present study’s proposals of job-shadowing and distance learning, as a useful way for learners to acquire professional knowledge and language from the work-place.

Based on the study’s findings, Gouadec highlights the importance of including new advanced technology in the teaching/learning process. He also proposes 13 core study domains of which two are terminology (terminology for translation/translators) and specialized language (specialized translation under translation skills).

### 3.4.2 Kussmaul

Other translation scholars also advocate the inclusion of terminology courses in translation training programs. For example, Kussmaul (1995, p. 5) highlights that for translators, specialized knowledge and terminology help to achieve an optimal integration between factual and procedural knowledge, where the knowledge of terminology (terms, concepts, and conceptual organizations) falls under the former. Kussmaul (1995) also points out that it is common in different parts of the world to have new learners start their course of study with notable different levels of procedural and declarative knowledge. Furthermore, the author keeps highlighting the necessity to include components on scientific methodologies pertinent to various fields, such as technology, medicine, and law, to help translation learners acquire specialized language and knowledge (Kussmaul, 1995, p. 6).
3.4.3 Kelly

Similarly, Kelly states that “it is indeed possible that average students entering higher education in many countries have less declarative knowledge of memorized facts than in the past, but they probably have much greater procedural knowledge of, for instance, how computers work than the vast majority of their teachers” (2005, p. 44). Thus, it can be argued that seizing learners’ interests may be significantly helpful in building up their declarative knowledge, as is proposed in Chapter 6. Furthermore, it is apparent that terminology is an important component in the educational and training program of translators proposed by Kelly (2005). She puts forward that such courses will substantially help learners realize the nature of professional activities in real life whether in class or on-field activities.

3.4.4 Kiraly

In his chapter entitled ‘Knowledge Construction and the Translators Workstation’, Kiraly (2000) underscores the importance of teaching terminology skills to translation learners. His argument is based around giving learners autonomy in learning in order that they are encouraged to consult various resources to build knowledge pertinent to their translation tasks. Kiraly’s approach towards empowering learners in the classroom and making a transformational step in their learning process is the other reason why this research should be emphasized. The author asserts that transformational learning helps generate intrinsic motivation and thus underpins his social constructivist approach to translation training (Kiraly, 2000, p. 23), according to which, in order to construct knowledge/learning, it is better to change the traditional way of teaching and learning and to move toward a more student-centered classroom.
Fundamentally, Kiraly argues that students should have control over their learning process as this empowers them and ignites their intrinsic motivation for learning. In this respect, Kiraly states:

From a transformationist position, we would see learning essentially as a personal, holistic, intrinsically motivating and socially effectuated construction process. In a classroom based on transformational beliefs, the teacher will assume roles such as guide, assistant, mentor, and facilitator and will see his or her job primarily in terms of helping create complex, naturalistic learning environments in the classroom and providing support for collaborative learning processes. (2000, p.23)

Moreover, the social constructivist approach pays greater attention to the situational factor of learning and how it can influence learners in their endeavors to construct knowledge. In addition, from a constructivist perspective, learners are given the ability to join new communities related to various disciplines in order to gain knowledge and build knowledge/subject-matter competencies in order to assist with the effective implementation of their translation tasks. According to Kiraly’s approach, it is obvious that having students with different views and levels of knowledge can be advantageous with regard to gaining knowledge and leaning. Kiraly indicates that “from a social constructivist viewpoint, the potential for learning emerges from the interaction of different perspectives; having the students work in groups rather than alone allows such different perspectives to emerge” (2000, p. 66).

The underpinnings of Kiraly’s model of teaching and learning are apparently useful for constructing the model that this study proposes because it supports the following:

- Enforcing learner self-concept and learner autonomy;
- Accepting diversity in knowledge levels and perspectives;
- Advocating the student-centered classroom;
• Highlighting the necessity of familiarization with advanced technical tools that help students become more efficient in the work of translation;

• Involving role-playing and simulation of real-life work situations; and

• Advocating, not isolating, learners from real life and making them socially active in building knowledge.

3.4.5 Summary

In the field of translation pedagogy, academics investigate different styles and approaches to translation teaching. However, careful examination of the literature reveals that almost none of the current approaches deal with learners’ interests in learning and building knowledge related to terminology and specialized language. Therefore, the current study introduces a new approach that revolves around learners’ interests. In this context, the following section reviews chronologically a number of key works on interest studies.

3.5 Interest studies

3.5.1 Historical review

In this study, interest, as an educational concept, is regarded as a key underpinning of learning since it is hypothesized that interest enhances learners’ capacity for recall and comprehension. There are several conceptualizations of interest, and they depend on different factors, including psychological processes, environments, and objectives. For instance, Renninger describes the concept of interest as “slippery and difficult to define precisely” (1992, p. 2) and posits that the difficulty can be attributed to the motivational factor reflected in interest and its similarity to the concept of motivation and other related concepts.
Despite this overlap, a number of scholars offer various explanations and classifications for the concept of interest. For example, Herbart (1806), one of the early interest scholars, argues that interest when integrated into learning can help in the retention of knowledge, as well as achieving meaningful learning, and motivates students to learn more (Herbart, 1806 cited in Hidi, 1990, p. 1; Nenniger, 1994, p. 1; Schiefele, 1991, p. 300).

Interest is also seen by James (1890) as an internal directing power that is operated by attention and which has a key role in shaping our experience of objects around us. In other words, James sees a clear relationship between interest and experience such that whenever there is interest, every experience will properly be presented in a very organized way. In this context, James states:

Millions of items of the outward order are present to my senses which never properly enter into my experience. Why? Because they have no interest for me. My experience is what I agree to attend to. Only those items which I notice shape my mind—without selective interest, experience is an utter chaos. Interest alone gives accent and emphasis, light and shade, background and foreground—intelligible perspective, in a word. It varies in every creature, but without it the consciousness of every creature would be a gray chaotic indiscriminateness, impossible for us even to conceive (1890, pp. 402-403).

In the 20th century, Dewey (1913) explores the influence of interest in education in his well-known volume ‘Interest and Effort in Education’. Dewey describes interest in three ways—dynamic, objective and personal—and argues that surrounding situations and events play a key role in determining the characteristics of interest. This conceptualization supports Renninger’s (1992) view on interest as a ‘slippery’ concept. In this regard, Dewey emphasizes that interest is a sort of excitation that exists between individuals and objects; he states “genuine interest is the accompaniment of the identification, through action, of the self with some object or idea” (1913, p. 15). In addition, Dewey, in the context of the psychology of interest, argues that “interest is first active, projective or propulsive” (1913, p. 16).
Thus, it should be underscored that Dewey and Herbart have a common conceptual basis, since both emphasize the power of interest in maintaining the passion to learn in individuals, as it may be strongly accompanied with feeling of pleasure and satisfaction (Dewey, 1913 cited in Nenniger, 1994, p. 1). Moreover, Schiefele believes that both scholars ground their work on the hypothesis that learning outcomes differ in terms of quality when interest is combined with learning (1991, p. 300).

There are generally two dominant types of interest that an individual may have: individual and situational (Karpp, Hidi, & Renninger, 1992). Academics define individual interest as the person’s ‘enduring’ psychological inclination toward any object, while situational interest refers to interests triggered by effects in the environment that have an impact on people’s values and knowledge (Hidi, 1990; Hidi & Anderson, 1992; Hidi, Renninger & Krapp, 1992; Mitchell, 1993; Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000; Hidi & Renninger, 2006). Furthermore, Deci (1998) links interest, as a general concept that includes both situational and individual interest, to motivated behaviors towards learning activities under the concept of ‘intrinsic motivation’. According to Ryan and Deci (2000, p. 61), intrinsic motivation is seen as the individual’s tendency to undertake tasks without ‘reinforcement’ because the tasks hold their interest and they enjoy doing them. In other words, intrinsic motivation can be defined as an interest-based internal inclination towards undertaking activities, while extrinsic motivation refers to an individual’s propensity for doing activities because of external rewards.

Since the current study aims to study the effect of interest on learners’ abilities to learn and recall specialized terminology, a number of studies that investigate the relationship between interest and recall are reviewed in the following section.
3.5.2 Interest and recall

3.5.2.1 Anderson

Anderson (1982) investigated the relationship between interest and learning by conducting a study on a population of over 25 4th graders by instructing them to read 36 sentences that were rated by 3rd graders in terms of interestingness. Learning was measured by the subject’s ability to recall sentences that at least reflected the general ideas (Anderson, 1982, p. 17). The findings show that there is a significant relationship between children’s recall ability and interesting sentences. Moreover, a significant relationship was also reported regarding the speed of reading. Anderson states “for each unit increase in interest value, recall increased 5.3%, reading time increased 12 msec per syllable (or 180 msec per sentence), and probe reaction time increased 44 msec” (1982, p. 18). In relation to attention as measured by reading time, the author reports that attention played no substantial role in the relationship that exists between interest and learning (1982, p. 19). Similarly, Renniger and Wozniak (1985) conducted a study that examines the relationship between interest, attention and recall in young children (2-4 years of age) and reported that there was a substantial link between children’s interest and their recall and attention towards objects presented in several pictures.

3.5.2.2 Shirey and Reynold

Shirey and Reynold explore the relationship between learning, attention, and interest. They tested 23 subjects (at undergraduate level) who agreed to participate in this study. Subjects were asked to read 72 unrelated sentences that had been already rated with regard to their interest level (Likert scale) by another group of 37 undergraduate students in the education major (Shirey & Reynold, 1988, p. 161).
Recall was one of the dependent variables used to measure learning. After reading each segment, the participants were offered a number of clues (1-2 words of the sentences to be recalled) and were asked to orally recall at least around 20 sentences. The findings clearly indicate that readers who were 18 years and older recalled interesting information better than less interesting information. The authors also found that adults “allocate fewer cognitive resources to information that they rate as interesting” (Shirey & Reynold, 1988, p. 163), which contrasts with Anderson (1982). Moreover, Shirey and Reynold (1988, p. 163) find that interesting information can be learned without significant effort.

3.5.2.3 Hidi and Baird

Hidi and colleagues have been at the forefront of interest research pertinent to learning. For instance, Hidi and Baird (1988) shed light on how interest can influence learners’ cognition in several ways with reference to internal and external effects. Internal effects refer to how personal preference influences learners’ choices, whereas the external effects refer to how objects influence people to become interested; in other words the interestingness of the objects (Hidi & Baird, 1988, p. 467).

Hidi and Baird (1988) explore the relationship between the learner’s cognitive performance and the ‘interestingness’ of the study materials. They call this type of interest ‘text-based interest’, which, according to Brewer (1983), Stein (1983), Wilensky (1983) and Hidi and Baird (1988), has a positive impact on reading comprehension and recall. Hidi and Baird (1988) point out that most research conducted on the influence of the text interestingness on reader’s comprehension and recall ability is conducted from the side of narrative text. Nevertheless, they propose that this sort of influence may also exist in expository texts (Hidi & Baird, 1988, p. 467).
Hidi and Baird (1988) found that subjects, who were from grades 4 and 6, were able to recall information in segments. The recalled segments combined important and interesting information that was previously rated by other subjects prior to the experiment. The authors conclude “students, when reading textbook exposition, may not evaluate the relative importance of facts within the whole text, and may simply recall chunks of information associated with those subtopics that are most salient to them” (Hidi & Baird, 1988, p. 469).

3.5.2.4 Wade and Adam

An experimental study conducted by Wade and Adams (1990) on a group of college students to investigate their ability to recall information in biographical texts shows that there is a substantial relationship between ‘text interestingness’ and learners’ recall abilities. This experimental study is relevant to the current study because of its examination of adult students’ recall ability in relation to text interestingness. The authors indicate that their purpose was to study the relationship between text-based interest and text/context structural importance, and the ability to recall information from texts (Wade & Adams, 1990, p. 331). Their study involved two experiments. The first one was designed to identify levels of interestingness and importance of ‘biographical texts’, while the second experiment was designed to examine the influence of interest and importance on the recall of information from the texts. This study is based on the hypotheses that “good readers would recall more important than unimportant information, regardless of its interest level; in contrast, poor readers would recall more interesting information, regardless of its importance level” (Wade & Adams, 1990, p. 335).

Two different groups (college level) totaling over 30 subjects were involved. The researchers gathered information on participants’ interests and background knowledge pertinent to the topics of the experiments, prior to the experiments, through surveys and questionnaires. As
immediate recall may not be indicative of learning, the study took both immediate and delayed recall into account by having a time lag of seven days between the two experiments. The findings show that in both poor and good readers interest played a substantial role in helping participants to recall information. In other words, good readers recalled interesting and important information, whereas poor readers were able to recall interesting and probably unimportant information (Wade & Adams, 1990, p. 345).

Although the authors find that interest supports learning in their cohort, the findings cannot be generalized because age, level of knowledge and experience could all influence the outcome. Wade and Adam (1990) conclude that initiatives for creating interest-based learning/teaching strategies should not neglect the factor of cognitive interest that occurs when learners are keen to establish a relationship between background knowledge and newly acquired information, as well as believing that “they are learning something new and worthwhile” (Wade & Adam, 1990, p. 348).

3.5.2.5 Alexander, Kulikowich and Jetton

In two experiments using texts in the fields of human immunology and biology, Alexander, Kulikowich and Jetton (1995) investigated the ‘interrelationship’ existing between interest, recall and subject-matter knowledge. There were over 40 subjects (premedical and educational psychology majors) in the first experiment, while 78 subjects participated in the second experiment. The researchers conducted a number of procedures. They used multiple choice questions in order to test the domain knowledge of the participants. They also used a number of texts (712-875 words) related to the participants’ own specific fields.
In this regard, the authors justified their text selection thus: “Because we wanted to look at performance differences with materials that contained more or less personally involving content, we used multiple texts to assess interest and recall” (Alexander et al., 1995, p. 562). Each subject was required to read four passages and then to rate each according to the level of interestingness using a scale from one to ten; ten refers to “most interesting” and one for “least interesting” (Alexander et al., 1995, p. 562).

In terms of measuring recall, they used immediate ‘free recall’ with no time constraints, in which subjects could take as long as they needed to complete this task. However, it can be argued that this recall activity is controlled, since subjects have already been notified that they will be performing a memory-related task (Alexander et al., 1995, p. 563). Furthermore, to be able to score free recall, passages have been broken down into ‘idea units’; a common procedure used in most studies in the field, including the current study.

The authors find that the interrelationship between knowledge, recall and interest is significant. Two of the three groups involved showed a positive association. In other words, their findings show that high recall is linked with high interest and knowledge, while low recall was associated with low levels of interest and knowledge. Thus, they state:

By examining within-subject patterns through a cluster-analytic technique, we found that higher subject-matter knowledge was most often associated with higher ratings of interest in passages drawn from that domain, as well as with higher scores on free-recall measures (Alexander et al, 1995, p. 566).

In general, the authors were able to show in the two experiments that this interrelationship exists. However, and based on the concepts involved in their work, the authors focus primarily on individual interest and disregard situational interest.
3.5.2.6 Schiefele and Krapp

Schiefele and Krapp were also able to find evidence of a significant relationship between recall and interest. They enlisted over 75 college students (20-27 years of age) as subjects and used expository texts from the field of ‘psychology of communication’ (Schiefele & Krapp, 1996, p. 141). The authors justify their choice of the text type and theme as a means of ensuring that their subjects had no high prior knowledge that could negatively affect the results (Schiefele & Krapp, 1996, p. 145). Thus, it can be said that this approach attempts to minimize the influence of individual ‘personal’ interests over situational ones. Furthermore, the researchers used a lengthy text in four sections totaling over 1,000 words.

Prior to the main experiment, the investigators collected information pertinent to the subject’s individual intelligence and prior knowledge in the form of multiple-choice questionnaires. The interest level was measured on two distinct levels—feeling and value related factors—in an effort to reflect subjects’ positions on the text’s topics (Schiefele & Krapp, 1996, p. 146). For the feeling level, subjects were asked to select one of following feeling factors explaining their position toward the text they read: 1) indifferent; 2) involved; 3) interested; 4) engaged; 5) stimulated; and 6) bored. As for the value level, subject were asked to select one of the following factors: 1) useful; 2) worthless; 3) unimportant; and 4) meaningful (Schiefele & Krapp, 1996, p. 146). The recall test was in the form of free recall, in which subjects were asked to write down to their best ability the information remembered from the text. The text was divided into idea units.

The authors were able to show that there is a significant relationship between topic interest and the ability to recall ideas and information from the text. The authors emphasize that the specific relationship between topic interest and recall recorded the highest correlations. In their words, with
regard to the study’s results, Schiefele and Krapp state that “interest increases not only the overall quantity of recall but also the depth of learning” (1996, p. 153).

**3.5.2.7 Ainley, Hidi and Berndorff**

In this study, the authors explore the impact of interest (individual and situational) on text learning and topic interest. They studied the behavioral reactions of 104 Canadian subjects (grade 9; 14 years old) and 117 Australian subjects (grade 8; 14 years old). Computerized methods (online recording) and self-reporting measures were used to record and track subjects’ reaction while reading four expository scientific and popular culture texts (each approximately 750 words). A Likert scale was used to rate the level of interest (1-5) (Ainley, Hidi and Berndorff, 2002, pp. 547-548).

Since the study is mostly concerned with the psychological processes associated with interest and learning, the researchers emphasize the significance of recording the timing of self-reporting measures, such as questionnaires and surveys because this helps interpret “the psychological state of interest” (Ainley, Hidi and Berndorff, 2002, p. 547). In addition, the authors were able to show that the variables of individual interest, in addition to certain text titles played a role in producing responses that are affective and encourage students to display significant persistence with regard to learning more and gaining knowledge. In their conclusion, Ainley et al confirm that, “topic interest was related to affective response, affect was then related to persistence with the text, and persistence was related to learning” (2002, p. 558).

**3.5.2.8 McDaniel**

A study conducted at the University of New Mexico investigated how text-based interest influences readers’ abilities of recall and attention. The study involved two experiments designed
to explore the relationship between interest, attention, and recall with regard to stories. Justifying
their choice of text types, the author indicate that they were inclined to stories in their experiments
because their nature is more entertaining than other types of texts (McDaniel, 2000, p. 492).

In the first experiment, the author investigated the relationship between attention oriented
towards comprehending stories and text-based interest. A dual-task procedure was implemented
to determine the levels of cognitive resources used during the comprehension (McDaniel, 2000, p.
493). However, the study did not include any self-rated questionnaires and surveys to identify
participants’ areas of interests and background knowledge. Thus, in this regard McDaniel
operationalizes interest as “the degree to which stories are predictable, generate anticipation, and
elicit desire to learn more about the text” (2000, p. 493). Consequently, the authors assert that if
recall is associated with text-based interest that would necessarily imply that readers expect to
recall a great amount of information from more interesting texts, i.e., stories in the context of this
study (McDaniel, 2000, p. 493).

The researcher performed this experiment comprising over 90 undergraduate participants,
using a timed test, and was able to show that the initial findings confirm Hidi’s (1990) position
with regard to high interest text reading requiring less attention than low interest text reading
(McDaniel, 2000, p. 495). In the free recall test, recall was measured by the participants
remembering story idea units such as “sentences or sentence fragments representing a complete,
coherent idea” (McDaniel, 2000, p. 496). McDaniel also measured recall as correct if participants
remembered at least 66% of the ideas in each unit.

In the second experiment, McDaniel explored the effect of high and low interest texts on
the readers’ abilities of recall. Conducting this experiment on 144 undergraduate subjects the
authors tested both cued and free recall by having participants read one text. This experiment was motivated by the previous experiment and other related studies with the aim of examining “the mnemonic consequences of the general attentional differences due to text-based interest revealed in Experiment 1” (McDaniel, 2000, p. 497). The findings for the narratives showed no significant difference in comprehension and recall when it comes to high/low text-based interest. McDaniel states:

Text-based interest did not produce higher self-rated comprehension or better memory for the text. Free recall did not significantly differ for high-interest relative to low-interest narratives (for the read-only control), replicating, and extending the recall results in Experiment 1. Cued recall also did not significantly differ across interesting and less interesting narratives (2000, p. 499).

McDaniel’s research is relevant to the model proposed in the current study since it tackles and investigates the relationship between text-based interest and readers’ abilities to recall information from the text. However, McDaniel’s work focuses on the narrative type of text, while the current study uses expository texts, which have been applied by researchers such as Alexander et al. (1995), Schiefele and Krapp (1996) and Ainley et al. (2002). Moreover, the current study is narrowed to the scope of the second experiment conducted by McDaniel (2000), where the relationship between interest and comprehension and recall is precisely investigated in order to determine readers’ ability to recall specialized terminology and related conceptual information.

3.5.2.9 Lawless, Brown, Mills and Mayall.

In two distinct parts, Lawless et al. (2003) explore the association between interest, domain knowledge, and recall in a hypertext\(^7\) environment. The first part of their study uses hypertext to investigate the relationship between the two types of interest (situational and individual) and

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\(^7\) “Hypertexts represent the computer-based analog to traditional printed texts” (Lawless et al, 2003, p. 916).
domain knowledge, whereas the second part explores how interest and domain knowledge may influence the recall of information in the new hypertext environment (Lawless et al., 2003, p. 919).

There were 34 subjects (undergraduate level, education majors) involved in the study. Lawless et al. collected information on the subjects’ domain knowledge levels using a multiple choice test, and rated their interest using Likert scale inventories. The domain knowledge topic was about Lyme disease. They used two distinct measures of recall: “structured providing students with prompts for specific information…and unstructured asking students to recall as much of the important information from the hypertext as they could” (Lawless et al., 2003, p. 921).

The findings show that neither domain knowledge nor interest (individual or situational) significantly influenced subjects’ ability to recall information from the hypertext. Treating interest with its two common types (individual and situational) within one study is important in relation to the current study, although researchers tend to agree that situational interest appears to be the best candidate to map the educational framework since it is malleable and trainable (Subramaniam, 2009, p. 12).

3.6 Summary

Although the reviewed studies clearly tackle the relationship between interest and learning with a focus on attention, comprehension, and recall, no studies tackle the topic of interest and specialized terminology learning. In contrast, the current study investigates the relationship between interest and learners’ ability to comprehend and recall specialized terminology.

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8 “Lyme disease is common in the northeastern United States, but there are reported cases in just about every state in the country and over 50 countries around the world” (Lawless et al, 2003, p. 920).
In the next chapter, the research methodology is discussed in an attempt to provide a clear understanding of the study’s major tasks including procedures, materials, and participants.
Chapter 4: Methodology

This chapter discusses the methodology of the study. It provides a detailed description of the manner in which the research tasks were conducted and of the materials/components involved. The discussion of the methodology includes all ten tasks involved in the study. Notably, the tasks were performed in two iterations (pilot and formal) during the 2015 and 2016 academic years. Furthermore, the ten tasks (designed, sent, and received online using Qualtrics Survey Software) were logically divided into two major phases; pretest and posttest. The discussion of each phase includes the procedures, the materials, the participants, and the specific tasks involved.

4.1 Pilot Study: Pretest

4.1.1 Procedures

This phase was conducted in fall 2015. After Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained in September 2015 and consent forms were signed in November 2015 by participants, the initial survey was distributed with the purpose of identifying participants’ areas of interest (individual and situational). The survey was created using Qualtrics Survey Software and all responses were received by the end of November 2015 within the same platform.

The survey was designed and structured in order to determine the level of participants’ situational interest in the field of translation studies, the study major of all participating subjects. The survey included questions pertaining to both translation and interpreting. It also included sections for determining participants’ individual interests. To ensure accurate and true responses, there were no time constraints set for submitting the survey responses. This study avoids timed
tasks in order to minimize any chance of inaccuracy or answers being influenced by stress or rushing. In this project, interest is operationalized as participants’ selection of their level of interest in general approaches and theories of translation studies. Two key terms are frequently used throughout the whole project to refer to levels of interest, LOW INTEREST (stands for participants’ responses of having no interest 0%) and HIGH INTEREST (stands for participants’ responses of having high interest 100%). Thus, interest with two levels (high/low) is the independent variable, whereas comprehension and recall scores are the dependent variables.

After the survey responses were received, the second task was distributed on December 3rd, 2015. This task was designed to test subjects’ comprehension in two parts: on topics directly related to areas for which the students’ have already been scored as having high and low interest. Each participant received an email that contained two different links, the first for the task in which they hold high interest, while the latter was for low interest topics. In this study, interest with two levels (high/low) is the independent variable, whereas comprehension and recall scores are the dependent variables.

For each task, the subjects read a text that had between 500 and 840 words and then answer several reading-comprehension questions. These tasks were designed not to be time consuming in order to avoid boredom and loss of attention and interest in participating. There were

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9 See Appendix B for tasks’ details.
10 Texts were all selected from the field of translation studies as they all contain the specialized language of this field. All texts have readability levels that fall within the range of 13.03-57.14 on a Flesch Reading Ease scale. Based on this scale, all texts are considered easily understood by college level readers. “Flesch Reading Ease Formula is considered as one of the oldest and most accurate readability formulas” (readabilityformulas.com) <http://www.readabilityformulas.com/flesch-reading-ease-readability-formula.php> accessed January 25, 2017. See Appendix E for details about readability level results.
no time constraints for this task as discussed earlier. However, participants were encouraged not to leave the page for over 20 minutes in order to avoid any page time-outs.

After both tasks were submitted, participants had to wait for nearly seven days; then they received the third task designed to measure their recall ability (delayed recall). In this task participants answered a few questions related to the two texts they had read in their first and second reading comprehension tests. However, in order to examine the current study hypothesis, the texts were not included with the third task and the participants were encouraged to refrain from looking back to the text while providing answers for the test.

To encourage all respondents to complete the test and to avoid any boredom or late responses, I chose to include the recall questions for testing recall ability on both texts (high interest and low interest) in one page. Since the scope of the current study is on specialized terminology and concepts, this task included specific questions related to this aspect. Participants were asked several questions testing their memory on specialized terms in the texts they read seven days earlier. Thus, it can be argued that the recall test was mainly focused on testing participants’ ability to recall terms and concepts used in the texts they had read for the second task, the comprehension test.

After the four described tasks were submitted—1) initial survey, 2) pretest comprehension first task, 3) pretest comprehension second task, and 4) pretest recall task (high interest/low interest)—all participants completed the rest of the semester and the final exams. Participants were asked to continue through their study and were told that the second phase of these experimental tasks would be carried out during the middle of the next semester, spring 2016.
4.1.2 Participants in the pilot study

In the pilot study during the fall 2015 semester, there were 26 translation students; 20 from the Master's level and 6 from the undergraduate level. They signed the consent form and showed interest in participating in the study. All 26 participants submitted their responses for the initial survey. Survey results showed two significant patterns with regard to clarity about their areas of interest. There was one group of participants who gave direct answers for their areas of interest, choosing 100% high interest in areas pertinent to translation and interpreting. The other group were less sure and their answers displayed a degree of uncertainty, such choosing 50% (fair interest) for most, if not all answers. Thus, in order to ensure that the participants fitted very well with the study, subject who provided uncertain answers were eliminated. Therefore, participants’ numbers dropped to 20: 14 at Master's level and 6 at undergraduate level.

After the first tasks were sent to the 20 participants, only 14 participants submitted their responses, as six opted not to participate in the first task for comprehension testing. At the time of the second task for recall testing, six other participants did not respond to the invitation to participate. Thus, the final number of participant’s who completed all the tasks was eight. In the spring 2016 semester, to ensure the continued participation of the remaining eight participants and to maintain their interest level in interacting with the study materials, a gift of appreciation was included, a ten-dollar Starbucks gift card. All the participants submitted the required tasks for the second phase posttest.
4.1.3 Materials

4.1.3.1 Surveys

Before participants were provided with the instructions for their tasks, they were given a flyer and a consent form to sign, as instructed by the IRB. In a class presentation, I addressed the participants about the tasks involved in this study, explaining the anticipated benefits and risks for those participating in this study. In addition, participants were informed that there would be a gift of appreciation for everyone completing and submitting all the required tasks. The gift of appreciation offered was a 5 inch by 7 inch Arabic calligraphy poster on which was the participant’s name. Moreover, both the flyers and consent forms contained the instructions that were delivered verbally. After the participants signed and submitted the consent forms, they received the survey link through email.

4.1.3.1.1 Initial survey

The initial survey was conducted using The Qualtrics Insight Platform under the title “Interest Survey”.¹¹ The survey was designed to collect information about participants’ demographic information, level of education and experience, areas of ‘situational’ interest in the field of translation and interpreting (theory and practice), and areas of general reading interests. In addition, this survey sought to identify more about participants’ individual interests based on what they preferred doing in their free time. In the last question, participants were given the option to elaborate on anything that was not included in the survey. This survey mainly uses the Likert scale to collect information about participants’ level of interest in the theory and practice of translation and interpreting. A four level scale was used to identify participants’ levels of interest:

¹¹ It can be found at <http://kentstate.az1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_bNodmjRhxLy2>.
• No interest (0%);
• Low interest (10%);
• Fair interest (50%); and
• High interest (100%).

In each question, the four options were presented to identify the participants’ level of interest. It should also be noted that in multiple choice questions, participants were given the chance to select “other” and add anything they thought was not included in the list.

4.1.3.1.2 Exit survey

At the end of the study, participants were asked to take an exit interest survey at <http://kentstate.az1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_3FbJz6RqzpAInv7> to help measure and pinpoint any changes in their interests regarding translation and interpreting, as well as their individual interests. The survey sections were virtually identical to the original but a few questions were added to collect more information about participants’ preferences in engaging with activities pertinent to their interest. For instance, questions were asked about whether or not they tended to use online courses (distance education), traditional courses, workshops, volunteering, attending conferences, etc. for the purpose of developing their current areas of interest. Another question was concerned with identifying participants’ preferences for the types of learning if they were to engage in distance education. Two other questions were designed to identify participants’ preferences with regard to using technology (laptops and smartphones) in the learning process related to their areas of interest. Moreover, the final additional question was concerned with measuring how likely the participants were to use the university library facilities for learning and accessing the online training platform for the development of their interests. The Likert scale was
used for the final three additional questions on a range of: 1) 0% Extremely unlikely; 2) 10% Unlikely; 3) 50% Neutral; 4) 90% Likely; and 5) 100% Extremely likely.

4.1.4 Tasks

4.1.4.1 Comprehension tasks

This study includes a series of tasks, as mentioned earlier, to examine participants’ comprehension and recall in conjunction with their level of interest. After the survey results were analyzed, the tasks were structured based on each participants’ highest (100%) and lowest (0%) interests. In other words, two topics were selected for each participant; the first for their highest interest, and the second for their lowest interest. The selected topics were as follows: 1) Adaptation; 2) Machine translation; 3) Frame semantics; 4) CAT tools; 5) Literal translation; and 6) Localization. Each topic had a text that ranged from 500 to 840 words and were collected different various web-based sources.12

There were six reading comprehension questions for each text.13 As the selected topics were different, the questions also differed. The task structure was presented in three major sections, and each section had a number of questions:

- First section: General multiple-choice questions (4)
- Second section: True/False questions (2)
- Third section: Select unrelated terms.

Each task ended with an open question that asks participants to express their views on whether or not learning about the topic of the texts could help them as translators. The last question was

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12 All texts sources listed in the last two pages of the bibliography.
13 See Appendix C for the rubric for grading pretest and posttest tasks.
included in an attempt to determine if the participants’ level of interest had a role to play in their responses to the topics. Overall, it can be argued that the final question demonstrated the participants’ level of experience in the field of translation based on the terms used in their answers, as well as the way their answers are organized.

4.1.4.2 Recall task

This part of the tasks, alongside the comprehension tasks, provides the results by which to assess the main hypothesis of the study: since interest and learning are closely related, a correlation should be detected between learners’ interests and their ability to comprehend and recall specialized terminology. Thus, this task was structured to test participants’ ability to recall information in the texts. In the pilot study, this test was designed as a two-in-one test (for HIGH INTEREST and LOW INTEREST) to ensure that participants deliver all required responses. Without looking back to the texts that participants read for the previous task, they were asked to provide the following information by relying on their memory.

- What was the topic of each text?
- What were the main points covered in the first text?
- What were the main points covered in the second text?
- List all the terms that you are able to recall from each text (3 terms min./30 terms max.)
- Which of the two texts did you find more interesting, and why?

To ensure the fast and complete delivery of the task, the questions were included in one page.

4.2 Pilot Study: Posttest

During the 2015 Christmas break until the middle of the following semester, the data from the first task were collected and the second batch of tasks were prepared for the posttest phase.
The tests again shared the same types of questions and topic but used different related texts. Importantly, the time lag between the two phases (pretest and posttest) was planned in order to pinpoint any changes in interest and performance as participants progressed through their course. Based on the initial survey results, the tasks were categorized based on the topic of participants’ situational interests in the field of translation.

Similar to the pretest phase, each participant received an email that contained two different links, the first for the task in which they held a high interest, while the second was for the low interest topics. Again, there were no time constraints for submitting the task responses. It should be mentioned that in order to motivate participants and maintain their interest in participating, an additional gift of appreciation was added; a ten-dollar Starbucks gift card.

All responses were submitted by March 8th and within 7 days of receiving each response, participants received the fifth task: a recall test to measure their level of recall for specialized terms and concepts in the texts they had read in their fourth task. By the end of March, all responses were received. In addition, in order to identify any changes of interests throughout the period of this task, an exit survey was distributed to all participants to mark the end of this series of tests.

4.3 Formal Study: Pretest and Posttest

A second series of tests were performed during the fall 2016 semester with different participants to collect more data with the hope of identifying different patterns in the analysis phase discussed in Chapter 5. This part of study involved the same number of tasks and the same structure as in the pilot study, with minor changes to ensure accuracy in scores and in the analysis process. The changes included:
- Unifying the number of questions in the comprehension tasks in order to adjust the final score to 10/10.

- Changing the recall task structure, while keeping the same questions to make it possible to measure time spent in answering each question. Therefore, instead of having all questions for both texts of high and low interests on one page, each question was on its own page in order that Qualtrics could monitor the amount of time devoted to answering each question.

- Changing the minimum number of terms to be recalled from three to ten in order to motivate participants to recall as many terms as they could.

4.3.1 Surveys

As in the previous phase, participants took an initial survey to identify more about their situational and individual interests. They were also asked to take the exit survey after submitting all required responses. These surveys are crucial to the study to track any changes in participants’ individual and situational interests throughout the semester and the study.

4.3.2 Tasks

4.3.2.1 Comprehension tasks

This study includes a series of tasks, as discussed earlier, to examine participants’ comprehension and recall in relation to their level of interest. After survey results for the fall 2016 semester study were assessed, the tasks were structured based on each participants’ highest (100%) and lowest (0%) interests using the pilot study structure but with the relevant changes. However, unlike the first phase, the selected topics were:
• Adaptation;
• Machine translation;
• Frame semantics;
• CAT tools;
• Literal translation;
• Localization; and
• Sight translation.

4.3.2.2 Recall task

To obtain more accurate information about participants’ performance in recalling specialized terms and concepts related to the earlier texts, each question was presented on a separate survey page for timing purposes. Importantly, the timing of the tasks was not revealed to the participants in order to ensure they were not affected and did not lose interest or attention.

As with the previous phase, without referring to the texts, participants were asked to provide the following information from their memory.\(^\text{14}\)

**Page 1:** What was the topic of Text 1?

**Page 2:** What was the topic of Text 2?

**Page 3:** What were the main points covered in Text 1?

**Page 4:** What were the main points covered in Text 2?

**Page 5:** List all the terms that you are able to recall from Text 1 (10 terms min./30 terms max.).

\(^{14}\) See Appendix C for more about recall tasks.
Page 6: List all the terms that you are able to recall from Text 2 (10 terms min./30 terms max.).

Page 7: Which of the two texts have you found more interesting, and why?

All responses were received in the last two weeks of the fall 2016 semester.

Figure 2 shows diagrammatically the various steps in the project, keeping in mind that there was a time lag of around three months between the two phases—pretest and posttest—and at least seven days between comprehension and recall tests. The chart shows the starting point of the study, each subsequent phase, and the end point. Each point has its tasks explained in bullet points.

Figure 2: The Sequence of Tasks
Chapter 5: Analysis and Discussion of the Results

This chapter analyzes and discusses the results from the various tasks conducted in 2015 and 2016. First, the analysis is discussed for the pilot study conducted in 2015 and then for the formal study conducted in 2016. Each study starts and ends with a survey (initial survey and exit survey) designed to gather data that reflect the respondents’ background knowledge and their interests, as well as their opinions on learning preferences. These surveys, as indicated in the previous chapter, are designed to identify any changes in participants’ interests during the course of this project. The analysis of the pilot and formal studies is handled separately due to changes in the task contents between the two phases. The weakness of the pilot study is explained to justify the changes made in the task design with regard to the formal study task contents.

5.1 Pilot Study: Results, Analysis, and Discussion

In this section, when the data from the pilot study are analyzed, results show a notable difference between participants when it comes to dealing with texts within their areas of interest and texts that are not of interest to them. The statistical calculations using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) are performed in order to determine if there is any statistical significance for the tests included in relation to interest level and time.

The pilot study was conducted during the fall 2015 and spring 2016 semesters. The results were initially analyzed manually using Microsoft Excel, and thereafter using SPSS.
5.1.1 General overview

After the responses for the tasks were received from participants (eight participants in two levels; six at Master’s level and two at undergraduate level), the initial findings show that there is a diverse pattern among the responses. These patterns support different findings by interest studies scholars regarding the level of attention paid to interesting and non-interesting texts, as well as the relationship between interest, comprehension and recall (Renninger & Wozniak, 1985; Shirey & Reynolds 1988; Wade & Adam, 1990; Alexander, Kulikowich, & Jetton, 1995; Schiefele & Krapp, 1996; McDaniel et al., 2000; Ainley, Hidi & Berndorff, 2002; and Lawless et al., 2003).

Eight respondents completed all the tasks associated with the pilot study in 2015. Six of the respondents were first year MA students in translation studies and two were from the undergraduate level (2nd and 3rd year). The undergraduate students were registered in the ‘Approaches to Translation’ course, which is essentially translation theory, together with an initial translation practice course. The MA students were enrolled in an initial documents and translation tools course, which they take in parallel with translation theory and translation practice. In the initial survey, they were expected to represent a quasi-naïve population since they are new to the program, while for the second set of tasks, they have gained experience and knowledge. Comparisons show if these factors, along with their levels of interest, played a role in influencing their comprehension and recall abilities throughout the project. It should be noted that these tasks are not language-specific: the instrument was designed in English. As already indicated in Chapter 4, the timeframe for the experiments was in two phases: pilot pretest and pilot posttest. The pilot study pretest phase includes the following:

- Initial interest survey: to be taken in week 2 of the fall semester of 2015.
- Reading comprehension test: to be taken in week 3 of the fall semester of 2015.
• Recall test: to be taken in week 4 of the fall semester of 2015.

Then respondents continued engaging with their course of study until the last month of the semester, when a second set of tasks is introduced. The tasks were designed to reveal if the students’ exposure to their course content and other subjects throughout the semester played any role in improving or worsening their performance in their posttest tasks. The pilot study posttest tasks were supposed to take place as follows:

• Reading comprehension test: to be taken in week 13 of the fall semester of 2015.
• Recall test: to be taken in week 14 of the fall semester of 2015.
• Exit survey: to be taken in week 15 of the fall semester of 2015.

Unexpectedly, there were a number of delays due to regulation changes in the IRB procedures at Kent State University that required submitting the research prospectus and having it approved first, in order to be able to submit an IRB application. Consequently, the planned timeframe had to be amended in order to not lose the opportunity to run these tasks during the 2015 fall semester. Importantly, this change in starting date thwarted the original intention of working with naïve subjects with respect to the course content. Thus, this factor could influence the findings. In other words, the change would make it hard to judge the effect that naïveté might have on the final results.

As a consequence, this round was regarded as a pilot study. Due to these circumstances the timeframe was changed to start from November 2015 and end in April 2016. Despite the time change, the pilot study provided insights for reshaping the tasks in a way designed to collect more accurate data.
5.1.2 Results

The tests results show that most of the perfect scores\textsuperscript{15} in the comprehension tasks were reported for texts labeled by participants as ‘interesting topics’. The comprehension tasks were structured to measure participants’ general reading comprehension level using texts related to their interest and rated as either \textit{HIGH} or \textit{LOW INTEREST}. As already described in the previous chapter, each participant had to take the initial survey in order to identify their current areas of interest in the field of translation studies, as well as other general areas of individual interests.

Participants were presented with a wide range of common approaches and strategies in the field of translation such as free translation, literal translation, sight translation, localization, adaptation, CAT tools, machine translation, frame semantics, and types of equivalence.\textsuperscript{16} Then, they were asked to specify their level of interest towards these approaches using the rating scale:

1. High interest 100%;
2. Fair interest 50%;
3. Low interest 10%; and
4. No interest 0%.\textsuperscript{17}

Based on their survey responses and after areas of interest that had been identified, they started their series of tasks in the first week of December 2015 and completed them in the first week of April 2016. After completion of data collection and submission for analysis, the results were not as predicted, which could be attributed to the unexpected timeframe change due to the new IRB regulations and the sudden drop in the size of the population participating in the study.

\textsuperscript{15} See Appendix C for the rubric for grading pretest and posttest tasks.
\textsuperscript{16} See Appendix B for survey details.
\textsuperscript{17} See survey section in Chapter 4 for more details about the survey.
However, the mean (average) scores of the pilot study (pretest and posttest), calculated by Microsoft Excel, reveal that participants’ performance in the reading comprehension task was higher in the texts of *HIGH INTEREST* than *LOW INTEREST*. Table 2 highlights the most relevant scores.

**Table 2: The Highest Pilot Study Reading Comprehension Mean Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Order</th>
<th>Test phase and type</th>
<th>Score out of 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pretest HIGH</td>
<td>9.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Posttest HIGH</td>
<td>8.875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Pretest LOW</td>
<td>8.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Posttest LOW</td>
<td>8.375</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other factors could have influenced the participants’ performances, such as the time taken to complete these tasks, the date of response, the course workload for the students during the task and the students’ health throughout the semester, such as having allergies, cold or flu, which could affect the students’ performances for a certain amount of time.

As far as recall is concerned, it can be said that perfect scores were only reported during recall for *HIGH INTEREST* tasks. However, calculating the average score for each task shows varying patterns as the highest mean or average score for the *LOW INTEREST* text in the posttest phase (see Table 3).

**Table 3: The Most Meaningful Pilot Study Recall Mean Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Order</th>
<th>Test phase and type</th>
<th>Score out of 7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Posttest LOW</td>
<td>4.0625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Posttest HIGH</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Pretest HIGH</td>
<td>3.7500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Pretest LOW</td>
<td>2.6875</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, a few factors may be behind this inconsistency. First, some participants were handling this task during their final exams week. Second, they may have been overloaded at that point by their coursework and did not have the inclination or time to pay the necessary attention to the tasks. In addition, other factors, such as participants’ unexpected life circumstances may have caused participants to have limited time to handle these tasks, should not be overlooked.

At this point, the decision was made to re-do the study in the 2016 fall semester with the hope of attracting more participants. Rewards would be included, such as gift cards, to attract as many participants as possible.

The following charts show the overall results for both reading comprehension and recall tests in both phases of the pilot study; pretest and posttest. In Figure 3, in the reading comprehension ten out of ten is the perfect score. Each participant has four scores: scores in blue represents the HIGH INTEREST pretest, red for the LOW INTEREST pretest, green for the HIGH INTEREST posttest and purple for the LOW INTEREST posttest. The letters on the X-axis refer to the participants’ codes. Overall results for pilot study recall are shown in Figure 4. In the recall, seven out of seven is the perfect score. Each participant has four scores: scores in blue represents the HIGH INTEREST pretest, red for the LOW INTEREST pretest, green for the HIGH INTEREST posttest and purple for the LOW INTEREST posttest. The letters on the X-axis refer to the participants’ codes.
5.1.3 Quantitative Results and Interpretation of the Pilot Study

After running these numbers in SPSS, the following results were obtained.

5.1.3.1 Statistical Significance Test for Reading Comprehension

Mean comprehension scores were submitted to a repeated measure factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) with two independent variables, time with two levels (pretest and posttest)
and interest with two levels (LOW INTEREST 0% and HIGH INTEREST 100%). The main effect of time was not significant, $p > .05$. The mean for comprehension scores at pretest ($M = 8.75$, SD = 1.00) was not significantly different from the mean comprehension score at posttest ($M = 8.62$, SD = 1.14). However, the main effect of interest was significant, $p < .05$. The mean score for LOW INTEREST ($M = 8.37$, SD = 1.08) was significantly different from the mean score for HIGH INTEREST ($M = 9$, SD = 0.96). The interaction between time and interest was not significant, $p > .05$.

Table 4 shows the within-subjects factors,\(^\text{18}\) descriptive statistics and results of the tests performed using SPSS.

**Table 4: Within-Subjects Factors, Descriptive Statistics and Multivariate Tests for Pilot Study Reading Comprehension Tasks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pretest 0%</td>
<td>8.3750</td>
<td>.91613</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pretest 100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Posttest 0%</td>
<td>9.1250</td>
<td>.99103</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Posttest 100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{18}\) “A within-subjects variable is an independent variable that is manipulated by testing each subject at each level of the variable. Compare with a between-subjects variable in which different groups of subjects are used for each level of the variable.” (Onlinestatbook,) <http://onlinestatbook.com/2/glossary/within-subjects.html> accessed January 31, 2017.
5.1.3.2 Statistical Significance Test for Recall

Mean recall scores were submitted to a repeated measure factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) with two independent variables, time with two levels (pretest and posttest) and interest with two levels (LOW INTEREST 0% and HIGH INTEREST 100%). The main effect of time was not significant, $p > .05$. The mean recall score at pretest ($M = 3.21$, $SD = 2.49$) was not significantly different from the mean recall score at posttest ($M = 4.03$, $SD = 2.35$). The main effect of interest was not significant, $p > .05$. The mean score for LOW INTEREST ($M = 3.375$, $SD = 2.202$) was not significantly different from the mean score for HIGH INTEREST ($M = 3.875$, $SD = 2.673$). The interaction between time and interest was not significant either, $p > .05$.

Table 5 shows within-subjects factors, descriptive statistics and results of multivariate tests performed using SPSS.

**Table 5: Within-Subjects Factors, Descriptive Statistics and Multivariate Tests for Pilot Study Recall Tasks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>pre_0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>pre_100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre_0</td>
<td>2.6875</td>
<td>2.31359</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre_100</td>
<td>3.7500</td>
<td>2.71241</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_0</td>
<td>4.0625</td>
<td>1.98993</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_100</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>2.81577</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.1.3.3 Correlation Test for Reading Comprehension and Recall

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between participants’ reading comprehension scores and their interest with two levels in the test topic. The test results show that there was no significant correlation between the two variables (see Table 6). All correlation results will be put into perspective at the end of the current chapter and chapter 6 to cast light on the effect of interest on participants’ scores in both tasks, comprehension and recall.

Table 6: Correlations for Pilot Study Reading Comprehension Tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre_0</th>
<th>pre_100</th>
<th>post_0</th>
<th>post_100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre_0</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.413</td>
<td>-.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.309</td>
<td>.972</td>
<td>.362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre_100</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.413</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.309</td>
<td>.871</td>
<td>.303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_0</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.015</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.972</td>
<td>.871</td>
<td>.362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_100</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.374</td>
<td>-.418</td>
<td>.374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.362</td>
<td>.303</td>
<td>.362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results for the recall correlation test to study the relationship between participants’ recall scores and interest with two levels in this pilot study show that there was a significant positive recall correlation between HIGH INTEREST pretest and posttest scores. In addition, there was a significant positive recall correlation between LOW INTEREST posttest scores and HIGH INTEREST posttest scores (see Table 7).
Table 7: Correlations for Pilot Study Recall Tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>pre_0</th>
<th>pre_100</th>
<th>post_0</th>
<th>post_100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre_0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.612</td>
<td>.393</td>
<td>.340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.336</td>
<td>.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre_100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.612</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.427</td>
<td>.795*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td></td>
<td>.292</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.393</td>
<td>.427</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.720*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.336</td>
<td>.292</td>
<td></td>
<td>.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.340</td>
<td>.795*</td>
<td>.720*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.410</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

5.1.4 Weaknesses of the Pilot Study and Changes Adopted for the Formal Study

As stated above, one of the challenges encountered in the pilot study was the issue of timing caused by the rule changes in the IRB at Kent State University. The original intent was to conduct the first set of tests with naïve students with potentially limited experience with real translation. Thereafter, they would take another set of tests during which time they would have become more knowledgeable as a result of their studies. However, as a result of the delay, the naïveté factor was lost with respect to this cohort, as the starting time of the tasks was changed from August 2015 to the end of November 2015.

In relation to the reading comprehension tasks, I realized that the number of questions differed amongst the tasks. There were tasks with seven questions but others with eight questions.
This issue caused confusion during the evaluation stage. Thus, for the formal study, the number of questions was amended to eight questions for each task.

Moreover, the recall test listed all the questions on a single page, which apparently caused confusion for the participants as answers were often put in the wrong place. There were also no forced answers for the questions and therefore the responses contained empty fields. Consequently, the recall tasks for the formal study had forced answers where participants could not leave any answer blank.

As far as rewards were concerned, it turned out that money was the best method of motivating participants to complete all the tasks. The first idea was to give Arabic calligraphy posters to each participant completing all required tasks. However, only two of the eight participants collected their reward. Therefore, the reward was changed to something more valuable to attract more participants, Starbucks gift-cards.

5.2 Formal Study Results, Analysis, and Discussion

As indicated in Chapter 4, the formal study was conducted in fall 2016. The results were analyzed manually and individually (using Microsoft Excel), as well as by using SPSS. When the data from the formal study were analyzed manually using Microsoft Excel, the results show a notable difference between participants regarding handling texts in their areas of interest and texts that are not interesting to them. In addition, statistical calculations using SPSS were performed to ascertain whether or not there is statistical significance for all tests included in relation to interest level.
5.2.1 General overview

After the responses for the initial formal survey were received from 28 participants (14 MAs and 14 undergraduates), interest areas were identified and tasks were created accordingly. Since the participants’ areas of interest were close to the ones specified in the pilot study, the pilot study texts were used again with the required modifications.

The number of participants subsequently dropped from 28 to 12. Nevertheless, tasks were again set in two phases (pretest and posttest) based on the original timeframe starting in September 2016 with the initial survey and ending in December 2016 with the exit survey. The surveys helped identify the participants’ situational interests in the field of translation studies, as well as other life-related areas of personal interest that could help to identify individual differences amongst participants. Furthermore, the surveys helped track changes of interest while going through the semester and engaging with their course contents. Another goal of the exit survey was to collect information about general preferences regarding ways in which to develop one’s interests using traditional or virtual learning environments, which is discussed later.

By calculating the mean (average) scores of both phases, pretest and posttest, it can be argued that participants’ performances at this stage were at the best level with the texts of HIGH INTEREST in the posttest phase. Unlike the pilot study where participants’ performances were at the best level with the texts of HIGH INTEREST in both phases, pretest and posttest. Table 8 shows the most meaningful scores.
Table 8: The Most Meaningful Formal Study Reading Comprehension Mean Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Order</th>
<th>Test phase and type</th>
<th>Score out of 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Posttest HIGH</td>
<td>8.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pretest LOW</td>
<td>8.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Posttest LOW</td>
<td>8.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Pretest HIGH</td>
<td>8.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated above, uncontrollable factors could affect participants’ performances and their scores, such as the time taken to complete these tasks, the date of response, the course workload for the students during the task period, and the health of the students during the semester, such as having allergies, cold or flu, which could affect the their performance for a certain amount of time. Prior knowledge might also be another influencing factor though the original intention is to work with naïve subjects with respect to the course content.

In relation to the recall scores, the higher mean were reported for text recall tasks involving HIGH INTEREST—both pretest and posttest (see Table 9). This shows a different pattern from the pilot study where the highest mean was reported text recall task involving LOW INTEREST in the posttest phase. Thus, it can be argued that findings in the formal study are consistent with the current study’s hypothesis that states that the more students handle texts with HIGH INTEREST, the better recall they will show.

Table 9: The Most Meaningful Formal Study Recall Mean Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Order</th>
<th>Test phase and type</th>
<th>Score out of 7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Posttest HIGH</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pretest HIGH</td>
<td>3.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Posttest LOW</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Pretest LOW</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, there are few factors that should not be overlooked when analyzing these scores, such as handling the tasks during exam weeks. In addition, participants may have been overloaded by their course work and may not have had time to focus on the tasks.

Figures 5 and 6 show the overall results of both reading comprehension and recall tests during both phases: pretest and posttest from September 2016 until December 2016. In Figure 5, for the reading comprehension ten out of ten is the perfect score. Each participant has four scores: scores in blue represent the HIGH INTEREST pretest, red for the LOW INTEREST pretest, green for the HIGH INTEREST posttest and purple for the LOW INTEREST posttest. The letters on the X-axis represent participants’ anonymized identifiers. In Figure 6 for recall seven out of seven is the perfect score. Each participant has four scores: scores in blue represents the HIGH INTEREST pretest, red for the LOW INTEREST pretest, green for the HIGH INTEREST posttest and purple for the LOW INTEREST posttest. Missing colors in the chart refers to zero. The letters on the X-axis represent participants’ anonymized identifiers. These figures will help compare between participants’ performance in all tasks.
Figure 5: Overall Results for Formal Study Reading Comprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DN</th>
<th>CI</th>
<th>GR</th>
<th>DV</th>
<th>AM</th>
<th>MG</th>
<th>AN</th>
<th>AMN</th>
<th>CH</th>
<th>JU</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100% interest (10/10) Pre</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0% interest (10/10) Pre</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100% interest (10/10) Post</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0% interest (10/10) Post</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Score

Figure 6: Overall Results for Formal Study Recall

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DN</th>
<th>CI</th>
<th>GR</th>
<th>AM</th>
<th>AN</th>
<th>JU</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>DV</th>
<th>MG</th>
<th>AMN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100% interest (7/7) PRE</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0% interest (7/7) PRE</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100% interest (7/7) POST</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0% interest (7/7) POST</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2.2 Quantitative Results and Interpretation of the Formal Study

Processing these numbers in SPSS, revealed the following results.

5.2.2.1 Statistical Significance Test for Reading Comprehension

Mean comprehension scores were submitted to a repeated measures factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) with two independent variables, time with two levels (pretest and posttest) and interest with two levels (LOW 0% and HIGH 100%).

The main effect of time was not significant, $p > .05$. The mean for comprehension scores of pretest ($M = 8.41, SD = .91$) was not significantly different from the mean comprehension score at posttest ($M = 8.59, SD = 1.18$). The main effect of interest was not significant, $p > .05$. The mean score for LOW INTEREST ($M = 8.36, SD = 1.09$) was not significantly different from the mean score for HIGH INTEREST ($M = 8.64, SD = 1.00$). The interaction between time and interest was not significant, $p > .05$.

Table 10 shows within-subjects factors, descriptive statistics and results of multivariate tests performed using SPSS:

Table 10: Within-Subjects Factors, Descriptive Statistics and Multivariate Tests for Formal Study Reading Comprehension Tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>time</th>
<th>interest</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>pre_0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>pre_100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>post_0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>post_100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 5.2.2.2 Statistical Significance Test for Recall

Mean recall scores were submitted to a repeated measures factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) with two independent variables, time with two levels (pretest and posttest) and interest with two levels (LOW 0% and HIGH 100%).

The main effect of time was not significant, \( p > .05 \). The mean recall score at pretest (\( M = 2.40, SD = 2.16 \)) was not significantly different from the mean recall score at posttest (\( M = 2.65, SD = 2.62 \)). The main effect of interest was significant (\( p = .001 \)). The mean for recall scores for \( LOW \) INTEREST (\( M = 1.6, SD= 2.11 \)) was significantly lower from the mean recall score for \( HIGH \) INTEREST (\( M = 3.45, SD = 2.31 \)). The interaction between time and interest was not significant, \( p > .05 \). This specific finding is consistent with the current study’s hypothesis that postulates that there is a relationship between interest and recalling specialized terminology.

Table 11 shows within-subjects factors, descriptive statistics and results of multivariate tests performed using SPSS:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre_0</td>
<td>8.454</td>
<td>1.128</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre_100</td>
<td>8.363</td>
<td>0.674</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_0</td>
<td>8.272</td>
<td>1.103</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_100</td>
<td>8.909</td>
<td>1.221</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11: Within-Subjects Factors, Descriptive Statistics and Multivariate Tests for Formal Study Recall Tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>time</th>
<th>interest</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pre_0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pre_100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Post_0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Post_100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre_0</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>1.713</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre_100</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>2.171</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_0</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>2.530</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_100</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>2.550</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.2.3 Correlation Test for Overall Reading Comprehension and Recall

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between participants’ reading comprehension scores and their interest using two levels in the test topic. This type of test will also help identify whether there is a significant effect of interest (HIGH/LOW) in relation to participants’ scores. The test results show that there were significant positive correlations, one of which (last one) seems relevant to the scope of the current study:

- Pretest 0% and Pretest 100%, thus the higher students score in their pretests with texts of LOW INTEREST, then the higher they tend to score in their pretest with texts of HIGH INTEREST.
- Pretest 0% and Posttest 100%, thus the higher students score in their pretests with texts of LOW INTEREST, then the higher they tend to score in their posttest with texts of HIGH INTEREST.
- Pretest 100% and posttest 100%, thus the higher students score in their pretests with texts of *HIGH INTEREST*, then the higher they tend to score in their posttest with texts of *HIGH INTEREST*. This specific correlation shows the effect of interest (HIGH) in participants’ scores as this goes in line with the study’s hypothesis that indicates higher scores are more related to *HIGH INTEREST* than *LOW INTEREST*.

Table 12 shows the correlation calculation results with significant correlation highlighted using SPSS:

**Table 12: Correlations for Formal Study Reading Comprehension Tasks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>pre_0</th>
<th>pre_100</th>
<th>post_0</th>
<th>post_100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre_0</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.886**</td>
<td>.196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.542</td>
<td>.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre_100</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.886**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.447</td>
<td>.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_0</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.196</td>
<td>.243</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.542</td>
<td>.447</td>
<td>.077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_100</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.612*</td>
<td>.619*</td>
<td>.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).**

Running a correlation test to study the relationship between participants’ recall scores and interest with two levels reveals results that show that there is a significant positive recall correlation between *LOW INTEREST* posttest scores and *HIGH INTEREST* posttest scores. This would indicate that the higher participants score in their *LOW INTEREST* posttest, the higher they tend to score in their *HIGH INTEREST* recall posttest scores. This can show the effect of time on the
participants’ scores. In other words, participants’ were able to score higher in their posttest tasks than pretest ones, and the knowledge and experience they gained throughout their course may also have helped them getting higher scores.

Table 13 shows the correlation calculation results with significant correlations highlighted:

**Table 13: Correlations for Formal Study Recall Tasks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>pre_0</th>
<th>pre_100</th>
<th>post_0</th>
<th>post_100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre_0</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.311</td>
<td>.149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.382</td>
<td>.682</td>
<td>.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10³⁹</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre_100</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.311</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.382</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td>.365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_0</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>.522</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.682</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_100</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.407</td>
<td>.321</td>
<td>.672*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.243</td>
<td>.365</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

³⁹. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*   Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The next section focuses on the correlation between interest levels and the scores participants had for question number 7 (select the terms that are not related to the text) in the comprehension pretests and posttests. This specific question has a perfect score of 4/4 in the overall grading scale. Another correlation between interest level and the last question (In your own words, do you think learning about "XY" may help you as a translator? Why?) is also discussed.

---

¹⁹ Two participants withdraw from the experiments session, so the number dropped from 12 to 10.
5.2.2.4 Correlation test for question 7 and 8 (comprehension)

Although there was no significant statistical difference between scores in comprehension on both levels (time and interest), there was a significant difference between overall recall test scores in relation to interest level alone. Therefore, specific questions within these tests were analyzed in an effort to identify additional correlational relationships that highlight the effect of interest. Thus, this section analyzes correlational analysis for specific two questions.

**Question 7:** Select the terms that are not related to the text. In this question, participants were asked to select the terms that are not related to the text they have read. There were only four unrelated terms that were deliberately included with the list of related terms in each of the comprehension tests within each of the topics. Therefore, the perfect score for this question was 4/4.

**Question 8:** In your own words, do you think learning about "XY" may help you as a translator? Why? In this question, participants were given the chance to express their opinion about the topic of the text. This question was included for two reasons: 1) to obtain participants’ views on the text topic; 2) to ascertain how elaborative their writing can be in conjunction with the level of interest they hold in relation to the text with which they will be dealing. Consequently, in this correlational analysis attempts are made to identify if there is any correlation between the word count in this question and the level of interest labeled for the text they handled, as this may be substantially related to what is described by classic scholars such James (1890) and Dewey (1913) as ‘focused attention’ and ‘persistence’. Moreover, interest is considered to be a key component of conation, and is seen as providing energy and persistence in order for a person to maintain willpower and achieve his/her own goals (Hilgard, 1980; Huitt & Cain 2005, pp. 6-7).
Question 7 correlation

First, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between participants’ scores in Question 7 and interest with two levels in the test topic. The test results show that there was no significant correlation between the two variables. Table 14 shows the correlational calculation using SPSS software:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre_100</td>
<td>3.2000</td>
<td>.7881</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre_0</td>
<td>2.9000</td>
<td>.8756</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_100</td>
<td>3.3000</td>
<td>.9487</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_0</td>
<td>2.9000</td>
<td>.8756</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14: Correlations for Formal Study’s Question 7 in Reading Comprehension Tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre_100</th>
<th>Pre_0</th>
<th>Post_100</th>
<th>Post_0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre_100</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.515</td>
<td>.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.128</td>
<td>.564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre_0</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.515</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.128</td>
<td>.912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_100</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.208</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.564</td>
<td>.912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_0</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.129</td>
<td>-.014</td>
<td>.174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.723</td>
<td>.968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Question 8 correlation

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between word counts in this question and the level of interest. As indicated above, this is an essay question in which participants were asked their opinion in the form of the question: In your own words, do you think learning about "XY" may help you as a translator? Why?
The test results show that there was only one significant positive correlation between the word count in LOW INTEREST posttest and HIGH INTEREST posttest. Consequently, this correlational relationship can be articulated as: the more participants write in their LOW INTEREST posttest, the more they tend to write in their HIGH INTEREST posttest. Thus, it can be assumed that, regardless of an individual’s writing styles, knowledge gained about translation through their course between the two phases (pretest and posttest) might have played a role in their way of expressing opinion and writing more. Table 15 shows the correlational calculation using SPSS software:

**Table 15: Correlations for Formal Study Question 8 in Reading Comprehension Tasks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre_0</td>
<td>29.100</td>
<td>10.20294</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre_100</td>
<td>33.100</td>
<td>13.89204</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_0</td>
<td>36.200</td>
<td>11.67904</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_100</td>
<td>35.000</td>
<td>12.27464</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre_0</th>
<th>Pre_100</th>
<th>Post_0</th>
<th>Post_100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre_0 Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.382</td>
<td>.509</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.276</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>.909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre_100 Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.382</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.472</td>
<td>.216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.276</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>.548</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_0 Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.509</td>
<td>.472</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.646*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td></td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post_100 Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.646*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.909</td>
<td>.548</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
Thus, these correlational calculations for question 7 and 8 of the comprehension tasks show that there is only one significant correlation that might be indicative of the importance of time and course engagement in relation to interest level. It can also be argued that the more knowledge students gain, the more they will probably write (higher word-count), as shown in the word-count sum difference between the two phases (pretest and posttest) in Figure 7. The y-axis represents the number of words. X axis represents interest with two levels; HI (High interest) and LOW (Low interest), and time with two levels PRE (Pretest) and POST (Posttest). September-December 2016 refers to the time lag between pretest and posttest.

![Figure 7: Pretest and Posttest Word Counts](image)

### 5.2.2.5 Statistical significance and correlation test for number of specialized terms recalled

In this section, correlation tests were performed to determine if there is a correlational relationship between the number of specialized terms recalled in the whole task and the levels of interest (HIGH/LOW). First, statistical significance tests were run to determine if there is a

---

20 Specialized terms are related to the topic of each task. See section (4.1.4.1) for more about task topics.
significant difference between the number of terms recalled for two different levels of interest (HIGH/LOW) and two different times (pretest/posttest). Tests results show that the main effect of time was not significant, $p > .05$. The mean for the number of terms recalled at pretest ($M = 1.90$, $SD = 2.26$) was not significantly different from the mean for the number of terms recalled at posttest ($M = 2.15$, $SD = 2.34$). However, the main effect of interest was significant, $p < .05$. The mean score for the number of terms recalled for LOW INTEREST ($M = 1.45$, $SD = 1.959$) was significantly different from the mean score for the number of terms recalled for HIGH INTEREST ($M = 2.6$, $SD = 2.479$). The interaction between time and interest was not significant, $p > .05$.

Tables 16 (time) and 17 (interest) show within-subjects factors, descriptive statistics and results of multivariate tests performed using SPSS:

**Table 16: Within-Subjects Factors, Descriptive Statistics, and Multivariate Tests for Formal Study’s Specialized Terms Recall with Two Levels of Time**

**Time (Pre/Post):**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interest level</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>1.9000</td>
<td>2.26878</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>2.1500</td>
<td>2.34577</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Hypothesis df</th>
<th>Error df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interest_level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pillai’s Trace</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>.314b</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>19.000</td>
<td>.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks’ Lambda</td>
<td>.984</td>
<td>.314b</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>19.000</td>
<td>.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotelling’s Trace</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.314b</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>19.000</td>
<td>.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roy’s Largest Root</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.314b</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>19.000</td>
<td>.582</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Design: Intercept Within Subjects Design: Interest_level
b. Exact statistic
Table 17: Within-Subjects Factors, Descriptive Statistics and Multivariate Tests for Formal Study’s Specialized Terms Recall with Two Levels of Interest

**Interest (HIGH/LOW):**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interest level</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>LOW interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>HIGH interest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOW interest</td>
<td>1.4500</td>
<td>1.95946</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIGH interest</td>
<td>2.6000</td>
<td>2.47939</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Hypothesis df</th>
<th>Error df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interest level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pillai’s Trace</td>
<td>.243</td>
<td>6.088b</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>19.000</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks’ Lambda</td>
<td>.757</td>
<td>6.088b</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>19.000</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotelling’s Trace</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>6.088b</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>19.000</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roy’s Largest Root</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>6.088b</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>19.000</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Design: Intercept Within Subjects Design: Interest level
b. Exact statistic

For the correlational tests using SPSS (Table 18), results show that there were two significant positive correlations between the number of specialized terms recalled throughout the whole task in *LOW INTEREST* pretest and *HIGH INTEREST* posttest. The same correlational pattern exists between *HIGH INTEREST* pretest and *HIGH INTEREST* posttest. In other words, this correlation can be articulated as: participants who were able to recall as many terms as possible in their *LOW INTEREST* and *HIGH INTEREST* pretests tend to recall more terms in the their *HIGH INTEREST* posttest than *LOW INTEREST* posttest.
Table 18: Correlations for Formal Study’s Specialized Terms Recall

**Descriptive Statistics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SPT*_Pre_0</td>
<td>1.4000</td>
<td>2.11870</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPT_Pre_100</td>
<td>2.4000</td>
<td>2.41293</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPT_Post_0</td>
<td>1.5000</td>
<td>1.90029</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPT_Post_100</td>
<td>2.8000</td>
<td>2.65832</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SPT: Specialized Terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SPT_Pre_0</th>
<th>SPT_Pre_100</th>
<th>SPT_Post_0</th>
<th>SPT_Post_10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SPT_Pre_0</strong></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.574</td>
<td>.469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SPT_Pre_100</strong></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.574</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>.375</td>
<td>.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SPT_Post_0</strong></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.469</td>
<td>.315</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>.375</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SPT_Post_100</strong></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.647*</td>
<td>.689*</td>
<td>.594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
Based on the findings, it can be argued that both interest and time (course engagement) have a role to play in participants’ ability to recall specialized terms. Figure 8 shows the overall results as well as progress discussed above in terms of interest and time, respectively. In the chart, each participant has four scores: scores in blue represents HIGH INTEREST pretest, red for the LOW INTEREST pretest, green for the HIGH INTEREST posttest and purple for the LOW INTEREST posttest. Missing colors in the chart refers to zero. Numbers on the Y-axis refer to the number of specialized terms recalled while letters on the X-axis are the participants’ codes.
When these numbers are assigned to their respective categories of interest (HIGH/LOW) and time (pretest/posttest) the results show that the number of terms recalled with *HIGH INTEREST* and posttest surpass the ones in *LOW INTEREST* and pretest. Figures 9 and 10 above show the overall number of specialized terms recalled for two levels of interest. In Figure 9 the Y-axis represents the number of words recalled and the X-axis represents levels of interest. In Figure 10 the Y-axis represents the number of words recalled and the X-axis represents the levels of time.
5.2.2.5.1 Question 7 (Recall test)

This question is an essay question in which participants were asked to answer a question in the form: Which of the two texts have you found most interesting, and why? The word-counts were calculated to establish if there is a significant difference between answers at two different points in time; pretest and posttest. It is assumed that their answers are focused on the text that they found interesting according to the wording of the question above.

After the number of words written in response to this question was calculated, the results show that answers for the posttest have a higher word-count than those in the pretest giving the impression that knowledge and skills gained throughout their course of study might have made students more elaborative in their answers. In addition, it can be argued that the time lag between the two phases might have helped them develop their interests, thus they were more able to answer the question in-depth. In this regard, Renninger and Hidi state:

People who are interested in what they are doing are recognizable because they tend to have positive feelings, be invigorated, and choose to reengage with a particular object/ activity/ idea, or content, repeatedly. Their engagement with the content is distinctive and appears to be self-sustaining; their interest positively affects their attention, goal setting, comprehension, motivation, and learning (2016, p. 1).

However, it should be noted that not all words written are directly about the text. Answers include statements such as: “I do not know or probably I do not remember” and similar phrases such as “don’t and can’t remember”. In this context, the following quotes are relevant:

“I remember that I liked the second text, but I don’t quite remember specifics. It was a little less technical so the information was packaged in an interesting way” (GR).

“I honestly don’t remember much already. I found the various texts presented rather dry and not terribly interesting” (DN).

“I think I liked the first one more, but I can’t remember” (DV).

“????” (AMN).
Figures 11 and 12 show the difference between answers at the two different points, pretest and posttest. In Figure 11, the Y-axis represents numbers of words, while the letters on the X-axis refer to participants’ codes. Pre stands for pretest, and Post to posttest. In Figure 12 the numbers on the Y-axis represent the word count, while Pre refers to pretest and Post to posttest.

Figure 11: Word Count for Recall Pretest and Posttest Final Question
5.2.3 Interest changes

Participants took a survey at the beginning and at the end of this experimental series in order to identify their interests and other related areas. It was predicted that during their course of study (time lag: from September to December 2016) students could change their interests after being exposed to the educational content subject matters. This evolution of interests is highlighted by Renninger and Hidi, (2016, p. 63). Furthermore, “situational interest is characterized by focused attention to particular content and may be shorter-term (triggered situational interest)” (Renninger & Hidi, 2016, p. 10). Thus, a manual comparative analysis was conducted between participants’ interests recorded in the initial survey and their interests recorded in the exit survey. The analysis shown in Figure 13 clearly shows change occurred. In Figure 13, the numbers on the Y-axis represent the number of interests selected. The letters on the X-axis refer to participants’

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21 In the phase of triggered situational interest, “people’s feelings about their own interest may be positive or negative and may or may not result in sustained engagement. Triggers in this phase are most likely but not necessarily external to the individual. As Dewey (1902, 1913) predicted, whether a triggered interest is maintained depends on a person’s prior experience, strengths, and needs, as well as the facilitation provided by others and the features of available interest-related tasks and activities. The form of facilitation, moreover, is likely to be informed by whether the person is aware that help could be beneficial, asks questions, and/ or takes advantage of potential input” (Renninger & Hidi, 2016, p. 12).
codes and the level of interest in percentage terms. Blue represents interests recorded in the initial survey, while red is for interests recorded in the exit survey.

![Figure 13: Changes in the Interests in the Two Surveys](image)

5.2.4 Learning preferences

In this section, results in relation to several questions regarding ways of learning and developing interests are discussed in an effort to establish if there is any correspondence among the answers. In the exit survey, participants were asked several questions regarding potential ways to improve their knowledge and skills in their areas of interest. The questions were structured as follows using a Likert scale.

**Learning Preference Questions**

1. Please select the most appealing ways for you to develop your current areas of interest
   - Selected Choice:

   - Attending traditional classes
   - Attending online courses
   - Free/general reading
   - Doing activities like shadowing professional person/internships
• Volunteer work
• Attending conferences
• Attending professional workshops and seminars
• Other

2. If you are to engage in online learning for the purpose of developing your knowledge in one of your interest areas, which of the following platforms would you be most likely to choose? - Selected Choice:

• Online courses from well-known schools (like Harvard, MIT, Yale, etc. “Certificates offered”)
• Online courses from private institutions (i.e. Universal Class Inc. “Certificates offered”)
• Watching educational YouTube videos (No certificates offered)
• All of the above
• Other

3. How likely are you to use your smartphone to access your online training platform (websites, apps, etc.) for the development of your interest? (Likert scale)

4. How likely are you to use your personal laptop to access your online training platform for the development of your interest? (Likert scale)

5. How likely are you to use your school library facilities for learning and accessing your online training platform for the development of your interest? (Likert scale)

6. Additional notes you would like to include.

A manual analysis of the above questions for all participants in the pilot and formal studies yielded the following answers (the numbers are in brackets):

1. Please select the most appealing ways for you to develop your current areas of interest

   - Selected Choice:
This question was designed to demonstrate a general overview among participants, despite the small size of the population. The total number of participants answering this question was 18 for both the pilot and formal studies. Their answers give an impression that most are interested in activities such as general reading (15), attending traditional classes (14) and shadowing professional person/internships (11). Another preference that should be noted is attending professional workshops and seminars (9), which saw one-half of the respondents choose this method by which to develop their skills and gain knowledge about their selected areas of interest. In addition, attending conferences (5) and online courses (4) are other preferences chosen. Though these two activities may seem different with regard to mobility and availability, they could be substantially related to interests in different ways, as is discussed in the concluding chapter.

2. **If you are to engage in online learning for the purpose of developing your knowledge in one of your interest areas, which of the following platforms would you be most likely to choose?** - Selected Choice:

- Online courses from well-known schools (like Harvard, MIT, Yale, etc. “Certificates offered”) (9)
- Watching educational YouTube videos (No certificates offered) (7)
- Online courses from private institutions (i.e. Universal Class Inc. “Certificates offered”) (2)
- All of the above (5)
The answers show that most of the participants chose attending courses through well-known schools and institutions (14). In addition, two-thirds of respondents chose to watch educational videos through YouTube (12), whereas seven chose to attend courses offered by private institutions. This result may be helpful in inserting a distance education component in the teaching syllabus that is proposed in the next chapter as a method to improve learners’ knowledge and skills in their areas of interests.

Smartphones offer a convenient method by which to access information at any time. Young people can access learning platforms through their phones’ application store such as APP STORE\textsuperscript{22} and GOOGLE PLAY.\textsuperscript{23} The YouTube smartphone application has also made it easier for users to access videos from different platforms. Thus, the following question was added to the survey to ascertain if there is any preference for using such learning venues among young learners.

How likely are you to use your smartphone to access your online training platform (websites, apps, etc.) for the development of your interest? (Likert scale)

- 0% Extremely unlikely (0)
- 10% Unlikely (4)
- 50% Neutral (4)
- 90% Likely (7)
- 100% Extremely likely (3)

The answers show participants’ obvious tendency towards using their smartphones for the purpose of learning. It can be argued that this method of accessing provides learners with ease of use at any time and place.

\textsuperscript{22}“The App Store is a digital distribution platform, developed and maintained by Apple Inc., for mobile apps. The store allows users to browse and download applications that are developed for Apple’s devices including smartphones and tablets” (Wikipedia) <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/App_Store_(iOS)>, accessed January 31, 2017.

\textsuperscript{23}“Google Play, formerly known as the Android Market, is the official app store for Android smartphones and tablets. Google makes software applications, music, movies and books available for purchase and download through the store” (Techtarget) <http://searchmobilecomputing.techtarget.com/definition/Google-Play-Android-Market>, accessed January 31, 2017.
A related question was asked about the use of laptops:

**How likely are you to use your personal laptop to access your online training platform for the development of your interest? (Likert scale)**

- 0% Extremely unlikely (0)
- 10% Unlikely (0)
- 50% Neutral (0)
- 90% Likely (6)
- 100% Extremely likely (12)

It was predicted that most of the participants would be inclined to use their laptops to access their online learning platform since laptops are presently the most common devices used to prepare and finish work required by schools. This response may also include desktops and semi-laptop devices such as tablets and IPads.

**How likely are you to use your school library facilities for learning and accessing your online training platform for the development of your interest?**

- 0% Extremely unlikely (0)
- 10% Unlikely (4)
- 50% Neutral (6)
- 90% Likely (4)
- 100% Extremely likely (4)

Responses for this question show that nearly one-half of the respondents (8) are inclined to utilize their school library facilities while engaging in their online classes for developing their areas of interest. However, 34% of the respondents hold a neutral position toward using the school library, whereas 23% responded that they are unlikely to go to the library. It can be assumed that, despite the low number of respondents, using online training (distance education) may substantially generate different individual learning styles that suit learners’ daily schedules. For
example, there was only one response to the last part of the question “Additional notes you would like to include”. The response states:

“With regards to the library facilities, it depends. If resources are available online, yes, if not, I doubt I would considering location.” (VI).

5.3 Summary

In summary, it can be argued that based on the findings, interest in general had an impact in a number of parts of the project conducted in 2015 and 2016. In addition, significant positive correlations have been found. Table 19 summarizes the study’s findings.

Table 19: Summary of the Current Study’s Statistical Significance Findings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Type Of Test</th>
<th>Interest Level</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Significant Interest Effect</th>
<th>Significant Time Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>High/Low</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>Yes p &lt; .05 (p=.011)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>High/Low</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>High/Low</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>High/Low</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>Yes p &lt; .05 (p=.001)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Meanwhile, Table 20 shows the significant correlations reported for the two phases conducted in 2015 and 2016.
Table 20: Summary of the Current Study’s Correlation Findings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Type Of Test</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Type Of Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>Yes (Positive)</td>
<td>1. Pretest HIGH INTEREST and posttest HIGH INTEREST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Posttest LOW INTEREST and posttest HIGH INTEREST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Yes (Positive)</td>
<td>1. Pretest LOW INTEREST and pretest HIGH INTEREST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>Yes (Positive)</td>
<td>2. Pretest LOW INTEREST and posttest HIGH INTEREST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Pretest HIGH INTEREST and posttest HIGH INTEREST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>Yes (Positive)</td>
<td>1. Posttest LOW INTEREST and posttest HIGH INTEREST</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next chapter draws conclusions based on the findings. Challenges and limitations encountered throughout the project are also discussed, along with recommendations and insights for future research.
Chapter 6: Conclusion: Summary, Limitations and Future Research

This study establishes a base for understanding the effect of interest in specialized terminology learning. The statistical calculations show different patterns of significance with regard to the effect of interest and time on participant comprehension and recall scores. For the two conducted studies, the analysis highlights a significant difference between the results of the pilot study’s comprehension pretests and posttests. There is another significant difference between the formal study’s recall pretests and posttests. The study also shows significant positive correlations between participants’ interest and their comprehension and recall scores.

6.1 Summary

This section summarizes the findings related to the hypotheses of this study. One hypothesis states that the more students deal with texts reflecting their HIGH INTEREST, the better comprehension and recall they demonstrate for specialized terminology. In other words, there should be a significant difference in the interest effect when dealing with interesting texts rather than non-interesting texts. Another hypothesis predicts that there are significant positive correlations between participants’ HIGH INTEREST and their comprehension and recall scores. Thus, this study establishes the effectiveness of interest in supporting better comprehension and recall of specialized terminology. A summary of the statistical calculations performed in the previous chapter reveals if the first hypothesis is supported or rejected. Table 21 contains a summary of the statistical significant calculations, while Table 22 displays a summary of correlation findings.
**Table 21: Statistical Significance Findings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Type of Test</th>
<th>Interest Level</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Significant Interest Effect</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>High/Low</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>p &lt; .05 (p=.011)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>High/Low</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>High/Low</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>High/Low</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>p &lt; .05 (p=.001)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 22: Correlation Findings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Type of Test</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Type of Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>Yes (Positive)</td>
<td>1. Pretest HIGH INTEREST and posttest HIGH INTEREST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Posttest LOW INTEREST and posttest HIGH INTEREST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Yes (Positive)</td>
<td>3. Pretest LOW INTEREST and pretest HIGH INTEREST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4. Pretest LOW INTEREST and posttest HIGH INTEREST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5. Pretest HIGH INTEREST and posttest HIGH INTEREST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>Yes (Positive)</td>
<td>6. Posttest LOW INTEREST and posttest HIGH INTEREST</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the findings, it can be noted that there are two settings in which interest has a significant effect; one in the 2015 pilot study comprehension section and one in the 2016 formal study recall section. In the pilot study, interest has a significant effect on comprehension, whereas in the formal study it is linked with recall. Thus, these findings can be articulated as: it is apparent that the more participants deal with texts in which they have valued as having a HIGH INTEREST (100%), then they tend to obtain higher scores in their comprehension tasks. Furthermore, the results can also be articulated as: participants recall significantly more information, including the main ideas and terms for HIGH INTEREST (100%) texts, than they do for texts in which they have LOW INTEREST (0%). Moreover, it should be highlighted that the reported significant positive correlations number 1 and 5 (Table 22) can show the significant effect of interest over leaning specialized terminology [comprehension and recall]. It can also be argued that the intended time lag between the two phases (pretest and posttest) has a remarkable effect on participants’ performance, as this is reflected in the significant positive correlations reported in number 2 and 6 (Table 22).

In addition, results show there was a significant effect for interest in recalling specialized terms. Thus, this study shows that the higher interest participants have in the subject matter, the more specialized terms they tend to recall (see Figure 14).
The study’s findings are similar to those of other scholars in the field of interest studies. Anderson (1982) finds a substantial relationship between children’s recall ability and interest. Renniger and Wozniak (1985) also highlight that in young children (2-4 years of age) there was a substantial link between children’s interest and their recall and attention towards objects. Shirey and Reynold (1988) establish that readers who were 18 years and older recall interesting information better than less interesting information. In line with these findings, they also find that adults “allocate fewer cognitive resources to information that they rate as interesting” (p. 163). Correspondingly, Shirey and Reynold (1988) highlight that interesting information can be learned without significant effort (p. 163).

Hidi and Baird (1988), in their exploration of the relationship between the learner’s cognitive performance and the “interestingness” of the study materials, find there is a link between recall and interest. They conclude that “students, when reading textbook exposition, may not evaluate the relative importance of facts within the whole text, and may simply recall chunks of information associated with those subtopics that are most salient to them” (p. 469). This study's findings also support studies such as Wade and Adams (1990) and Alexander, Kulikowich, and Jetton (1995) who were able to show that the interrelationship between knowledge, recall and
interest is significant. Similarly, Schiefele and Krapp (1996) provide evidence that supports the strong relationship between recall and interest. They enlisted over 75 college students (20-27 years of age) as subjects and used expository texts from the field of “psychology of communication” (p. 141). Finally, Renninger and Hidi, (2016) clearly state that interest has the power “not only for motivating engagement, but also for directing and sustaining attention, improving memory, and facilitating learning. Interest invigorates and is beneficial. It makes persistence feel effortless and increases the possibility of achievement and creative contributions” (p. 124).

It should be noted that none of the studies conducted in the field has specifically explored the relationship between interest and specialized terminology comprehension and recall.

6.2 The Status of the Hypothesis

As indicated in the first chapter, this study has two major elements. Based on a review of the literature, this study is the first to combine two significant disciplines (interest studies and terminology studies) into one study. Second, this study unveils the relationship between learners’ interests and their ability to comprehend and recall specialized terminology. The hypothesis posited in Chapter 1 proposes that traditional terminology management courses may not meet students’ expectations to effectively assimilate and recall specialized terminology. Thus, this study hypothesizes that since interest and learning are closely related, a correlation may be detected between learners’ interests and their ability to comprehend and recall specialized terminology. Also, this study postulates that interest can have a significant effect on student’s comprehension and recall for specialized terminology.

According to the findings, this study shows that interest plays a significant role in terms of comprehension in the pilot study, while an important role is reported in the formal study for
participants’ recall ability for specialized terminology. Significant correlations are reported for both pilot and formal studies. Consequently, the null hypothesis is partially rejected but this can be a point of departure to establish a common ground between the two disciplines: terminology and interest studies.

6.3 New Proposals

6.3.1 Terminology Course Plan

As discussed in the literature review in Chapter 3, Picht and Partal’s (1997) research is significant because it is one of the key published works in terminology training and is frequently cited by recent terminology researchers, such as Faber and Martinez (2009), Faber and Rodriguez (2012) and Alcina (2009). Picht and Partal (1997) highlight that it is essential to include a number of course components such as introduction to the theories and schools of terminology, terminology management tools, terminographic documentation and others. This can, in fact, be seen in current terminology management courses, such as programs offered by the University of Illinois and Kent State University. Yet, these programs pay little attention to the theoretical component but give greater attention to the technical side of it. Nonetheless, it can be said that Faber and Martinez’s (2009) and Sikora’s (2014) course plan components are relevant for their broad theoretical component alongside the practical/technical component.

As discussed earlier, Faber and Martinez (2009) propose a course based on the notion that translators and authors operate on different levels of knowledge platforms. Therefore, Faber and Martinez emphasize the importance of introducing students to the theoretical component of terminology and specialized language associated with text-specific knowledge. They also point to

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24 See Appendix F for more about current terminology courses for translators.
the necessity of using various teaching models that enable students to function as “the manager of their learning processes” (Faber & Raya, 2003 cited in Faber & Martinez, 2009, p. 98). In addition, they highlight that in-class presentations and group work can be helpful in developing students’ abilities to perform well and gain knowledge throughout the course. In this respect, this terminology course supports Kussmaul’s (1995) belief that any translator training that includes specialized knowledge and terminology will help increase possibilities of achieving an optimal integration between factual and procedural knowledge, where the knowledge of terminology (terms, concepts, and conceptual organizations) falls under the latter (p. 5).

Faber and Martinez’s course plan is adopted in this study because of the way in which the model is organized into three main sections concerning the acquisition, documentation and managing of specialized language. The course is based on a learner-centered approach to teaching and a cognitive restructuring that includes “conscious, deliberate reformulation of processing schemas” (Faber & Martinez, 2009, p. 8). Helping learners live the experience of conceptual change in this course is also seen as an important objective that should be taken into account. Therefore, the following procedures have been treated as essential: “1) identifying the previous ideas of the students; 2) questioning their ideas by using counterexamples; 3) introducing new concepts; and 4) providing opportunities for students to use new ideas in various types of situations and confirm their explanatory and predictive power” (Faber & Martinez, 2009, p. 8).

In relation to the teaching materials, Faber and Martinez suggest various resources, such as specialized texts, manuals, journal articles, monographs, multimedia texts, and software applications, to aid the process of teaching and learning (2009, p. 9). As far as assessment is concerned, the authors point out that learners are the center of evaluation in this course. They set three different stages for evaluation in order to measure the progress of their students: 1) initial
evaluation; 2) formative evaluation; and 3) final evaluation\textsuperscript{25} (Faber & Martinez, 2009, p. 9). The authors also recommend further learning activities that support collaborative work among students in the classroom in order to, first, evaluate the attitudinal, procedural and conceptual knowledge gained in the terminology course, and, second, encourage them to make desirable changes in their cognitive make-up (Faber & Martinez, 2009, p. 9).

According to Faber and Martinez, the way that the teacher organizes learning and teaching materials determines the success of the course. The first three parts (theoretical aspects) in their course proposal are divided into 25 teaching units that equal 40 hours. Another 40 hours are allotted in this course for the translation-related practical activities in the form of "terminographic documentation" (Faber & Martinez, 2009, p. 5). They form a template\textsuperscript{26} that can be used to organize the class; it is designed to motivate learners to actively participate and interact with their classmates, while learning to achieve the goals established for the course. The template comprises four main phases: 1) introduction; 2) group work; 3) exposition and discussion of results; and 4) evaluation of results (Faber & Martinez, 2009, p. 11). In addition, Faber and Martinez also address the notion of a good translation, which they clearly relate to the ability to use both the knowledge of theory and skills in translation. Therefore, they assert that establishing a terminological competence for the translator may substantially help in the production of a ‘good’ translation that communicates the specialized knowledge from a specialized source language to a specialized target language. Faber and Martinez highlight four distinct requirements that help translation learners acquire skills and knowledge linked to terminology as follows (2009, p. 12):

- Selecting teaching objectives and learning contents carefully.

\textsuperscript{25} See Appendix D for more about Faber and Martinez’s approach to evaluation and assessment.

\textsuperscript{26} See Appendix D.
• Applying teaching methodologies that help utilize proper activities and learning techniques.
• Using suitable educational materials in order to achieve the teaching goals.
• Paying attention to the fact that in order to effectively achieve the course goals, assessment/evaluation strategies should be applied in agreement with the teaching methodology.\(^{27}\)

Overall, Faber and Martinez’s model fits into the current study’s schemas as it is conducted in the same field, namely, specialized language and terminological competence. They propose a program that helps learners develop knowledge of specialized language and terminological competence\(^{28}\) in order to become competent translators who can handle the translation of specialized text by relying on their own translation and terminological competences. Gaining terminological competence will also lead toward becoming professional translators and gaining translation competence that is beyond a mere set of basic skills. Kiraly (2000) states that, in this respect, “becoming a professional translator clearly entails more than learning specific skills that allow one to produce an acceptable target text in one language on the basis of a text written in another. That is what I would call ‘translation competence’” (p. 13).

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\(^{27}\) In Faber and Martinez’s (2009) proposed plan, the evaluation process is based on Fenwick and Parsons’s (2000) notions of evaluation in which they set three different stages for evaluation in order to measure the progress of their students: “1) an initial evaluation with a diagnostic-predictive function in the form of tests, questionnaires, and discussion; 2) a formative evaluation during the learning process with a view to orienting students and helping them to rectify or reaffirm terminology management strategies. This evaluation can be in the form of questions, dialogue, or tests; and 3) a final evaluation in which the results obtained are assessed and the student is given a final mark” (Faber and Martinez, 2009, p. 9). Evaluation is regarded as progressive and corresponds to the notion of assessment as it is used by Baehr (2010), Straight (2002) and Colina (2011), who see assessment as focusing on process and giving feedback for improvements whereas evaluation is focused on product and final judgement of the work provided (Dewi, 2015, p. 13).

\(^{28}\) See chapter 2 for definitions of terminological competence.
Furthermore, Sikora regards terminological competence as an essential part of the translation competence that may substantially help and support translators performance in the translation market (2014, p. 500). Sikora casts light on thematic competence (the ability to gain knowledge in specialized fields) as part of terminological competence, alongside technical, research and information mining competences (2014, p. 504). This notion of terminological competence focuses attention on the acquisition of specialized knowledge through ‘thematic competence’ that corresponds to the notion of extra-linguistic sub-competence as it is used by PACTE (2003).29 This is important because it supports the current study’s model which integrates interest as a method to help learners acquire specialized knowledge in any field of their interest with enhanced comprehension and recall abilities.

Consequently, considering the aforementioned points, Faber and Martinez’s model is modified to include activities that support interest-based activities, such as job shadowing and distance education. These are explained in the following sections.

6.3.2 Job Shadowing

Job shadowing is seen as an experiential opportunity in which students observe competent employees in their work environment in order to gain experience about the nature of work and skills practiced within real-life settings. Experiential learning is seen as a set of processes that involve reflections on experiences that help learners gain knowledge and create new paths for future experiences (Saddington, 1992, p. 44).

Hernández-Gantes and Blank (2008) view job shadowing as a helpful experience that has a flexible timeframe (a few hours to several days), and that should involve observing and working

29 See chapter 2 for definition of extra-linguistic sub-competence.
with a competent employee. This experience can be regarded as a supportive strategy for educating young learners because of the existence of controlling factors, such as instructor supervision and time control. Through this experience, learners’ motivation and interest improve if they already have learned the basics of the job for which they are shadowing (Hernández-Gantes & Blank, 2008, p. 167). Therefore, it can be argued that activities of this kind may substantially help learners gain knowledge through experience by extensively engaging parts of their procedural memory that have a direct link with actions and movement-related learning (Dickerson & Eichenbaum, 2010). In other words, they store information in their episodic memory that is associated with knowledge already stored in semantic memory (Tulving & Craik, 2000).

Hence, adding credit hours for shadowing (experiential learning) enhances the course plan. This addition requires collaboration between the course organizers, school administrators and shadowing providers. Based on this experiential activity, the study suggests that every shadowing experience should include the following elements to ensure a fruitful experience:

1. Selecting at least three areas of high interest.

2. Selecting at least three available local firms that provide work in the selected areas of interest.

3. Submitting selection to the instructor.

4. Following-up and finalizing applicants’ enrollment by instructors and school administrators.

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30 Tulving and Craik (2000) argue that memory is an essential part of learning. They define semantic memory as the part of brain that has organized sets of facts, information, conceptual units and words; episodic memory refers to what the mind records as life events that are associated with certain times and places. Memories of having the first speeding ticket or watching heart-breaking catastrophic events such as traffic accidents are examples of episodic memory (p. 632).
5. Holding pre-shadowing training sessions: Applicants are introduced to the concept of shadowing in order to familiarize them with their upcoming experiences and to provide answers for their queries. Applicants are then asked to complete two assignments: 1) the compilation of a terms/concepts list; and 2) keeping a daily log, which will be used for a final in-class presentation.

6. Beginning the shadowing experience (hours/days): The school determines the number of credit hours based on the course load, student schedule, and the recommendations of the shadowing provider.

7. Post-shadowing: Applicants make a post-shadowing final presentation, including information from logs written during the experience highlighting what the students have learned and gained throughout the shadowing activity. The logs also include personal reflections on the experience that show applicants’ relative enthusiasm about the shadowing in which they have a high interest.

In relation to assessment, this experiential learning activity can be assessed by evaluating the list of terms and concepts compiled and logs written during the experience. In addition, evaluation includes content and delivery of the final presentation.

Shadowing as an experiential learning activity is new to the educational domain in Saudi Arabia. Shadowing is suitable because it is short in length and flexible in time. In addition, it rarely places a financial burden on either party. Due to the flexible timeframe, each applicant will probably choose two to three sessions of shadowing based on their areas of interest.
6.3.3 Distance Education

Distance education is an emerging method of learning that has been substantially developed during the past two decades. It helps people from across the world access knowledge provided by educational platforms including famous schools, private institutions, and training centers. Distance education emerged in the 1800s to overcome challenges in providing school and knowledge to students in rural areas (Banas & Emory, 1998 cited in Hernández-Gantes, 2010, p. 146). Several definitions exist for distance education:

Distance education also called distance learning, has existed for centuries. It involves obtaining knowledge outside of the traditional avenues of attendance at [educational] institutions. Some recent definitions have focused on it as a new development, involving advanced technology. A few have even sought to define it in terms of a single technology - usually the one they are reviewing or marketing. (North, 1993). Others have viewed it simply as a recent extension of the classroom environment into a remote location (Long dist tech, 1990) Such definitions have proven too restrictive, and fail to recognize the actual needs of distance education users or providers (Spodick, 1995, p. 1).

Bates (2008) provides another definition: “Distance education on the other hand is less a philosophy and more a method of education. Students can study in their own time, at the place of their choice (home, work or learning center), and without face-to-face contact with a teacher. Technology is a critical element of distance education” (p. 1). In relation to the demand for online education, this method of learning offers solutions for busy people who seek to develop their professional skills in any subject matter with flexible timeframes (National Center for Education Statistics, 2002 cited in Hernández-Gantes, 2010, p. 147).

It can be argued that distance education is a good substitute for shadowing in developing students’ areas of interest. Although this type of learning is less experiential than shadowing, it may include activities and assignments that are based on experience and situations. Therefore, if
there are no shadowing providers in the market or the students are not prepared to undertake the shadowing experience, distance education is a possible option. Like shadowing, every student should submit their three preferred areas of interest, which should be reviewed by the instructors and school administrators. The following are the proposed procedures:

1. Students submit their three choices for areas of interest.
2. Instructors and school administrators find a suitable course and contact providers to see whether or not there may be school-to-school agreements.
3. Students enroll in one course relating to their interest.
4. Enrollment in online education courses would be considered as a required supplemental course project that should ideally be between 15 to 20 hours.
5. Pre-distance education: Students are familiarized with the new online educational platform and their queries are answered. As in the shadowing experience, students are asked to undertake two assignments, 1) the compilation of a terms/concepts list, and 2) keeping a daily log, which will be used for a final in-class presentation.
6. Students begin their online education experience. The course workload is carefully considered to increase efficiency. After finishing with their online courses, the students are awarded a certificate of completion from the school or service that provided the course; students can select at the outset whether or not they would like to earn an official certificate.31
7. Post-distance education: Students undertake their final presentation, which includes information from logs written during the experience highlighting what they have learned and gained throughout this experience. The logs also include personal

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31 If they choose the path with no certificates of completion they will still receive a confirmation email at the end of the course that states they have completed all sessions.
reflections on the experience that highlight applicants’ relative enthusiasm about the distance education in which they have a high interest.

Like the shadowing experience, this activity is assessed by evaluating the annotated list of terms and concepts collected and logs written during the experience. It also includes the final presentation with regard to content and delivery, as well as the certificate of completion, if available.

6.3.3.1 Distance Education Platform

At present, there are several online educational platforms. COURSERA, EDX, and Lynda.com are three key platforms established in this decade that make it possible for learners to access knowledge provided by recognized worldwide schools whenever and wherever they are. For instance, COURSERA was founded in 2012 by two computer science professors, Daphne Koller and Andrew Ng, at Stanford University for the purpose of sharing knowledge with the world. According to Koller and Ng, they put online the courses they teach for all to access. As a result, in a matter of months, they were able to teach more students than they had in the classroom (COURSERA.ORG, 2017). In their own words, Koller and Ng state that “since then, we’ve built a platform where anyone, anywhere can learn and earn credentials from the world’s top universities and education providers” (COURSERA.ORG, 2017). It should be noted that COURSERA offers over 1300 courses in more than 100 specializations through more than 120 university partners. At present, nearly 20 million learners have taken a course and around 550,000 certificates\(^{32}\) have been earned (COURSERA.ORG, 2017).

\(^{32}\) Certificates are awarded upon the successful completion of every single course with COURSERA and EDX if the students subscribe to the certificate option.
EDX is another distance education platform that offers numerous courses across several fields. EDX was co-founded in 2012 by Harvard University and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT). EDX’s mission is make high-quality education accessible, enhance learning/teaching experiences, and promote learning through research (EDX.ORG, 2017). According to their website wording:

Our students come from every country in the world! Whether you are interested in computer science, languages, engineering, psychology, writing, electronics, biology, or marketing, we have the course for you! We were founded by and continue to be governed by colleges and universities. We are the only leading Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC) provider that is both nonprofit and open source (EDX.ORG, 2017).

In addition, Lynda.com is another potential platform for distance education. It offers various courses in different fields such as technology, business, photography and other creative skills. This platform has been in existence for nearly 20 years in the distance education industry helping learners gain knowledge and master certain skills (Lynda.com, 2017). In their own words, they state:

For 20 years, Lynda.com has helped students, leaders, IT and design pros, project managers—anyone in any role—develop software, creative, and business skills. Now part of Linkedin, Lynda.com serves more than 10,000 organizations. With tutorials in five languages, Lynda.com is a global platform for success (Lynda.com, 2017).

Also, it should be noted that Lynda offers group memberships for universities and large organizations, which may make it more effective in supplementing students’ main courses of study (Lynda.com, 2017). They also provides students with certificates of completion.

As discussed, distance education appears to be a suitable substitute for shadowing when shadowing is not possible due to a lack of providers or students’ incapacity. This flexibility in training has been advocated by Gouadec (2007), who suggests that the training of translators can
be outsourced to professional companies in case of the lack of competent trainers (p. 356). Exit survey results discussed in Chapter 5 show that there is a tendency for respondents to choose online courses through which they can earn certificates of completion over online courses providing no certificates. Thus, it can be argued that earning certificates of completion from well-recognized global institutions is a prime motivation for students in addition to their interest in the subject matter.

6.3.4 Enhanced Interest-Based Terminology Course

An enhanced interest-based terminology course is proposed based on Faber and Martinez’s (2009) course plan. This course underscores the importance of interest in supporting creativity and achievement (Renninger & Hidi, 2016, p. 1). Moreover, interest is included as a part of the current study’s course plan in an effort not only to promote learning and recall, but also to motivate and empower learners. In this respect Renninger and Hidi state:

People who are interested in what they are doing are recognizable because they tend to have positive feelings, be invigorated, and choose to reengage with a particular object/activity/idea, or content, repeatedly. Their engagement with the content is distinctive and appears to be self-sustaining, their interest positively affects their attention, goal setting, comprehension, motivation, and learning, and it can influence their ability to achieve and succeed in their career (2016, p. 1).

6.3.4.1 Faber and Martinez’s Course Plan (Faber and Martinez, 2009, pp. 15-16)

I. INTRODUCTION
   Topic 1: What is terminology?
      Unit 1: Views on terminology
      Unit 2: Functions and users
   II. THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF TERMINOLOGY
      Topic 2: Approaches to terminology
         Unit 3: General Terminology Theory
         Unit 4: Communicative Theory of Terminology
         Unit 5: Sociocognitive Theory of Terminology
         Unit 6: Frame-Based Terminology Theory
      Topic 3: Approaches to terminology work
         Unit 7: Prescriptive and descriptive terminology management
The proposed interest-based terminology course adopts the first five topics indicated above to introduce students to the field of terminology studies and its relationship with the translation process (the theoretical aspect). The last two topics [Sources of terminology acquisition and documentation] and [Analysis and representation of lexical and conceptual knowledge] would be introduced in a follow-on course that would incorporate terminographic documentation and tools in a second 45 hour course. This creates space within the course plan for the experiential learning activity element, whether shadowing or distance education. In relation to the credit hours, depending on the regulations of institutions adopting this course, the following proposal is
suggested to insert the interest-based activity. A four credit hour course (equivalent to 60 hours), divided into two sections:

1. 3 credit hours: textbook in-class theoretical component.
2. 1 credit hour: interest-based experiential learning activity (job-shadowing/distance education).

6.3.4.2 Interest-Based Terminology Course

Based on the current study’s research, the following plan is proposed to promote the role of interest in learning. It is inspired by Faber and Martinez’s (2009) plan discussed above.

I. INTRODUCTION

Topic 1: What is terminology?
   Unit 1: Views on terminology
   Unit 2: Functions and users

II. THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF TERMINOLOGY

Topic 2: Approaches to terminology
   Unit 3: General Terminology Theory
   Unit 4: Communicative Theory of Terminology
   Unit 5: Sociocognitive Theory of Terminology
   Unit 6: Frame-Based Terminology Theory

Topic 3: Approaches to terminology work
   Unit 7: Prescriptive and descriptive terminology management
   Unit 8: Systematic and ad hoc terminology work. Monolingual and multilingual strategies

III. TERMINOLOGY APPLIED TO TRANSLATION

Topic 4: Basic concepts
   Unit 9: General and specialized discourse: words and terms
   Unit 10: Specialized knowledge units
   Unit 11: Term formation
   Unit 12: Conceptual categories, concepts, and relations
   Unit 13: Conceptual systems and multidimensionality
   Unit 14: Terminological and conceptual variation in specialized discourse
   Unit 15: Terminographic definition

Topic 5: Terminology and the translation process
   Unit 16: Terminological needs of the translator
   Unit 17: Terminology in translation

IV. Interest-based learning (job shadowing/distance education)

Part 1: Pre-shadowing/distance education induction
Part 2: Actual shadowing/distance education experience
Part 3: Post-shadowing/distance education

It can be argued that this interest-based model may substantially help students gain new knowledge and skills that are key parts of the translation competence discussed by PACTE and academics who see translation competence as the fundamental knowledge that all translators need in order to perform their tasks efficiently. This type of knowledge is similar to what experts possess, and is based on procedural and declarative knowledge (PACTE, 2003). It may also encourage students to develop an interest in different specializations in conjunction with translation, which supports establishing specialist profiles that are needed in the job market. In this regard, Gouadec comments that “it might be likely for those who would graduate with narrow specializations to be excluded from several divisions in the job markets on the basis that their ‘specialist profiles’ would not fit in” (2007, p. 337). Furthermore, it should be noted that this interest-based model focuses on the situational factor of learning to gain new knowledge and skills, as this is regarded as one of the basic premises of the social constructivist approach to translation training (Kiraly, 2000).

Moreover, inserting the interest component into the course plan is expected to have a motivational impact on learning, which can encourage learners to reengage and learn even more. This addition is also expected to support the intrinsic motivation for learning discussed by Ryan and Deci (2000), who see this type of motivation as an individual’s tendency to do tasks without any ‘reinforcement’ because they are interested and enjoy doing these tasks (p. 61). This interest-based model will also support Alcina’s notion of ‘significant learning’ that highlights the cognitive link between old and new knowledge and is marked by ‘positive attitude’ and motivation (2009, p.3). Furthermore, students through this new model will have opportunities to join various ‘professional communities’ in order to gain specialized language and knowledge as well as new
skills (Kiraly, 2000). Therefore, students will become empowered to undertake learning processes that support “active engagement between the inner world of the person and the outer world of the environment” (Beard & Wilson, 2006, p. 19).

6.4 Limitations

At this point, there are several limitations to this study that should be underlined. First, there was a small number of respondents. The number of participants dropped from 28 to 12 for the pilot study, and a further two participants withdrew from the formal study to be 10. Participants were not the same in the two studies. Like many studies conducted in the same field, sample size is often seen as a key factor that can affect study findings. In this respect, Hamrick (2015) asserts that even slight changes in the number of a small sample size may influence the statistical findings (p. 14). In addition, Dewi (2015) points out “the bigger the sample size, the more chance there is to obtain more significant results as increased numbers will more reliably reflect the population mean (conceptstew.co.uk). Results from [such small sample size studies] are merely descriptive explaining the indications of a phenomenon in particular group[s] of respondents, and they might not be able to be applied in a different sampling of respondents” (pp. 138-139).

Furthermore, the researcher did not have a direct access/control over the class in which the studies were conducted. Thus, it was difficult to re-recruit participants and offer various incentives to maintain participation during late stages of the study. Also, it was difficult to extend the length of the project in order for it to be carried out longitudinally. This would have enabled a close watch to be kept on the progress of participants’ interest along with their performance in learning and their recall over a longer period. A longitudinal framework would also help enlist multiple cohorts over time. Hence, the limited timeframe of the study is a limitation that should be highlighted.
Moreover, there were delays incurred due to regulation changes in the IRB procedures at Kent State University, which temporarily required the completion of the prospectus before submitting the IRB. Consequently, the planned timeframe had to be changed in order not to lose the opportunity to run these tasks during the fall 2015 semester. It should also be noted that this change in the starting date thwarted the original intention of working with naïve subjects with respect to the course content. Thus, it is expected that this factor also influenced the findings. However, it is difficult to judge what effect this time shift may have had on the final results.

Another limitation that should be noted is that the project time frame restricted the inclusion of further experimental tasks that include onsite training, such as shadowing or internships. It was also unfortunate that there was not time to include experimental tasks in relation to distance education in conjunction with participants’ interests.

6.5 Future research

A series of longitudinal studies should be conducted in order to obtain more data in relation to students’ learning specialized terminology through their interests. This includes extensive observations of students’ performance over multiple semesters in various subject matters. For example, a study of this nature could be undertaken with freshmen students through to the junior or senior stage of their study. This would allow tracking and observing their performance over a long period of time, which, in turn, can help pinpoint various patterns of comprehension and recall linked with different levels of interest. This would help show the effectiveness of interest in learning specialized terminology and highlight the importance of the using additional resources, such as distance education and job shadowing.
After returning to Saudi Arabia (my home country), I will be able to lead future research studies in my own classes. I can then further study the effectiveness of this interest-based learning model in class. I will be able to add and manage resources about interest (for measuring and developing) in my classroom, as well as hold discussions that help students have a clear vision about their interests, either individual or situational.

In addition, being the class teacher will make it possible to add additional research activities, such as one-on-one interviews, that can help gather further information about participants’ positions and inclination towards their interests in conjunction with their learning activities. Specialized terminologies from different fields, other than translation studies, may also be included to examine the effect of interest on students’ comprehension and recall. Interviews can be used at different stages during the study. This extra research may require more time and dedication but is expected to yield more data pertinent to participants’ interests and learning styles. Including shadowing and distance education activities in the research might be more realistic when being the class instructor.

Furthermore, integrating the usage of a smartphone and tablets applications (Apple/Android) for distance education platforms might be also considered in future research. Doing so would give further insight on the practicality of this new method of learning.

Although the current study’s results cannot be considered scientific yet, they constitute a promising point of departure for further research. Additional research could result in more comprehensive data and evidence being revealed to uncover the effectiveness of interest in conjunction with additional practices, such as distance education and shadowing, to support students gaining the terminological competence.
It can be argued that, despite current limitations, this study provides an example of how interest should be integrated into a translator-training course to support learning. Furthermore, this study provides an interest-based specialized terminology model for translation schools through which to improve their students’ learning experience with enhanced comprehension and recall. It promotes the notion of self-directed learning (SDL) that is regarded as “a process by which individuals take the initiative, with or without the assistance of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identify human and material resources for learning, choosing and implement appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes” (Knowles, 1975, p. 18).
References


Cited links:

- Readability Formula: [www.readabilityformulas.com](http://www.readabilityformulas.com).

Pilot and formal studies tasks texts sources and links:
• Adaptation:

• Machine translation:

• Frame semantics, frame-based terminology and pragmatics of specialized language:

• CAT tools:

• Literal translation:

• Localization:

• Sight translation:


- Communicative and dynamic equivalence:
APPENDIX A

FLYERS AND CONSENT FORMS
(The Flyer of the Series of Tasks Conducted in Fall 2015)
Towards an interest-based approach to terminology competence acquisition

**Principal Investigator:** Prof. Sue Ellen Wright  
**Co-Investigator:** Yazid Al-Ismail

**Background:**

Empirical research on the relationship between terminology competence and learners’ cognitive performance is rare worldwide. Thus, this study will examine the cognitive changes associated with reading.

**Procedure:**

You will have to complete a survey about theories and approaches pertinent to your translation studies course. The survey will be on Qualtrics and will require no more than 10 minutes to complete. Then after sorting the survey results, one to two weeks, you will take an experimental reading task that is presented in two parts. You will be presented with a short text (2-3 paragraphs) and be requested to answer a set of questions. You will be expected to work individually for no more than 45 minutes. All tasks will be accessible through Kent State University Blackboard Learn and will be submitted through the same platform. Then one to two weeks after taking the first part of the experiment you will take the second part of the reading experiment with different and related questions.

**Risks and benefits:**

There will be no risks for you as the participant since the participation will be voluntary and anonymous. You can discontinue your participation at any time without any penalty. Your identity will be kept confidential and will not be mentioned in the report. Your performance in this research will have no impact on your grades in class.

The potential benefit of participating in this study is to test and understand your knowledge in basic theories and approaches in translation studies. Once you have completed your participation, you will be entitled to receive a gift of appreciation, such as an Arabic calligraphy poster with your name or something similar.
(The Informed Consent Form for the Series of Tasks Conducted in Fall 2015)

Informed Consent to Participate in a Research Study

**Study Title:** Towards an interest-based approach to terminology competence acquisition  
**Principal Investigator:** Prof. Sue Ellen Wright  
**Co-Investigator:** Yazid Al-Ismail

You are being invited to participate in a research study. This consent form will provide you with information on the research project, what you will need to do, and the associated risks and benefits of the research. Your participation is entirely voluntary. Please, read this form carefully. It is important that you ask questions and fully understand the research in order to make an informed decision. You will receive a copy of this document to take away with you.

**Purpose:** Studying cognitive changes associated with reading

**Procedure:** You will have to complete a survey about theories and approaches pertinent to your translation studies course. The survey is provided through Qualtrics and will require no more than 10 minutes to complete. Then after sorting the survey results, one to two weeks, you will take an experimental reading task that is presented in two parts. You will be presented with a short text (2-3 paragraphs) and be requested to answer a set of questions. You will be expected to work individually for no more than 45 minutes. All tasks will be accessible through Kent State University Blackboard Learn and will be submitted through the same platform. One to two weeks after taking the first part of the reading experiment you will take the second part of the experiment with different and related questions.

**Benefits:** The potential benefit of participating in this study is to test and know your knowledge in basic theories and approaches in translation studies. Once you have completed your participation, you will be entitled to receive a gift of appreciation, such as an Arabic calligraphy poster with your name or something similar. You will also be provided with a short report describing the results of this research, which may provide insights into your own understanding of the relationship between interest and learning.

**Risks and Discomforts:** There are no anticipated risks beyond those encountered in everyday life.

**Privacy and Confidentiality:** Your name, age, gender, level of education and experience will be collected. Your signed consent form will be kept separate from your study data, and responses/results will not be linked to you.

**Voluntary Participation:** Taking part in this research study is entirely voluntary. You may choose not to participate or you may discontinue your participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You will be informed of any new, relevant information that may affect your health, welfare, or willingness to continue your study participation.
Contact Information: If you have any questions or concerns about this research, you may contact Yazid Al-Ismail at yalismai@kent.edu. This project has been approved by the Kent State University Institutional Review Board. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant or complaints about the research, you may call the IRB at +1 330-672 1797 or kmcreael@kent.edu.

I have read this consent form and have had the opportunity to have my questions answered to my satisfaction. I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. I understand that a copy of this consent will be provided to me for future reference.

________________________________________                           _______________________________
Participant Signature                                                      Date
Towards an interest-based approach to terminology competence acquisition

**Principal Investigator:** Prof. Sue Ellen Wright  
**Co-Investigator:** Yazid Al-Ismail

**Background:**
Empirical research on the relationship between terminology competence and learners’ cognitive performance is rare worldwide. In this context, this study will examine the cognitive changes associated with reading.

**Procedure:**
You will be asked to complete a survey about your interest regarding approaches pertinent to translation studies, professional activities and subject matters. The survey is configured in Qualtrics and will require no more than 10 minutes to complete. Then, after the survey results (one to two weeks) have been analyzed, you will perform a set of tasks (pre-test and post-test) that are presented in two parts and at different times throughout the semester/year. You will be presented with a short text (2-3 paragraphs) and be requested to answer a set of questions. You will be expected to work individually for no more than 30 minutes. Finally you will be asked to complete a short exit survey. All tasks will be accessible through email and will be submitted through the same platform.

**Risks and benefits:**
There will be no risks for you as the participant since the participation will be voluntary and anonymous. You can discontinue your participation at any time without any penalty. Your identity will be kept confidential and will not be mentioned in the report. Participation in the project is in no way linked to your course participation or your grade in any course.

The potential benefit of participating in this study is to test and understand your knowledge of basic theories and approaches in translation studies. Once you have completed your participation, by submitting all required tasks and surveys, you will be entitled to receive a gift of appreciation, such as a five-dollar Starbucks gift card or something similar.
(The Informed Consent Form for the Series of Tasks Conducted in Fall 2016)
Informed Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Study Title: Towards an interest-based approach to terminology competence acquisition
Principal Investigator: Prof. Sue Ellen Wright
Co-Investigator: Yazid Al-Ismail

You are being invited to participate in a research study. This consent form will provide you with information on the research project, what you will need to do, and the associated risks and benefits of the research. Your participation is entirely voluntary. Please, read this form carefully. It is important that you ask questions and fully understand the research in order to make an informed decision. You will receive a copy of this document to take away with you.

Purpose: Studying cognitive changes associated with reading.

Procedure: You will be asked to complete a survey about your interest regarding approaches pertinent to translation studies, professional activities and subject matters. The survey is configured in Qualtrics and will require no more than 10 minutes to complete. Then, after the survey results (one to two weeks) have been analyzed, you will perform a set of tasks that is presented in two parts. You will be presented with a short text (2-3 paragraphs) and be requested to answer a set of questions. You will be expected to work individually for no more than 30 minutes. All tasks will be accessible through email and will be submitted through the same platform. A few weeks after the first part of the study, you will perform the second stage by answering some different, but related questions. Finally and after receiving all responses, you will be asked to complete a short exit survey.

Benefits: The potential benefit of participating in this study is to measure your growing awareness of basic theories and approaches in translation studies. Once you have completed your participation, by submitting all required tasks and surveys, you will be entitled to receive a gift of appreciation, such as a five-dollar Starbucks gift card or something similar. You will also be provided with a short report describing the results of this research, which may provide insights into your own understanding of the relationship between interest and learning.

Risks and Discomforts: There are no anticipated risks beyond those encountered in everyday life.

Privacy and Confidentiality: Your name, age, gender, level of education and experience will be collected. Your signed consent form will be kept separate from your study data, and responses/results will not be linked to you.

Voluntary Participation: Taking part in this research study is entirely voluntary. Participation in the project is in no way linked to your course participation or your grade in any course. You may
choose not to participate or you may discontinue your participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You will be informed of any new, relevant information that may affect your health, welfare, or willingness to continue your study participation.

**Contact Information:** If you have any questions or concerns about this research, you may contact Yazid Al-Ismail atyalismai@kent.edu. This project has been approved by the Kent State University Institutional Review Board. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant or complaints about the research, you may call ORC Director, Paulette Washko on 330-672-2704 or email atpwashko@kent.edu.

I have read this consent form and have had the opportunity to have my questions answered to my satisfaction. I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. I understand that a copy of this consent will be provided to me for future reference.

Participant Name: _______________________________

Participant Signature: __________________________

Date:____________________________
APPENDIX B

THE SURVEYS
(The Initial Survey for the Series of Tasks Conducted in Fall 2015)

The following survey will reflect your level of interest in the field of translation. Participating in this survey will not affect your grade/performance in the current course

Q1 Name?

Q2 What is your age?
- 18 to 24 (1)
- 25 to 34 (2)
- 35 to 44 (3)
- 45 to 54 (4)

Q3 What is your gender?
- Male (1)
- Female (2)

Q4 What is the highest level of education you have completed?
- Did not attend school (1)
- Graduated from high school (2)
- 1 year of college (3)
- 2 years of college (4)
- 3 years of college (5)
- Graduated from college (6)
- Some graduate school (7)
- Completed graduate school (8)

Q5 Do you have work experience?
- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q6 If yes, please indicate what type of work.
Q7 If yes for Q6, please select your years of experience.

- Less than 2 years (1)
- 2 to 4 years (2)
- 5 to 9 years (3)
- 10 to 14 years (4)
- 15 to 19 years (5)
- 20 years or more (6)

Q8 Can you see yourself working as a translator or in the translation industry after graduation?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip to the End of Survey

Q9 How would you rate your prior knowledge about translation? (Scale from 0 to 100)

______ Prior knowledge rating (1)

Q10 As an interpreter, please select your level of interest in the following types of interpreting:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Interpreting</th>
<th>No interest (0%) (1)</th>
<th>Low interest (10%) (2)</th>
<th>Fair interest (50%) (3)</th>
<th>High interest (100%) (4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simultaneous interpreting (1)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consecutive interpreting (2)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sight translation (3)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whispered interpreting (4)</td>
<td>☐</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Q11 As an interpreter, please select your level of interest in the following practices of interpreting:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>No interest (0%) (1)</th>
<th>Low interest (10%) (2)</th>
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Q12 As a translator, please select your level of interest in translating the following documents:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Document Type</th>
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</table>

Q13 Please select your level of interest in the following aspects and practices of translation:

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<td>Writing equivalent translations between the lines of text in another language</td>
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<td>Quickly examining a source language text and then reading it out loud, translating it fluently into the target language (5)</td>
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<td>Adapting a source text to make it easier to translate by removing culture-specific features (72)</td>
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monolingual texts)  
(13)  
Examining texts or your own writing for text cohesion and coherence (75)  
Exploring the relation between words and meaning in terms of mental processing (77)
Q14 As a reader, I constantly find myself interested in reading in subjects such as (Check all those that apply)

☐ Religion (21)
☐ Architecture (5)
☐ Art (6)
☐ Gastronomy (13)
☐ Biography (7)
☐ Linguistics (4)
☐ Journalism (8)
☐ Literature (28)
☐ Literature-children's (9)
☐ Literature-fiction (27)
☐ Literature-poetry (10)
☐ Literature-theory & criticism (11)
☐ Philosophy (11)
☐ Photography (12)
☐ Bibliography (125)
☐ Anatomy & physiology (49)
☐ Dentistry (50)
☐ Genetics (101)
☐ Health care (51)
☐ Nontraditional medicine (52)
☐ Nutrition (53)
☐ Pharmaceuticals (102)
☐ Psychiatry (54)
☐ Radiology (103)
☐ Toxicology (55)
☐ Veterinary medicine (104)
☐ Banking (79)
☐ Accounting & auditing (14)
☐ Advertising & public relations (15)
☐ Hotel management (80)
☐ Economics & finance (16)
☐ Labor relations (81)
☐ Insurance (17)
☐ Printing & publishing (82)
☐ Marketing (18)
☐ Real estate (19)
☐ Shipping & maritime (83)
☐ Stock market (20)
☐ Travel & tourism (84)
☐ Computer hardware (22)
☐ Software localization (85)
☐ Computer systems analysis (23)
☐ Aerospace engineering (25)
☐ Chemical engineering (26)
- Civil & hydraulic engineering (86)
- Electrical engineering (27)
- Industrial engineering (87)
- Mechanical engineering (28)
- Nuclear engineering (88)
- Petroleum engineering (29)
- Film (30)
- Multimedia (31)
- Music (89)
- Sports (32)
- Theater (33)
- Video game (90)
- Agriculture (35)
- Aquaculture & fishing (36)
- Automotive industry (91)
- Building & construction (37)
- Cosmetics (92)
- Electronics (38)
- Energy (93)
- Glass & ceramics (39)
- Machinery & tools (94)
- Military & weapons (40)
- Mining & minerals (95)
- Paper & pulp (41)
- Petroleum, natural gas, & coal (96)
- Plastics & rubber (42)
- Steel-making (97)
- Textiles & fashion (98)
- Telecommunications (43)
- Transportation (44)
- Banking & financial law (45)
- Contracts (46)
- Corporate law (99)
- Personal injury law (100)
- Patents, trademarks, & copyrights (47)
- Tax law (48)
- Biology (58)
- Botany (105)
- Biochemistry (57)
- Ecology & environmental science (59)
- Geophysics (112)
- Geology (60)
- Microbiology, bacteriology, & virology (61)
- Oceanography (62)
- Zoology & entomology (63)
- Astronomy (64)
- Materials Science (113)
- Chemistry (65)
- Metallurgy (114)
- Mathematics & statistics (66)
- Physics (115)
- Physical sciences (67)
- Anthropology (69)
- Archeology (70)
- Behavioral science (24)
- Criminology & penology (71)
- Demography (116)
- Education (72)
- Genealogy (117)
- Geography & cartography (73)
- History (118)
- Immigration (74)
- Information & library sciences (119)
- International development (75)
- Psychology (76)
- Sociology (56)
- Political science (34)
- Other (124) ____________________
Q15 In my free time I do activities such as: (Check all those that apply)

- Going to the cinema (4)
- Watching TV (5)
- Spending time with family (6)
- Going out with friends (7)
- Surfing the Internet (8)
- Playing video games (9)
- Playing a musical instrument (10)
- Listening to music (11)
- Reading (12)
- Writing (13)
- Going to the park (14)
- Going to cultural locations and events (15)
- Going shopping (16)
- Cooking (17)
- Learning something new (18)
- Gardening (19)
- Exercising and play a sport (20)
- Other (3) ____________________

Q16 Additional comments you would like to make:
(The Exit Survey for the Series of Tasks Conducted in Fall 2015)

The following survey will reflect your level of interest in the field of translation. Participating in this survey will not affect your grade/performance in the current course.

Please provide your name

Q1 What is your age?
- 18 to 24 (1)
- 25 to 34 (2)
- 35 to 44 (3)
- 45 to 54 (4)

Q2 What is your gender?
- Male (1)
- Female (2)

Q3 What is the highest level of education you have completed?
- Did not attend school (1)
- Graduated from high school (2)
- 1 year of college (3)
- 2 years of college (4)
- 3 years of college (5)
- Graduated from college (6)
- Some graduate school (7)
- Completed graduate school (8)

Q4 Do you have work experience?
- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q5 If yes, please indicate what type of work.
Q6 If yes for Q6, please select your years of experience.

- Less than 2 years (1)
- 2 to 4 years (2)
- 5 to 9 years (3)
- 10 to 14 years (4)
- 15 to 19 years (5)
- 20 years or more (6)

Q7 Can you see yourself working as a translator or in the translation industry after graduation?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q8 How would you rate your prior knowledge about translation? (Scale from 0 to 100)

_____ Prior knowledge rating (1)

Q9 As an interpreter, please select your level of interest in the following types of interpreting:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Interpreting</th>
<th>No interest (0%) (1)</th>
<th>Low interest (10%) (2)</th>
<th>Fair interest (50%) (3)</th>
<th>High interest (100%) (4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simultaneous interpreting (1)</td>
<td>○</td>
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<tr>
<td>Consecutive interpreting (2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sight translation (3)</td>
<td>○</td>
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<td>○</td>
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<tr>
<td>Whispered interpreting (4)</td>
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</table>
Q10 As an interpreter, please select your level of interest in the following practices of interpreting:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Interpreting in medical environments (Medical interpreting) (1)</td>
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Q11 As a translator, please select your level of interest for translating the following documents:

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<tr>
<th>Document Type</th>
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Q12 Please select your level of interest for the following aspects and practices of translation:

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</table>

166
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Producing a summary in the target language (4)</td>
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Q13 As a reader, I constantly find myself interested in reading in subjects such as (Check all those that apply)

- Religion (21)
- Architecture (5)
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- Sports (32)
- Theater (33)
- Video game (90)
- Agriculture (35)
- Aquaculture & fishing (36)
- Automotive industry (91)
- Building & construction (37)
- Cosmetics (92)
- Electronics (38)
- Energy (93)
- Glass & ceramics (39)
- Machinery & tools (94)
- Military & weapons (40)
- Mining & minerals (95)
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- Plastics & rubber (42)
- Steel-making (97)
- Textiles & fashion (98)
- Telecommunications (43)
- Transportation (44)
- Banking & financial law (45)
- Contracts (46)
- Corporate law (99)
- Personal injury law (100)
- Patents, trademarks, & copyrights (47)
- Tax law (48)
- Biology (58)
- Botany (105)
- Biochemistry (57)
- Ecology & environmental science (59)
- Geophysics (112)
- Geology (60)
- Microbiology, bacteriology, & virology (61)
- Oceanography (62)
- Zoology & entomology (63)
- Astronomy (64)
- Materials Science (113)
- Chemistry (65)
- Metallurgy (114)
- Mathematics & statistics (66)
- Physics (115)
- Physical sciences (67)
- Anthropology (69)
- Archeology (70)
- Behavioral science (24)
- Criminology & penology (71)
- Demography (116)
- Education (72)
- Genealogy (117)
- Geography & cartography (73)
- History (118)
- Immigration (74)
- Information & library sciences (119)
- International development (75)
- Psychology (76)
- Sociology (56)
- Political science (34)
- Other (124) ..........................
Q14 In my free time I do activities such as: (Check all those that apply)

- Going to the cinema (4)
- Watching TV (5)
- Spending time with family (6)
- Going out with friends (7)
- Surfing the Internet (8)
- Playing video games (9)
- Playing a musical instrument (10)
- Listening to music (11)
- Reading (12)
- Writing (13)
- Going to the park (14)
- Going to cultural locations and events (15)
- Going shopping (16)
- Cooking (17)
- Learning something new (18)
- Gardening (19)
- Exercising and play a sport (20)
- Other (3) ____________

Q15 Please select the most appealing ways for you to develop your current areas of interest

- Attending traditional classes (1)
- Attending online courses (2)
- Free/general reading (3)
- Doing activities like shadowing a professional person/internships (4)
- Volunteer work (7)
- Attending conferences (9)
- Attending professional workshops and seminars (8)
- Other (6) ____________

Q16 If you are to engage in online learning for the purpose of developing your knowledge in one of your interest areas, which of the following platforms would you be most likely to choose?

- Online courses from well-known schools (like Harvard, MIT, Yale, etc. "Certificates offered") (1)
- Online courses from private institutions (i.e. Universal Class Inc. "Certificates offered") (2)
- Watching educational YouTube videos (No certificates offered) (3)
- All of the above (4)
- Other (5) ____________
Q17 How likely are you to use your smartphone to access your online training platform (websites, apps, etc.) for the development of your interest?

- 0% Extremely unlikely (15)
- 10% Unlikely (16)
- 50% Neutral (17)
- 90% Likely (18)
- 100% Extremely likely (19)

Q18 How likely are you to use your personal laptop to access your online training platform for the development of your interest?

- 0% Extremely unlikely (15)
- 10% Unlikely (16)
- 50% Neutral (17)
- 90% Likely (18)
- 100% Extremely likely (19)

Q19 How likely are you to use your school library facilities for learning and accessing your online training platform for the development of your interest?

- 0% Extremely unlikely (2)
- 10% Unlikely (3)
- 50% Neutral (4)
- 90% Likely (5)
- 100% Extremely likely (6)

Q20 Additional comments you would like to make:
(The Initial Survey for the Series of Tasks Conducted in Fall 2016)

The following survey will reflect your level of interest in the field of translation. Participating in this survey will not affect your grade/performance in the current course.

Q1 Name?

Q2 Your KSU email address?

Q3 What is your age?
   ☐ 18 to 24 (1)
   ☐ 25 to 34 (2)
   ☐ 35 to 44 (3)
   ☐ 45 to 54 (4)

Q4 What is your gender?
   ☐ Male (1)
   ☐ Female (2)

Q5 What is the highest level of education you have completed?
   ☐ Did not attend school (1)
   ☐ Graduated from high school (2)
   ☐ 1 year of college (3)
   ☐ 2 years of college (4)
   ☐ 3 years of college (5)
   ☐ Graduated from college (6)
   ☐ Some graduate school (7)
   ☐ Completed graduate school (8)

Q6 Do you have work experience?
   ☐ Yes (1)
   ☐ No (2)
Q7 If yes, please indicate what type of work.

Q8 If yes for Q6, please select your years of experience.

- Less than 2 years (1)
- 2 to 4 years (2)
- 5 to 9 years (3)
- 10 to 14 years (4)
- 15 to 19 years (5)
- 20 years or more (6)

Q9 Can you see yourself working as a translator or in the translation industry after graduation?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip to the End of Survey
Q10 How would you rate your prior knowledge about translation? (Scale from 0 to 100)

_______ Prior knowledge rating (1)

Q11 As an interpreter, please select your level of interest for the following types of interpreting:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No interest (0%) (1)</th>
<th>Low interest (10%) (2)</th>
<th>Fair interest (50%) (3)</th>
<th>High interest (100%) (4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simultaneous interpreting (1)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consecutive interpreting (2)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sight translation (3)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whispered interpreting (4)</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

176
Q12 As an interpreter, please select your level of interest for the following practices of interpreting:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>No interest (0%)</th>
<th>Low interest (10%)</th>
<th>Fair interest (50%)</th>
<th>High interest (100%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting in medical environments (Medical interpreting) (1)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting for global business companies (Business/technical interpreting) (3)</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting in courtrooms and in out-of-court settings (Judicial interpreting) (8)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting for parents in school and community related settings (Community interpreting) (9)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting in political settings (Political interpreting) (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting in tourism settings (Tourism interpreting) (10)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q13 As a translator, please select your level of interest for translating the following documents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document Type</th>
<th>No interest (0%)</th>
<th>Low interest (10%)</th>
<th>Fair interest (50%)</th>
<th>High interest (100%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legal documents</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poetry</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exciting short stories</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novels</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machine instructions</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scientific articles</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical reports</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial statements</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical articles</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Patents</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Museum catalogs</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic articles</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious texts</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q14 Please select your level of interest for the following aspects and practices of translation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>No interest (0%)</th>
<th>Low interest (10%)</th>
<th>Fair interest (50%)</th>
<th>High interest (100%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing equivalent translations between the lines of text in another language</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translating very close to word-for-word retaining the form of a document</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translating freely to create a text that sounds as if it had been written in the target language</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading a text in the source language and</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task</td>
<td>Score 1</td>
<td>Score 2</td>
<td>Score 3</td>
<td>Score 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Producing a summary in the target language (4)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quickly examining a source language text and then reading it out loud, translating it fluently into the target language (5)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewording a text in either language to make it easier to understand (70)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapting a text by changing it significantly in order to make it work in a target culture (7)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working with software that mocks up a target text without really translating it but showing the format and size of the target text (71)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapting a source text to make it easier to translate by removing culture-specific features (72)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translating computer software and adapting it for the target culture (10)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working seriously with machine translation (73)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using computer aids for translation, such as translation memory, terminology management, or text alignment tools (74)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Editing texts (translations or</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monolingual texts)</td>
<td>(13)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>---</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examining texts or your own writing for text cohesion and coherence (75)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploring the relation between words and meaning in terms of mental processing (77)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q15 As a reader, I constantly find myself interested in reading in subjects such as: (Check all those that apply)

- Religion (21)
- Architecture (5)
- Art (6)
- Gastronomy (13)
- Biography (7)
- Linguistics (4)
- Journalism (8)
- Literature - children's (9)
- Literature-fiction (10)
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- Other (124)
Q16 In my free time I do activities such as: (Check all those that apply)

- Going to the cinema (4)
- Watching TV (5)
- Spending time with family (6)
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- Going to cultural locations and events (15)
- Going shopping (16)
- Cooking (17)
- Learning something new (18)
- Gardening (19)
- Exercising and play a sport (20)
- Other (3) ____________________

Q17 Additional comment you would like to make:
The Exit Survey for the Series of Tasks Conducted in Fall 2016

The following survey will reflect your level of interest in the field of translation. Participating in this survey will not affect your grade/performance in the current course.

Please provide your name.

Q1 What is your age?
- 18 to 24 (1)
- 25 to 34 (2)
- 35 to 44 (3)
- 45 to 54 (4)

Q2 What is your gender?
- Male (1)
- Female (2)

Q3 What is the highest level of education you have completed?
- Did not attend school (1)
- Graduated from high school (2)
- 1 year of college (3)
- 2 years of college (4)
- 3 years of college (5)
- Graduated from college (6)
- Some graduate school (7)
- Completed graduate school (8)

Q4 Do you have work experience?
- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q5 If yes, please indicate what type of work.
Q6 If yes for Q6, please select your years of experience.

☐ Less than 2 years (1)
☐ 2 to 4 years (2)
☐ 5 to 9 years (3)
☐ 10 to 14 years (4)
☐ 15 to 19 years (5)
☐ 20 years or more (6)

Q7 Can you see yourself working as a translator or in the translation industry after graduation?

☐ Yes (1)
☐ No (2)

Q8 How would you rate your prior knowledge about translation? (Scale from 0 to 100)

_____ Prior knowledge rating (1)

Q9 As an interpreter, please select your level of interest for the following types of interpreting:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpretation Type</th>
<th>No interest (0%) (1)</th>
<th>Low interest (10%) (2)</th>
<th>Fair interest (50%) (3)</th>
<th>High interest (100%) (4)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simultaneous interpreting (1)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>Consecutive interpreting (2)</td>
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<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sight translation (3)</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whispered interpreting (4)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q10 As an interpreter, please select your level of interest for the following practices of interpreting:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>No interest (0%) (1)</th>
<th>Low interest (10%) (2)</th>
<th>Fair interest (50%) (3)</th>
<th>High interest (100%) (4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Interpreting in medical environments (Medical interpreting) (1)</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting in courtrooms and in out-of-court settings (Judicial interpreting) (8)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting for parents in school and community related settings (Community interpreting) (9)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Interpreting in political settings (Political interpreting) (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting in tourism settings (Tourism interpreting) (10)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q11 As a translator, please select your level of interest for translating the following documents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document Type</th>
<th>No interest (0%) (1)</th>
<th>Low interest (10%) (2)</th>
<th>Fair interest (50%) (3)</th>
<th>High interest (100%) (4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legal documents (4)</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poetry (5)</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exciting short stories (6)</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novels (3)</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machine instructions (7)</td>
<td>◯</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scientific articles (8)</td>
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<td>◯</td>
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<td>Medical reports (9)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Financial statements (10)</td>
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<td>Technical articles (11)</td>
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<td>Patents (12)</td>
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<td>◯</td>
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<tr>
<td>Museum catalogs (13)</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
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<tr>
<td>Academic articles (15)</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
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<tr>
<td>Religious texts (16)</td>
<td>◯</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Q12 Please select your level of interest for the following aspects and practices of translation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice Description</th>
<th>No interest (0%) (1)</th>
<th>Low interest (10%) (2)</th>
<th>Fair interest (50%) (3)</th>
<th>High interest (100%) (4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing equivalent translations between the lines of text in another language (68)</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
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<tr>
<td>Translating very close to word-for-word retaining the form of a document (2)</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
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<tr>
<td>Translating freely to create a text that sounds as if it had been written in the target language (69)</td>
<td>◯</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading a text in the source language and</td>
<td>◯</td>
<td>◯</td>
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<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Cell 1</td>
<td>Cell 2</td>
<td>Cell 3</td>
<td>Cell 4</td>
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<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Producing a summary in the target language (4)</td>
<td>⬜️</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Quickly examining a source language text and then reading it out loud,</td>
<td>⬜️</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>translating it fluently into the target language (5)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rewording a text in either language to make it easier to understand (70)</td>
<td>⬜️</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Adapting a text by changing it significantly in order to make it work</td>
<td>⬜️</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>in a target culture (7)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Working with software that mocks up a target text without really</td>
<td>⬜️</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>translating it but showing the format and size of the target text (71)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Adapting a source text to make it easier to translate by removing</td>
<td>⬜️</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>culture-specific features (72)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Translating computer software and adapting it for the target culture</td>
<td>⬜️</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(10)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Working seriously with machine translation (73)</td>
<td>⬜️</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Using computer aids for translation, such as translation memory,</td>
<td>⬜️</td>
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<tr>
<td>terminology management, or text alignment tools (74)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Editing texts (translations or</td>
<td>⬜️</td>
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<tr>
<td>monolingual texts</td>
<td>(13)</td>
<td>Examining texts or your own writing for text cohesion and coherence (75)</td>
<td>Exploring the relation between words and meaning in terms of mental processing (77)</td>
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</table>
Q13 As a reader, I constantly find myself interested in reading in subjects such as: (Check all those that apply)

- Religion (21)
- Architecture (5)
- Art (6)
- Gastronomy (13)
- Biography (7)
- Linguistics (4)
- Journalism (8)
- Literature (Literature-children's (9))
- Literature-fiction (Literature-poetry (10))
- Literature-theory & criticism (Philosophy (11))
- Photography (12)
- Bibliography (125)
- Anatomy & physiology (49)
- Dentistry (50)
- Genetics (101)
- Health care (51)
- Nontraditional medicine (52)
- Nutrition (53)
- Pharmaceuticals (102)
- Psychiatry (54)
- Radiology (103)
- Toxicology (55)
- Veterinary medicine (104)
- Banking (79)
- Accounting & auditing (14)
- Advertising & public relations (15)
- Hotel management (80)
- Economics & finance (16)
- Labor relations (81)
- Insurance (17)
- Printing & publishing (82)
- Marketing (18)
- Real estate (19)
- Shipping & maritime (83)
- Stock market (20)
- Travel & tourism (84)
- Computer hardware (22)
- Software localization (85)
- Computer systems analysis (23)
- Aerospace engineering (25)
- Chemical engineering (26)
- Civil & hydraulic engineering (86)
- Electrical engineering (27)
- Industrial engineering (87)
- Mechanical engineering (28)
- Nuclear engineering (88)
- Petroleum engineering (29)
- Film (30)
- Multimedia (31)
- Music (89)
- Sports (32)
- Theater (33)
- Video game (90)
- Agriculture (35)
- Aquaculture & fishing (36)
- Automotive industry (91)
- Building & construction (37)
- Cosmetics (92)
- Electronics (38)
- Energy (93)
- Glass & ceramics (39)
- Machinery & tools (94)
- Military & weapons (40)
- Mining & minerals (95)
- Paper & pulp (41)
- Petroleum, natural gas, & coal (96)
- Plastics & rubber (42)
- Steel-making (97)
- Textiles & fashion (98)
- Telecommunications (43)
- Transportation (44)
- Banking & financial law (45)
- Contracts (46)
- Corporate law (99)
- Personal injury law (100)
- Patents, trademarks, & copyrights (47)
- Tax law (48)
- Biology (58)
- Botany (105)
- Biochemistry (57)
- Ecology & environmental science (59)
- Geophysics (112)
- Geology (60)
- Microbiology, bacteriology, & virology (61)
- Oceanography (62)
- Zoology & entomology (63)
- Astronomy (64)
- Materials Science (113)
- Chemistry (65)
- Metallurgy (114)
- Mathematics & statistics (66)
- Physics (115)
- Physical sciences (67)
- Anthropology (69)
- Archeology (70)
- Behavioral science (24)
- Criminology & penology (71)
- Demography (116)
- Education (72)
- Genealogy (117)
- Geography & cartography (73)
- History (118)
- Immigration (74)
- Information & library sciences (119)
- International development (75)
- Psychology (76)
- Sociology (56)
- Political science (34)
- Other (124) ________________
Q14 In my free time I do activities such as: (Check all those that apply)

- Going to the cinema (4)
- Watching TV (5)
- Spending time with family (6)
- Going out with friends (7)
- Surfing the Internet (8)
- Playing video games (9)
- Playing a musical instrument (10)
- Listening to music (11)
- Reading (12)
- Writing (13)
- Going to the park (14)
- Going to cultural locations and events (15)
- Going shopping (16)
- Cooking (17)
- Learning something new (18)
- Gardening (19)
- Exercising and play a sport (20)
- Other (3) ____________________

Q15 Please select the most appealing ways for you to develop your current areas of interest.

- Attending traditional classes (1)
- Attending online courses (2)
- Free/general reading (3)
- Doing activities like shadowing a professional person/internships (4)
- Volunteer work (7)
- Attending conferences (9)
- Attending professional workshops and seminars (8)
- Other (6) ____________________

Q16 If you are to engage in online learning for the purpose of developing your knowledge in one of your interest areas, which of the following platform you'd be most likely to choose?

- Online courses from well-known schools (like Harvard, MIT, Yale, etc. "Certificates offered") (1)
- Online courses from private institutions (i.e. Universal Class Inc. "Certificates offered") (2)
- Watching educational YouTube videos (No certificates offered) (3)
- All of the above (4)
- Other (5) ____________________
Q17 How likely are you to use your smartphone to access your online training platform (websites, apps, etc.) for the development of your interest?

- 0% Extremely unlikely (15)
- 10% Unlikely (16)
- 50% Neutral (17)
- 90% Likely (18)
- 100% Extremely likely (19)

Q18 How likely are you to use your personal laptop to access your online training platform for the development of your interest?

- 0% Extremely unlikely (15)
- 10% Unlikely (16)
- 50% Neutral (17)
- 90% Likely (18)
- 100% Extremely likely (19)

Q19 How likely are you to use your school library facilities for learning and accessing your online training platform for the development of your interest?

- 0% Extremely unlikely (2)
- 10% Unlikely (3)
- 50% Neutral (4)
- 90% Likely (5)
- 100% Extremely likely (6)

Q20 Additional comments you would like to make:
APPENDIX C

RUBRIC FOR GRADING PRETEST AND POSTTEST TASKS

COMPREHENSION AND RECALL TASKS
Rubric for Grading Pretest and Posttest Tasks

Reading comprehension tasks

Each of the first six multiple choice questions are worth one point. The last question is worth 4 points. A full score is 10 out of 10.

Recall tasks

Recall tasks are divided into two parts. The first part is for HIGH INTEREST test and the second part is for LOW INTEREST text. Each part has the same number of questions, three question. The last question is an essay question that is not included in the grading of these specific tasks. The first question is worth one point. Question 2 and 3 are worth three points (each idea unit is worth one point). A full score is 7 out of 7.
Adaptation

What is your name?

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

When communicating a message to a listener or reader whose mother tongue is not the same as our own, especially when that person does not even understand the language, we must use different ways or methods to get the message across as clearly as possible. While we can use gestures, signs, or noises in order to make ourselves understood, when communicating something written, we must turn to translators. One of the tools used in translation is adaptation. It is used in many cases, as cultural differences between different speakers can cause confusion that can sometimes be tricky to understand or simply prevent us from understanding each other. Adaptation is not to be confused with localization, however, which is used when the target audience speaks a different variant of the same language, such as in the case of Latin America. When adapting a message, we are not translating it literally. This does not mean, however, that when adapting a message or idea we are being unfaithful to the original message, or that we are not doing our job well (translating). Simply, there are situations in which it is required. British scholar Peter Newmark defines adaptation, taken from Vinay and Darbelnet, as, “The use of a recognized equivalent between two situations. It is a process of cultural equivalence: Dear Sir/Muy señor mío; Yours faithfully/Le saluda atentamente”. Adaptations, also known as “Free Translations” are when the translator substitutes cultural realities or scenarios for which there is no reference in the target language. Adaptations are equivalents, and can be seen more clearly in the translations of TV shows or movies, where conversations or cultural references must be adapted for foreign audiences. When comparing translation and adaptation, we are comparing two ways of communicating a message. In many cases it is impossible to translate a text without making an adaptation, as a “literal” translation of the message would cause a loss of all or part of the meaning for the target audience. It is important to know when to adapt a message when an expression might have a more appropriate equivalent for a given situation. This makes us better translation professionals. In other words, differences between translation and adaptation can be summarized as follows: 1. To convert vs to suit: Translation is the process of converting words or text from one language into another; in other words, a translation is a process of using the exact equivalent word in another language. An adaptation is the action or process of adapting or being adapted. In other words, it is a change or the process of change by which an element finds a way to suit to its target environment. Hence, adaptation proposes solutions to reinforce the essence while communicating in another language. 2. Textual context vs audience context: Translation allows communication in other languages and takes account of the textual context by
choosing the right word in case of homonymous words or ambiguous phrases. Adaptation preserves or even improves the quality of the text in the target language as it goes beyond the context of the text; it focuses on how the audience will read and what will the audience want to read.

3. Convenience vs Strategies: Translation aims at communicating and informing conveniently the audience in another language, whereas adaptation serves to communicate and inform strategically the audience by taking into account their beliefs, behavior and preferences.

4. Efficiency vs Effectiveness: If your goal is to get the message out quickly and to inform without necessarily engaging the audience, translation is an efficient mean of communication. However, if your purpose is to engage your audience, your message should be effective containing a strategy. Effectiveness is not only assessed on the ease of understanding the message, but also on the impact following reading the text, such as responses to a call-to-action for instance.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Dynamic Equivalence (1)
- Adaptation (2)
- CAT tools (3)

Q2 Adaptation is one of the tools used in:
- Translating texts from one language into another (1)
- Analyzing texts in different languages (2)
- Revising translations of texts in different languages (3)

Q3 Adapting a message means:
- Translating it literally (1)
- Translating it word-for-word (2)
- Translating it to achieve cultural equivalence (3)

Q4 Adaptations is known as:
- Functional translations (1)
- Free translations (2)
- Formal translations (3)
Q5 Adaptations can be seen clearly in the translations of TV shows or movies.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 Adaptation is significantly concerned with the literal meaning of the message to be conveyed.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Translation (1)
- Localization (2)
- Free translation (3)
- Machine translation (4)
- Audience context (5)
- CAT tools (6)
- Cultural equivalence (7)
- Contrastive linguistics (8)
- Literary criticism (9)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "adaptation" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
CAT Tools

What is your name?

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

Computer-assisted translation, computer-aided translation or CAT is a form of language translation in which a human translator uses computer software to support and facilitate the translation process. Computer-assisted translation is sometimes called machine-assisted, or machine-aided, translation (not to be confused with machine translation). The automatic machine translation systems available today are not able to produce high-quality translations unaided: their output must be edited by a human to correct errors and improve the quality of translation. Computer-assisted translation (CAT) incorporates that manual editing stage into the software, making translation an interactive process between human and computer. Some advanced computer-assisted translation solutions include controlled machine translation (MT). Higher priced MT modules generally provide a more complex set of tools available to the translator, which may include terminology management features and various other linguistic tools and utilities. Carefully customized user dictionaries based on correct terminology significantly improve the accuracy of MT, and as a result, aim at increasing the efficiency of the entire translation process. Translation memory programs store previously translated source texts and their equivalent target texts in a database and retrieve related segments during the translation of new texts. Such programs split the source text into manageable units known as "segments". A source-text sentence or sentence-like unit (headings, titles or elements in a list) may be considered a segment, or texts may be segmented into larger units such as paragraphs or smaller ones, such as clauses. As the translator works through a document, the software displays each source segment in turn and provides a previous translation for re-use, if the program finds a matching source segment in its database. If it does not, the program allows the translator to enter a translation for the new segment. After the translation for a segment is completed, the program stores the new translation and moves on to the next segment. New to the translation industry, language search-engine software is typically an Internet-based system that works similarly to Internet search engines. Rather than searching the Internet, however, a language search engine searches a large repository of Translation Memories to find previously translated sentence fragments, phrases, whole sentences, even complete paragraphs that match source document segments. Language search engines are designed to leverage modern search technology to conduct searches based on the source words in context to ensure that the search results match the meaning of the source segments. Like traditional TM tools, the value of a language search engine rests heavily on the Translation Memory repository it searches against. Terminology management software provides the translator a means of automatically searching a given terminology database for terms appearing in a document, either by automatically displaying terms in the translation memory software interface window or through the use of hot keys to...
view the entry in the terminology database. Some programs have other hotkey combinations allowing the translator to add new terminology pairs to the terminology database on the fly during translation. Some of the more advanced systems enable translators to check, either interactively or in batch mode, if the correct source/target term combination has been used within and across the translation memory segments in a given project. Independent terminology management systems also exist that can provide workflow functionality, visual taxonomy, work as a type of term checker (similar to spell checker, terms that have not been used correctly are flagged) and can support other types of multilingual term facet classifications such as pictures, videos, or sound. Alignment programs take completed translations, divide both source and target texts into segments, and attempt to determine which segments belong together in order to build a translation memory or other reference resource with the content. Many alignment programs allow translators to manually realign mismatched segments. The resulting bitext alignment can then be imported into a translation memory program for future translations or used as a reference document. Interactive machine translation is an approach in which the automatic system attempts to predict the translation the human translator is going to produce by suggesting translation hypotheses. These hypotheses may either be the complete sentence, or the part of the sentence that is yet to be translated. Crowd-assisted/sourced translation refers to employing large numbers of bilingual human translators who collaborate via social media. When Facebook needed to translate a large body of existing English language text on its graphical user interfaces, the company made use of the voluntary help of its already-existing bilingual user base, organized by Yishan Wong.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Machine tools (1)
- Computer-assisted translation tools (2)
- Applied linguistics tools (3)

Q2 Computer-assisted translation is a form of translation in which:
- A human translator uses computer software to publish translations (1)
- A human translator uses computer software to support and facilitate the translation process (2)
- A machine that translates texts from one language into another (3)

Q3 Translation memory programs store:
- Previously translated source texts and their equivalent target texts (1)
- Target texts and term bases (2)
- Previously translated source texts and related dictionaries (3)
Q4 Which of the following tools is not considered a CAT tool?

- Translation memory (1)
- Terminology management software (2)
- Online translation service provider (3)

Q5 Employing large numbers of bilingual human translators who collaborate via social media is known as:

- Interactive translation (1)
- Crowd-assisted/sourced translation (2)
- Communicative translation (3)

Q6 Alignment programs take completed translations, divide both source and target texts into segments, and attempt to determine which segments belong together to build a translation memory.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Terminology management software provides the translator a means of manually searching a given terminology database for terms appearing in a document.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q8 Choose the terms that have "No" relation to the current passage:

- Terminology management (1)
- Machine translation (2)
- Interpreting (3)
- Translation memory (4)
- Computer-aided translation (5)
- Equivalence (6)
- Computer-assisted translation (7)

Q9 In your own words, do you think learning about "CAT tools" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
Please provide your name.

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

Peter Newmark is a renowned British translation theorist and translation educator. He divided translation into “communicative and semantic translation”. His work *Approaches to Translation*, which was first published in 1981, discussed different translation methods to reach the goal of “equivalence”, and provided new ideas and approaches for translation practices. According to his communicative translation theory, translation is a kind of communication process, and translators should convert the source language (SL) culture into the target language (TL) culture as much as they can. During this transplanting process of texts from one culture to another, the translators should try to make the TL readers understand the SL author’s thoughts, and make both the TL and SL readers share common ideas about the text. Genres that usually use the communicative translation method are news. In theory, communicative translation addresses itself solely to the second reader who does not anticipate difficulties or obscurities, and would expect a generous transfer of foreign elements into his/her own culture as well as his/her language where necessary. Communicative translation is likely to be smoother, simpler, clearer, more direct, more conventional, conforming to a particular register of language and tending to under translate.

Basically, communicative translation emphasize a shift in messages. This method pays attention to the reader or listener of the TL in the hope that there are no difficulties or a lack of clarity in the text of the TL and the effectiveness of TL. Dynamic and formal equivalence: Dynamic equivalence and formal equivalence are differing methods of translation coined by Eugene Nida. The two terms have often been understood as fundamentally the same as sense-for-sense translation (translating the meanings of phrases or whole sentences) and word-for-word translation (translating the meanings of individual words in their more or less exact syntactic sequence), respectively, and Nida himself often seemed to use them this way. However, his original definition of dynamic equivalence was rhetorical: the idea was that the translator should translate so that the effect of the translation on the target reader is roughly the same as the effect of the source text once had on the source reader. The terms "dynamic equivalence" and "formal equivalence" were originally coined to describe ways of translating the Bible, but the two approaches are applicable to any translation of any text. Formal equivalence tends to emphasize fidelity to the lexical details and grammatical structure of the original language which yields a translation that is more literal in nature. Dynamic equivalence, by contrast, tends to favor a more natural rendering; for instance, when the readability of the translation is more important than the preservation of the original grammatical structure. In diplomacy or in some business settings people may insist on formal equivalence because they believe that fidelity to the grammatical structure of the language equals greater accuracy, whereas in literature a novel might be translated with greater use of dynamic equivalence so that it may read well. According to Nida,
dynamic equivalence is the "quality of a translation in which the message of the original text has been so transported into the receptor language that the response of the receptor is essentially like that of the original receptors". Nida tended to use the term so that "the response of the receptor" was mostly semantic—the target reader took the meaning of the text to be such that the source reader would have taken the source text to mean the same thing—which led to critical accusations that this was just sense-for-sense translation in a new guise. However, if "response" is taken in its full meaning, dynamic equivalence could include not only what Aristotle (in *The Rhetoric*) calls logos (meaning and structure) but also ethos (the reader's assumption about the text's authority) and pathos (how the reader feels about the text). In later years, Nida distanced himself from the term "dynamic equivalence" and preferred the term "functional equivalence". The term "functional equivalence" suggests not just that the equivalence is between the function of the source text in the source culture and the function of the target text (translation) in the target culture, but that "function" can be thought of as a property of the text. It is possible to associate functional equivalence with how people interact in cultures.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Communicative/semantic translation and dynamic/formal equivalence (1)
- Functional correspondence and formal translation (2)
- Pragmatic equivalence and dynamic translation (3)

Q2 One of Newmark's major goals through developing his translation approaches is to achieve:
- Adequacy (1)
- Equivalence (2)
- Literal meaning (3)

Q3 Dynamic and Formal equivalence are closely related to:
- Scene and frame meaning (1)
- Sense-for-sense and word-for-word translation (2)
- Idiomatic and literal translation (3)

Q4 Dynamic equivalence to a certain extent is concerned with:
- The effect of the target texts on their readers (1)
- The effect of the source texts on their readers (2)
- The effect of the target culture on the target text (3)
Q5 The terms "dynamic equivalence" and "formal equivalence" were originally coined to describe ways of translating scientific and scholarly articles.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 Functional equivalence is another approach proposed by Peter Newmark.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the current passage:

- Equivalence (1)
- Interpreting (2)
- Localization (3)
- Response (4)
- Effect (5)
- Fidelity (6)
- Theoretical linguistics (7)
- Machine translation (8)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about these translation approaches may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
Frame Semantics

What is your name?

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

Frame semantics is a theory of linguistic meaning developed by Charles J. Fillmore that extends his earlier case grammar. It relates linguistic semantics to encyclopedic knowledge (The concept of encyclopedic knowledge was once attributed to exceptionally well-read or knowledgeable persons). The basic idea is that one cannot understand the meaning of a single word without access to all the essential knowledge that relates to that word. For example, one would not be able to understand the word "sell" without knowing anything about the situation of commercial transfer, which also involves, among other things, a seller, a buyer, goods, money, the relationship between the money and the goods, the relations between the seller and the goods and the money, the relations between the buyer and the goods and the money and so on. Thus, a word activates, or evokes, a frame of semantic knowledge relating to the specific concept it refers to (or highlights, in frame semantic terminology). Frame Semantics and its practical application assert that in order to truly understand the meanings of words in a language, one must first have knowledge of the semantic frames or conceptual structures that underlie their usage. A semantic frame is a collection of facts that specify "characteristic features, attributes, and functions of an object, and its characteristic interactions with things necessarily or typically associated with it". A semantic frame can also be defined as a coherent structure of related concepts such that without knowledge of all of them, one does not have complete knowledge of any one; they are in that sense types of gestalt (a theory of mind of the Berlin School of experimental psychology. Gestalt psychology tries to understand the laws of our ability to acquire and maintain meaningful perceptions in an apparently chaotic world). Frames are based on recurring experiences. So the commercial transaction frame is based on recurring experiences of commercial transactions. Words not only highlight individual concepts, but also specify a certain perspective from which the frame is viewed. For example "sell" views the situation from the perspective of the seller and "buy" from the perspective of the buyer. This, according to Fillmore, explains the observed asymmetries in many lexical relations. While originally only being applied to lexemes, frame semantics has now been expanded to grammatical constructions and other larger and more complex linguistic units and has more or less been integrated into construction grammar as the main semantic principle. Semantic frames are also becoming used in information modeling, for example in Gellish, especially in the form of 'definition models' and 'knowledge models'.
Q1 What is this passage about?
- Cognitive linguistics (1)
- Frame terminology (2)
- Frame semantics (3)

Q2 Frame semantics is a theory of:
- Translation (1)
- Linguistics (2)
- Localization (3)

Q3 Frame Semantics asserts that in order to understand the meanings of words in a language, one must first have knowledge of:
- the semantic frames or conceptual structures that underlie their usage (1)
- the pragmatic structures that underlie their usage (2)
- the morphological structures that underlie their usage (3)

Q4 Frame Semantics is a theory of linguistic meaning developed by:
- Charles Dickens (1)
- Charles J. Fillmore (2)
- Pamela Faber (3)

Q5 A word can activate, or evoke, a frame of semantic knowledge relating to the specific concept it refers to.
- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 A semantic frame can also be defined as a coherent structure of related terms.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q7 Choose the terms that have no relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Semantics (1)
- Meaning (2)
- Encyclopedic knowledge (3)
- Gestalt psychology (4)
- Engineering (5)
- Computational linguistics (6)
- Semantic relations (7)
- Perception (8)
- Localization (9)
- Internationalization (10)
- Dynamic equivalence (11)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "frame semantics" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
Literal translation

What is your name?

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

In the translation process, there are some helpful techniques that can eventually help the linguist solve the issue of creating the most accurate translation of a text. Literal and free translations are the two general choices in translation; although both are different methods in translation, they can both be effective in translating a text into another language. Literal translation, direct translation, or word-for-word translation is the rendering of text from one language to another one word at a time (Latin: "verbum pro verbo") with or without conveying the sense of the original whole. In translation studies, "literal translation" denotes technical translation of scientific, technical, technological or legal texts. In translation theory, another term for "literal translation" is "metaphrase"; and for phrasal ("sense") translation—"paraphrase". The concept of literal translation may be viewed as an oxymoron (contradiction in terms), given that literal denotes something existing without interpretation, whereas a translation, by its very nature, is an interpretation (an interpretation of the meaning of words from one language into another). The term "literal translation" often appeared in the titles of 19th-century English translations of classical, Biblical and other texts. Literal translation enables a translation of the text that is closely related to the original text. It retains the style and original message structure form; it is believed by most linguists that 70% of the sentences in every language can be rendered in translation using the literal method, even when dealing with difficult texts. Thus, until today literal translation techniques are widely used by translators. Truly, literal translation is one of the most important translation techniques in language translation. Using this method provides accurate translation that is easily understood by the target audience of the language. On the other hand, a free translation method is designed to deliver the intended meaning of the source language, without paying too much attention to the style of the text and syntax of the original text, but it definitely aims to create an accurate translation product as well, just in a very different way. However, literal translation does not attempt to convey its style, beauty, or poetry. There is a great deal of difference between a literal translation of a poetic work and a prose translation. A literal translation of poetry may be in prose rather than verse, but also be error free. "Literal" translation implies that it is probably full of errors, since the translator has made no effort to convey, for example, correct idioms or shades of meaning, but it might be also useful in seeing how words are used to convey a meaning in the source language.
Q1 What is this passage about?
- Dynamic equivalence (1)
- Formal translation (2)
- Literal translation (3)

Q2 Metaphrase is another term for:
- Formal translation (1)
- Literary translation (2)
- Literal translation (3)

Q3 Literal translation helps to have a target text that is closely related to:
- The original culture (1)
- The original text (2)
- The original language (3)

Q4 Literal translation can be a good approach to translate:
- Legal documents (1)
- Poetry (2)
- Cultural articles (3)

Q5 Literal translation has a low importance as a technique in language translation.
- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 Literal translation has been used since last century to convey the beauty and style of any type of text.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Free translation (1)
- Machine Translation (2)
- Word-for-word (3)
- Literal translation (4)
- Localization (5)
- Direct translation (6)
- Translation process (7)
- Dynamic equivalence (8)
- Adaptation (9)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "literal translation" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
Language localization is the process of adapting a product that has been previously translated into multiple languages to a specific country or region. It is the second phase of a larger process of product translation and cultural adaptation (for specific countries, regions or groups) to account for differences in distinct markets; a process known as internationalization and localization. Language localization differs from translation activity because it involves a comprehensive study of the target culture in order to correctly adapt the product to local needs. The localization process is most generally related to the cultural adaptation and translation of software, video games and websites, as well as audio/voiceover, video or other multimedia content, and less frequently to any written translation (which may also involve cultural adaptation processes). Localization can be done for regions or countries where people speak different languages or where the same language is spoken: for instance, different dialects of Spanish, with different idioms, are spoken in Spain and in Latin America. As the formal Localization Industry Standards Association (LISA) explained, globalization "can best be thought of as a cycle rather than a single process". To globalize is to plan the design and development methods for a product in advance, keeping in mind a multicultural audience, in order to avoid increased costs and quality problems, save time, and smooth the localizing effort for each region or country. Localization is an integral part of the overall process called globalization. There are two primary technical processes that comprise globalization: internationalization and localization. The first phase, internationalization, encompasses the planning and preparation stages for a product that is built by design to support global markets. This process removes all cultural assumptions, and any country- or language-specific content is stored so that it can be easily adapted. If this content is not separated during this phase, it must be fixed during localization, adding time and expense to the project. In extreme cases, products that were not internationalized may not be localizable. The second phase, localization, refers to the actual adaptation of the product for a specific market. The localization phase involves, among other things, the four issues LISA describes as linguistic, physical, business and cultural and technical issues. At the end of each phase, testing (including quality assurance) is performed to ensure that the product works properly and meets the client's quality expectations. Though it is sometimes difficult to draw the limits between translation and localization, in general localization addresses significant, non-textual components of products or services. In addition to translation (and, therefore, grammar and spelling issues that vary from place to place where the same language is spoken), the localization process might include adapting graphics; adopting local currencies; using proper format for date and time, addresses, and phone numbers applicable to the location; the choices of colors; and many other details, including rethinking the physical
structure of a product. All these changes aim to recognize local sensitivities, avoid conflict with local culture, customs, common habits, and enter the local market by merging into its needs and desires.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Global Markets (1)
- Dynamic equivalence (2)
- Localization (3)

Q2 Localization can be defined as:
- The process of producing translations into multiple languages in different countries or regions (1)
- The process of adapting a product that has been previously translated into multiple languages to a specific country or region (2)
- The process of creating a product that has been previously translated by professional translators (3)

Q3 Localization is different from translation because:
- It involves a comprehensive study of the source language (1)
- It involves a comprehensive study of the target literature (2)
- It involves a comprehensive study of the target culture (3)

Q4 Globalization involves two key processes:
- Translation and interpreting (1)
- Internationalization and localization (2)
- Localization and generalization (3)

Q5 Localization and globalization are two different terms referring to one concept.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q6 Adaptation is a different procedure that has nothing to do with localization.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Choose the terms that may have "NO" relation to localization as a concept:

- Localization (1)
- Translation (2)
- Imagination (3)
- Global market (4)
- Conceptualization (5)
- Globalization (6)
- Adaptation (7)
- Internalization (8)
- Culture (9)
- Formal equivalence (10)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "localization" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
What is your name?

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

Machine translation, sometimes referred to by the abbreviation MT (not to be confused with computer-aided translation, machine-aided human translation (MAHT) or interactive translation) is a sub-field of computational linguistics that investigates the use of software to translate text or speech from one language to another. On a basic level, MT performs simple substitution of words in one language for words in another, but that alone usually cannot produce a good translation of a text because recognition of whole phrases and their closest counterparts in the target language is needed. Solving this problem with corpus and statistical techniques is a rapidly growing field that is leading to better translations, handling differences in linguistic typology, translation of idioms, and the isolation of anomalies. Current machine translation software often allows for customization by domain or profession (such as weather reports), improving output by limiting the scope of allowable substitutions. This technique is particularly effective in domains where formal or formulaic language is used. It follows that machine translation of government and legal documents more readily produces usable output than conversation or less standardized text. Improved output quality can also be achieved by human intervention: for example, some systems are able to translate more accurately if the user has unambiguously identified which words in the text are proper names. With the assistance of these techniques, MT has proven useful as a tool to assist human translators and, in a very limited number of cases, can even produce output that can be used as is (e.g., weather reports). The progress and potential of machine translation have been debated much through its history. Since the 1950s, a number of scholars have questioned the possibility of achieving fully automatic machine translation of high quality. Some critics claim that there are in-principle obstacles to automatizing the translation process. The idea of machine translation may be traced back to the 17th century. In 1629, René Descartes proposed a universal language, with equivalent ideas in different tongues sharing one symbol. The field of "machine translation" appeared in Warren Weaver's Memorandum on Translation (1949). The first researcher in the field, Yehosha Bar-Hillel, began his research at MIT (1951). A Georgetown University MT research team followed (1951) with a public demonstration of its Georgetown-IBM experiment system in 1954. MT research programs popped up in Japan and Russia (1955), and the first MT conference was held in London (1956). Researchers continued to join the field as the Association for Machine Translation and Computational Linguistics was formed in the U.S. (1962) and the National Academy of Sciences formed the Automatic Language Processing Advisory Committee (ALPAC) to study MT (1964). Real progress was much slower, however, and after the ALPAC report (1966), which found that the ten-year-long research had failed to fulfill expectations, funding was greatly reduced. According to a 1972 report by the Director of Defense Research and Engineering (DDR&E), the
feasibility of large-scale MT was reestablished by the success of the Logos MT system in translating military manuals into Vietnamese during that conflict.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Literal translation (1)
- Machine Translation (2)
- Localization (3)

Q2 Machine translation (MT) is a sub-field of:
- Computer science (1)
- Computational linguistics (2)
- Theoretical linguistics (3)

Q3 MT is usually used to:
- Translate text or speech from one language to another (1)
- Write texts in more than two languages (2)
- Translate using the free translation approach (3)

Q4 The first researcher to conduct studies on MT was:
- James Yalla (1)
- Yehosha Hillel (2)
- Peter Newmark (3)

Q5 MT performs simple duplication of words in one language for words in another.
- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 MT can translate literary texts better than legal documents.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to machine translation as a concept:

- Interpreting (1)
- Engineering (2)
- Computational linguistics (3)
- Computer-aided translation (4)
- Editing (5)
- Globalization (6)
- Functional equivalence (7)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "Machine Translation" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
What is your name?

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

Interpreting is the oral rendering of spoken or signed communication from one language into another. Central to spoken or signed language interpreting are the following skills: the ability to comprehend the intended message of oral communications in two languages (listening skills), and the ability to produce an accurate and complete conversion from one language into another (speaking or speech productions skills). Interpreting requires listening and speaking skills in the two languages being used. Depending on the context, interpreters are often called upon to provide bidirectional conversions—that is, from language 1 into language 2 and from language 2 into language 1—in the moment. Written Translation: Often referred to only by the term “translation,” written translation is the rendering of a written text in one language into a comparable written text in another language. Central to written translation are the following skills: the ability to comprehend written text in one language (reading skills), and the ability to produce a comparable rendition in written form in a second language (writing skills). Most professional translators provide only unidirectional translations, as a rule working into their dominant language. Unlike spoken or signed language interpreters, translators often have the luxury of time and other resources to come up with the best way to capture the nuances of meaning in the original text. Sight translation: Sight translation is the oral rendition of text written in one language into another language and is usually done in the moment. Central to sight translation are the following skills: the ability to comprehend written text in one language (reading skills) and the ability to produce an oral or signed rendition in another language (speaking or speech production skills). Sight translation is often requested of an interpreter during an interpreting assignment. Sight translation can be useful in meetings and conferences where an interpreter is already present. For business meetings, asking an on-site interpreter to clarify the occasional written word or phrase is certainly the quickest option. In legal settings, speed should not trump accuracy. While sight translation is often used to translate a written witness statement that is in a language different from the one being used in court proceedings, it is far from optimal. Sight translation may be viable in very limited circumstances, but it is far better to be properly prepared with translated documents. Here are a few reasons why: 1) Lack of Resources: there is a reason that interpreting and translation are different professions: they require different skill sets, and use different resources. Sight translation strips interpreters of their resources. It may not seem this way, but the interpreter is no longer operating in his or her area of expertise. Interpreters largely depend on body language and voice intonation to make sure that they are attributing the proper meaning to the source’s words. When practicing sight translation, these characteristics are obviously lacking; 2) Unfamiliar Challenges: On top of not having their usual cues, interpreters asked to do a sight translation may also have unusual hurdles to deal
with. Even the most fluent interpreter could be thrown by a typo that a translator would easily recognize; and 3) Language Troubles: Sight translation problems can also arise when dealing with character-based languages such as Japanese or Chinese. For example, an interpreter who would immediately understand a spoken Japanese word may not easily recognize its character. Any language that uses an alphabet different from the translator’s native tongue is likely to cause issues during sight translation.

Q1 What is this passage about?

- Simultaneous interpreting (1)
- Sight translation (2)
- Consecutive interpreting (3)

Q2 The oral rendering of spoken or signed communication from one language into another is known as:

- Translating (1)
- Interpreting (2)
- Analyzing (3)

Q3 Which of the following skills is most essential for interpreting:

- Writing skills (1)
- Critical thinking skills (2)
- Listening skills (3)

Q4 Which of the following skills is most essential for sight translation:

- Listening skills (1)
- Reading skills (2)
- Writing skills (3)

Q5 Sight translation is the oral rendition of text written in one language into another language and is usually done in the moment.

- True (1)
- False (2)
Q6 Sight translation depends solely of the skill of speaking.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Localization (1)
- Interpreting (2)
- Sight translation (3)
- Reading skills (4)
- Machine translation (5)
- Speech skills (6)
- Comprehension (7)
- Oral communication (8)
- Formal equivalence (9)
- CAT tools (10)

Q8 In your own words, do think learning about "sight translation" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
Recall task

Please provide your name:

Answer the following questions based on the two texts you have read for your first task last week. Please rely on your memory and refrain from checking the texts.

Q1 What was the topic of each text?
   Text 1 Topic (1)
   Text 2 Topic (2)

Q2 What were the main points covered in the first text?

Q3 What were the main points covered in the second text?

Q4 List all the terms that you are able to recall from each text (3 terms min./30 terms max.)
   Text 1 (1)
   Text 2 (2)

Q5 Which of the two texts have you found most interesting, and why?
Adaptation

Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

Translation and adaptation are considered both the practices and results of a communicative act. They are an integral part of global interaction. Translation is crucial for cross-cultural understanding as it reveals ideologies, policies, and social experiences. Adaptation, similarly, helps to highlight shades of meaning by building bridges across minds and languages (Baker, Saldanha 2011). The phenomenon of adaptation has been severely criticized in the field of classical translation studies and is often called ‘an abusive form of translation’ (Raw 2012: 21). This point was supported by Hendrik van Gorp in his 1985 article (reprinted in 2004) where he confirmed all the negative connotations towards adaptation, suggesting that translation creates ‘an ideal image’ of a source text while adaptation ‘potentially subverts’ that image (Gorp 2004: 66). Nowadays, the relationship between adaptation and translation seems to be an uneasy one as well. In general, adaptation can be understood as a set of ‘translative interventions which result in a text not generally accepted as a translation, but nevertheless recognized as representing a source text’ (Baker, Saldanha 2011: 41). Being interpreted this way, the phenomenon of adaptation is likely to ‘embrace various vague notions such as rewriting, appropriation or transediting’ (Baker, Saldanha 2011: 41). Appropriation, rewriting, and transediting, however, aim to create a product which is more independent of the source text. This product requires less equivalence than that created with the help of adaptation (Baker, Saldanha 2011). The importance of adaptation is highlighted by the following statement (Vinay, Darbelnet 1995: 41): ‘if a translator systematically refuses to adapt, it will eventually lead to a weakening of a target text’. This point of view provides a clear understanding of adaptation as an unavoidable part of the translation process, which aims at strengthening the connection between source and target texts and between source and target audiences, too. Even the most experienced translators face various hindrances caused by inequalities of source and target realities. It is reasonable to suggest that adaptation is meant to eliminate these inequalities. Mona Baker and Gabriela Saldanha put forward the most common factors which cause adaptation in translation (Baker, Saldanha 2011: 41): ‘Cross-code breakdown’ (there are no lexical or any other kinds of equivalents in the target language); ‘Situational or cultural inadequacy’ (contexts and views of a source text cannot be properly applied to the target text); ‘Genre switching’ (a need to switch from one genre to another); and ‘Disruption of a communication process’ (a need to address a different type of readership). Evidently, these factors are often combined. Thus, a translator’s approach to a source text can be either limited to a certain part of it (applied to a certain difficulty in a source text) or ‘strategic’ (applied to a text as a whole to deal with the complex of difficulties) (Baker, Saldanha 2011). Authors subsequently distinguish between two types of adaptation (Baker, Saldanha 2011: 41): ‘Local adaptation’; and ‘Global adaptation’. As a rule, the use of local adaptation is triggered by situational difficulties in the process of translation. This kind of adaptation is applied to isolated parts of a given text to cope with the ‘intrinsic’ structural, pragmatic, social or cultural translation difficulties. As a local operation, adaptation helps to shorten the distances between source and target texts. We find it reasonable to compare local adaptation to a translation technique, as they both
serve to overcome isolated problems of a source text and have a very limited effect on the target text as a whole (Baker, Saldanha 2011). Global adaptation, on the contrary, is applied to the entire text and is caused by ‘extrinsic factors’ of the source text. Many scholars define global adaptation as a process which may occur not only when translating from one language into another, but also within one and the same language. This kind of global adaptation is called ‘monolingual adaptation’ (Baker, Saldanha 2011: 34). To illustrate monolingual adaptation, one can give an example of adapting a novel for a play or turning a play into a movie.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Frame Semantics (1)
- Adaptation (2)
- Dynamic equivalence (3)

Q2 Translation and adaptation are considered both practices and results of:
- A communicative act (1)
- A pragmatic act (2)
- A speech act (3)

Q3 The phenomenon of adaptation is likely to embrace various vague notions such as:
- Rereading and revision (1)
- Re-editing (2)
- Rewriting (3)

Q4 One of the most common factors which cause adaptation in translation:
- Cross-cultural factors (1)
- Cross-code breakdown (2)
- Source text simplicity (3)

Q5 Local adaptation is applied to isolated parts of a given text to cope with the ‘intrinsic’ structural, pragmatic, social or cultural translation difficulties.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q6 Monolingual adaptation is not applied to the entire text and is caused by ‘extrinsic factors’ of the source text.

☐ True (1)
☒ False (2)

Q7 Select the terms that have "NO" relation to the current text:

☐ Adaptation (1)
☐ Cultural inadequacy (2)
☐ Interpreting (3)
☐ Communication process (4)
☐ Global adaptation (5)
☐ Translative interventions (6)
☐ Sociocognitive terminology (7)
☐ Frame Semantics (8)
☐ Semantic translation (9)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "Adaptation" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
The nature of translation projects in the market are usually characterized by large quantities, with tight schedules and high quality requirements. The traditional translation model for dealing with these vast amounts of translation tasks is inevitably challenging. Modern project management tools and translation technology must be employed to conform to the market needs. Therefore, to adapt to social progress, the practical translation competence is not only about the basic ability to achieve bilingual and bicultural conversion, but also the capability to master commonly used technical translation tools. General translation software technology can be divided into two types: one involving language conversion and the other not involving language translation. The former includes word processing, format conversion, voice input, text optical recognition (OCR), and electronic encyclopedias, and the latter includes all types of electronic dictionaries, online translation software, network bilingual corpus, and paralleled corpus retrieval technology. Computer-aided translation or computer-assisted translation (CAT) technology uses various techniques of the information age, greatly improving the efficiency and quality of the translation, and promoting the modernization and industrialization of the translation process. The use of CAT technology (such as electronic dictionaries, etc.) has begun to spread, making the CAT technology an important target in language research and teaching research, as well as a main means of translation practice. CAT technology is widely used to function as an assistant translator, to accelerate the translation speed and to reduce duplication of translation work. Such technology meets the needs of the times and the market, and, as a result, shows vigorous power in development. Currently, CAT technology has been widely employed by translation service providers and many multinationals, who claim that professional translators need to master these skills. In today’s information age, the level of practical translation competence is commonly measured by the mastery of CAT technology. CAT starts to provide a translator platform (translator workstation) for professional translators. CAT as a technology has developed rapidly since translation materials were electronized. The so-called technique, in a broad sense, is the use of technology, such as computer software, hardware, networks, and other auxiliary equipment in the translation process, and the technique on pre-translated text analysis and processing, translation memory, and the proofreading software, as well as desktop publication. In a narrow sense, technique refers specifically to the improvement of the translation process and the development of special software and related technologies. According to previous studies, the currently used CAT tools can be roughly divided into two categories: one is a kind of general software and hardware that are not specifically developed for the translation process and computer software. These tools include the commonly used word processing software (such as Microsoft word, Dragon System), electronic dictionaries software (such as OCR, Abby
and related hardware (such as an external storage facility, rewritable optical drives, digital cameras, scanners, etc.). The other category is based on a bilingual corpus and translation memory technology (Translation Memory, TM), such as the translation software (more popular as Trados, Word Fast, Word-Fisher, Masanobu CAT, DjVu, SDLX, etc.) This kind of software tells a computer to do things involving pure memories, such as term matching and automatic search tips, memory and reproduction of highly similar sentences, so as to eliminate translators’ efforts in repeatedly searching the terms, and to realize semantic conversion and transmission. In recent years, translation tools keep escalating its version to make them easier to operate than before and have more resources and capabilities. For instance, the computer memory of Google's Lingoes translation experts (lingoes) is many times smaller than that of Kingsoft, but it is more powerful in relation to word search, sentence examples and the full translation version. The translation-memory-based translation software is currently widely used in translation companies. Colleges and universities should be fully aware of the relationship between the CAT teaching and training students’ ability to continuously adjust and improve the teaching mode, although these software are usually expensive and the cost of the initial investment is high. Students need to acquire certain computer knowledge and training so that they can easily operate CAT. The development of a translation curriculum should be made taking into account the experience of CAT teaching mode abroad and the actual situation. The development of the translation curriculum should include application-oriented language translation education so as to train the basic market information, complex, high-quality translation skills, thus enhancing students’ market competitiveness in the knowledge-based society.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Specialized language pragmatics (1)
- CAT tools (2)
- Literal translation (3)

Q2 General translation software technology can be divided into two types: one involving language conversion and the other is:
- not involving language translation (1)
- involving language editing (2)
- involving language revision (3)
Q3 CAT technology is widely used to function as an assistant translator, to accelerate the translation speed and to:

- produce many duplications of translation work (1)
- reduce duplication of translation work (2)
- None of the above (3)

Q4 According to the text, the development of translation curriculum should be:

- theoretical-oriented language translation education (1)
- application-oriented language translation education (2)
- experience-oriented language translation education (3)

Q5 To adapt to social progress, practical translation competence includes not only the basic ability to achieve bilingual and bi-cultural conversion, but also the capability to master commonly used technical translation tools.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 Computer assisted translation is a technology developed before the translation materials were electronized.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Select the terms that have "NO" relation to the current text

- CAT tools (1)
- Technology (2)
- Literal translation (3)
- Translation-memory (4)
- Dynamic equivalence (5)
- Frames (6)
- Formal correspondence (7)
- Project management tools (8)
Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "CAT tools" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

The practice of translating a text word-for-word takes for granted that a single word can be isolated from its context and has only one obvious meaning. But the contrary is true; any word has a whole range of different meanings. A look into any dictionary makes this very clear. It is only through the context that one gets an idea of what could be meant by this or by that word. I shall present here a very simple example: When one is confronted with a word like “du” and asked what it means, one can only guess that it is “you” in German, the second case in French comparable to “of” in English or that it is the transcription of a Chinese character which might bear the meaning of “lonesome” (独). In any case even the pronunciation would be different. One could not even answer the question how to read “du”, if one does not know to which language, i.e. context the syllable belongs. Demanding literal translation of a word is wrong, because there is no word that is literal (wortgetreu). Every word has a history, a long history and therefore offers a lot of possibilities. It is the principle of good literature to play with words. A word play, however, is only feasible through different layers of meanings. Thus every word has its own depth which cannot be found in a dictionary. A dictionary, even a good one, can only give an orientation and lead into the right direction, but it cannot disclose the very depth of a word. A word, therefore, is not to be translated literally, but from its depth which is a matter of understanding and interpretation in a given context. In this sense translation is not an act of changing the code from one language to the other, but a matter of knowledge, a progress from philology which has the single word in its center to culture, to cultural studies (translation turn). An experienced translator never translates words. He or she translates sentences, passages, pages or even the whole thing! Why? Literal translation would not only mean to follow the grammar of a foreign language in its strictest form, but also to follow its punctuation. We all know each language has its own grammar and punctuation. If one would try to keep the sentence construction of English in Chinese or vice versa, the result would sound ridiculous. The same is true for the full stop and comma. There is no need to go into deeper details here. Thus, translation is a matter of choice and decision, of selection and possibility, of history and knowledge. And this is what a good translator is confronted with daily. He or she will know that so called mistakes are not the problem of his or her work, but the sound of a text in translation. It has to fulfill a function, its function, otherwise it is dead. I have read a lot of so called correct, but dead translations. They buried a dead writer a second time! On the other hand, dynamic equivalence and formal equivalence are two dissimilar translation techniques used to achieve differing levels of literalness between the original and target languages of a text. Both of these techniques are used in biblical translation. The two terms have often been understood fundamentally as sense-for-sense translation (translating the meanings of phrases or whole
sentences) and word-for-word translation (translating the meanings of words and phrases in a more literal method). Therefore, it can be said that formal equivalence tends to emphasize fidelity to the lexical details and grammatical structure of the original language, whereas dynamic equivalence tends to employ a more natural rendering but with less literal accuracy.

Q1 What is this passage about?

- Literal translation (1)
- Idiomatic translation (2)
- Frame-semantics (3)

Q2 Formal equivalence tends to emphasize fidelity to the lexical details and grammatical structure of:

- The original language (1)
- The target language (2)
- The target text (3)

Q3 Literal translation would not only mean to follow the grammar of a foreign language in strict form, but also to follow:

- its punctuation (1)
- its pragmatics (2)
- its style (3)

Q4 According to the text, every word has its own depth which cannot be found:

- in a dictionary (1)
- in an encyclopedia (2)
- in a textbook (3)

Q5 Dynamic equivalence and formal equivalence are two similar translation techniques used to achieve different levels of literalness between the original and target languages of a text.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 Dynamic equivalence tends to employ a more natural rendering but with less literal accuracy.

- True (1)
- False (2)
Q7 Select the terms that have "NO" relation to the current text:

- Literal translation (1)
- Machine translation (2)
- CAT tools (3)
- Literalness (4)
- Formal equivalence (5)
- Terminology management (6)
- Frames (7)
- Sense-for-sense translation (8)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "Literal translation, formal and dynamic equivalence" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

So what is localization engineering? It is not translation but is still strongly related to language. It is not engineering but is still related to building products. Localization engineering basically is taking the development environment of a product, taking it apart, and putting it together again after all the text has been translated. Actually, localization engineering is probably the main difference between localization and translation. It’s all that “technical stuff” that needs to happen when a software user interface, or an online help file, or even an HTML file is translated. When the localization industry started taking off, in the early 1980s, localization engineering as an independent job was unknown. In those days usually the original developers or programmers of the source language product collaborated directly with the translators to build localized versions of the product. This worked relatively well, even though there was an obvious gap between the language background of translators and the technical background of developers. Communication was not always smooth and both parties did not always understand or appreciate each other’s priorities or challenges. So a bridge had to be built between all this “technical stuff” and the translation work. This was a fairly natural evolution as many software publishers started outsourcing more than just their translation work to “localization vendors” who clearly recognized many opportunities. Developers had to focus on making the release dates of the—normally—English products, and had no time and/or interest in dealing with all the complexities of multilingual versions of the product. Basically, the ideal model for software publishers was to send out the build environment of their product and receive a fully localized and ready-to-ship version of the product a few weeks or months later. As the localization industry matured, software publishers realized the competitive advantage of releasing all the language versions of their products simultaneously, which called for even more technical work (use of translation technology, processing updates, and testing beta versions) in the localization and translation processes. So the answer to the question “what is localization engineering” is a very broad one.

In general, localization engineering consists of all the work that translators cannot do, as well as all the work that the original product developers cannot do. Below we will take a closer look at what this work exactly entails and what the profile is of the people who do this work.

Localization Engineering Tasks: Traditionally the tasks of localization engineers primarily consisted of preparing projects, building and compiling localized products, and supporting translators. The “products” are typically Windows or Macintosh software applications and online help systems. Let us now take a closer look at what localization engineers do. A “localization kit” normally consists of hundreds of files, of which some are translatable but many are not. The kit has built environments for software applications and/or the accompanying online help files. To build a software application, you need all the resource files and code files, which are then
compiled into a binary file or executable which can be run on a computer. A software product that has been well-internationalized stores all translatable text in one or more of these resource files, which makes the localization job relatively simple. However, in many cases, files containing translatable text are found all throughout the build environment. It is the localization engineer’s responsibility to locate and identify all these translatable files and to prepare them for translation. Localization engineers should ensure that translators know exactly what they need to do, so they can get started quickly. Software localizers normally translate resource files in a translation memory tool such as TRADOS or a user interface localization tool such as Alchemy Catalyst or Passolo.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Internationalization (1)
- Software engineering (2)
- Localization engineering (3)

Q2 Localization engineering can be defined as:
- Taking the development environment of a product, taking it apart, and putting it together again after all the text has been translated (1)
- Taking the development environment of a product, taking it apart, and putting it together again before conducting the translation task (2)
- Designing a product and putting it together while conducting the translation task at the same time (3)

Q3 Localization engineering is probably the main difference between:
- Localization and globalization (1)
- Localization and translation (2)
- Internationalization and localization (3)

Q4 The localization industry started in:
- 1980-1985 (1)
- 1986-1989 (2)
- 1990-1998 (3)

Q5 In the 1980s, the ideal model for software publishers was to send out the build environment of their product and receive a fully localized and ready to ship version of the product a few weeks or months later.
☐ True (1)
☐ False (2)

Q6 It is always preferable that localization engineers have no communication with translators in order to know exactly what they need to do.

☐ True (1)
☐ False (2)

Q7 Select the terms that have "NO" relation to the current text

☐ Localization (1)
☐ Globalization (2)
☐ Interpretation (3)
☐ Technical stuff (4)
☐ Developers (5)
☐ Safety engineering (6)
☐ Source language product (7)
☐ Formal correspondence (8)
☐ Equivalence (9)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "Localization Engineering" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
Machine translation

Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

While professionally trained medical interpreters remain the criterion standard for interpretation in clinical practice, they are often not available in community-based practices. For this reason, physicians are beginning to turn to machine translation to supplement their communication. Originally developed to facilitate simple text-to-text translations, machine translation has evolved in recent years to facilitate more complex translations by incorporating more sophisticated algorithmic approaches. Machine translators are available as commercial computer solutions (e.g., SYSTRAN Enterprise Server and IBM WebSphere) or as free, Web-based applications (e.g., Google Translate and Microsoft Bing Translator). Most machine translators are text based and provide instant translations between various languages, and sometimes there is an option for audio output. A range of language keyboards are sometimes available. For example, Google Translate has a keyboard icon that allows users to access different language scripts by toggling an on-screen keyboard. To access the virtual keyboard, pick the specific language you want to translate from (i.e., ensure “Detect language” is not selected, and choose a language other than English). The virtual keyboard icon will appear in the lower left-hand corner of the text box. Smartphone applications that link to online machine translation programs are also emerging. In a clinical encounter, a physician faced with a language barrier and no professional interpreter might choose to use a machine translator to assist in communicating with a patient. Machine translation might be used to clarify patient histories, review a clinical diagnosis, or restate the recommended treatment plan and follow-up to facilitate comprehension. Physicians might also encourage patients to ask questions or respond to queries by directing them to input text into the machine translator. Machine translation remains imperfect, and misunderstanding might arise in the case of inaccurate translations. During any cross-cultural encounter, physicians should remain alert for dissonance and mitigate misunderstanding through regular feedback. For example, if a machine translator provides an expression that does not make sense in the context of what is being discussed, then the patient might have a confused or a blank facial expression. To facilitate understanding, a physician might rephrase or restate questions, or seek additional sources of interpretation. Finally, back-translation, which involves cutting and pasting translated text back into the translator, might help estimate accuracy and appropriateness of translations. Verbal communication exchanged via machine translation represents only one of the many forms of communication that support interaction between doctor and patient; nonverbal communication remains an important element in face-to-face encounters. When one of these forms of communication is hindered, another form of communication is often emphasized to maintain effective clinical interaction. Nonverbal cues might play a role in communication in the absence of shared verbal language. Across cultures, however, some nonverbal cues might be
difficult to interpret. The risk of misunderstanding is magnified for patients with low literacy and limited levels of health education. In addition, traditional health beliefs or unfamiliar health conditions increase the risk of patient-physician misunderstanding. While a professional interpreter can often identify dissonance and help broker an understanding between physician and patient, machine translators leave it up to the physician and patient to negotiate these misunderstandings. Thus, we suggest in the context of limited physician cross-cultural communication skills, patient mental illness, or low patient literacy, machine translators should be used with extreme caution. In 2008, by mathematically evaluating simple translations completed by various machine translation systems, the National Institute of Standards and Technology found that Google Translate provided the most accurate translations relative to its competitors. At the moment, Google Translate also stands out among other machine translators in terms of the number of languages it can manage, as it incorporates 65 languages and can translate between 4,160 language pairs. Translation accuracy, however, can vary drastically among Google Translate’s language pairs. In a 2010 accuracy assessment study, translation accuracy was determined to be poor among Asian and certain eastern European languages, but good among common European languages. For instance, translations involving English and French, Swedish, or Italian achieved high scores, whereas those involving English and Hindi or Vietnamese yielded low scores.

Q1 What is this passage about?

☐ Mechanical language engineering (1)
☐ Machine translation (2)
☐ Communicative translation (3)

Q2 Most machine translators are

☐ Speech-based (1)
☐ Text-based (2)
☐ None of the above (3)

Q3 Physicians may use machine translation to supplement their:

☐ Clinics (1)
☐ Prescriptions (2)
☐ Communication (3)

Q4 Verbal communication exchanged via machine translation represents:

☐ One of the many forms of medication that supports patients’ health (1)
One of the many forms of communication that support interaction between doctor and patient (2)

One of the many forms that supports patients' prescriptions (3)

Q5 Machine translation remains perfect, and understanding may always be expected by using this tool.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 At the moment, MSN Translate Service stands out among other machine translators in terms of the number of languages it can manage, as it incorporates 65 languages and can translate between 4,160 language pairs.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Select the terms that have "NO" relation to the current text

- Computer (1)
- Accuracy and appropriateness of translations (2)
- Adaptation (3)
- Machine translation (4)
- Domestication (5)
- Computerized translation (6)
- Communicative translation (7)
- Verbal communication (8)
- General terminology theory (9)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "Machine Translation" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
Pragmatics and frame

Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

Pragmatics is generally considered to be the study of the ability of speakers to communicate more than that which is explicitly stated. As Mey (2004: 42) writes: "Pragmatics is essentially about the users of language in a real-life situation, and about the conditions that enable those users to employ linguistic techniques and materials effectively and appropriately. It is the study of meaning arising from language in context, in other words, the meaning intended by the speaker or text sender and understood by the listener or text receiver". When the communication act is successful, these meanings coincide, and when it is not, they diverge to a greater or lesser degree. As such, pragmatics focuses on the effect of context on communicative behavior as well as on how inferences are made by the receiver in order to arrive at the final interpretation of an utterance. The scope of pragmatic meaning can be entire utterances, as well as individual lexical units. Specialized language pragmatics is directly related to the situations in which this type of communication occurs, and to the ways that the text sender and receiver potentially and effectively deal with them. Such communicative situations are the focus of the external or sociocultural view of pragmatics, whereas the online construction of text and word meaning by sender and receiver refers to the internal or cognition-oriented view of pragmatics. Cognition-oriented pragmatics explores how the text, which is the result of the communication act, is molded by the situation itself, as well as the previous knowledge, intentions, expectations, and beliefs of the text sender. It also targets how the text is finally understood by the receivers, both at the micro and macrocontextual level. The structure, content, and terminology of the specialized text are constrained by all of these factors, and can be analyzed in terms of frame, context, and construal or speaker perspective. The transmission of such meaning is problematic even in one language. When it is a question of two languages, as is the case in any act of translation, the difficulties are multiplied. For this reason, it is imperative for translators to be aware of how pragmatics, perhaps more than any other part of language, can dramatically affect their professional activity. Frame refers to the conceptual network that any given term gives access to. The information in this network is the source of the underspecified meaning, whose peacock feathers are displayed in all their glory when the term is activated in a specific context. However, not all knowledge accessible by a term has equal standing. Certain aspects are more central than others. According to Langacker (1987), there are four types of encyclopedic knowledge associated with a word: (1) conventional; (2) generic; (3) intrinsic; (4) characteristic. (1) Conventional knowledge is the extent to which a particular facet of knowledge is shared within a linguistic community. (2) Generic knowledge refers to the degree of generality associated with a particular word. (3) Intrinsic knowledge refers to the aspect of word meaning that makes no reference to entities external to the referent. (4) Characteristic knowledge refers to
the aspects of the encyclopedic information that are characteristic of or unique to the class of entities that the word designates.

Q1 What is this passage about?

☐ The pragmatics of specialized language (1)
☐ Internationalization (2)
☐ Communicative translation (3)

Q2 Pragmatics is considered to be:

☐ The study of the ability of speakers to communicate in a superficial manner (1)
☐ The study of the ability of speakers to communicate more than that which is explicitly stated (2)
☐ The study of the ability of speakers to communicate using more than one language (3)

Q3 The scope of pragmatic meaning can be

☐ Individual lexical units. (1)
☐ Entire utterances and individual lexical units. (2)
☐ None of the above (3)

Q4 Frame refers to:

☐ The conceptual network that any given term gives access to (1)
☐ The conceptual network that only technical terms give access to (2)
☐ The conceptual network that specialized concepts give access to (3)

Q5 Conventional knowledge is the extent to which a particular facet of knowledge is shared within a linguistic community.

☐ True (1)
☐ False (2)

Q6 Cognition-oriented pragmatics explores how the text is molded by other texts' intentions.

☐ True (1)
☐ False (2)

Q7 Select the terms that have "NO" relation to the current text:

☐ Communication act (1)
Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "Pragmatics and Frames" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
Recall Task

Please provide your name:

Answer the following questions based on the two texts you have read for your task last week. Please rely on your memory and refrain from checking the texts.

Q1 What was the topic of each text?

Text 1 Topic (1)

Text 2 Topic (2)

Q2 What were the main points covered in the first text?

Q3 What were the main points covered in the second text?

Q4 List all the terms that you are able to recall from each text (3 terms min./30 terms max.)

Text 1 (1)

Text 2 (2)

Q5 Which of the two texts have you found most interesting, and why?
Interpreting is the oral rendering of spoken or signed communication from one language into another. Central to spoken or signed language interpreting are the following skills: the ability to comprehend the intended message of oral communications in two languages (listening skills), and the ability to produce an accurate and complete conversion from one language into another (speaking or speech productions skills). Interpreting requires listening and speaking skills in the two languages being used. Depending on the context, interpreters are often called upon to provide bidirectional conversions—that is, from language 1 into language 2 and from language 2 into language 1—in the moment. Written Translation: Often referred to only by the term “translation”, written translation is the rendering of a written text in one language into a comparable written text in another language. Central to written translation are the following skills: the ability to comprehend written text in one language (reading skills), and the ability to produce a comparable rendition in written form in a second language (writing skills). Most professional translators provide only unidirectional translations, as a rule working into their dominant language. Unlike spoken or signed language interpreters, translators often have the luxury of time and other resources to come up with the best way to capture the nuances of meaning in the original text. Sight translation: Sight translation is the oral rendition of text written in one language into another language and is usually done in the moment. Central to sight translation are the following skills: the ability to comprehend written text in one language (reading skills) and the ability to produce an oral or signed rendition in another language (speaking or speech production skills). Sight translation is often requested of an interpreter during an interpreting assignment. Sight translation can be useful in meetings and conferences where an interpreter is already present. For business meetings, asking an on-site interpreter to clarify the occasional written word or phrase is certainly the quickest option. In legal settings, speed should not trump accuracy. While sight translation is often used to translate a written witness statement that is in a language different from the one being used in court proceedings, it is far from optimal. Sight translation may be viable in very limited circumstances, but it is far better to be properly prepared with translated documents. Here are a few reasons why: 1) Lack of Resources: there is a reason that interpreting and translation are different professions: they require different skill sets, and use different resources. Sight translation strips interpreters of their resources. It may not seem this way, but the interpreter is no longer operating in his or her area of expertise. Interpreters largely depend on body language and voice intonation to make sure that they are attributing the proper meaning to the source’s words. When practicing sight translation, these characteristics are obviously lacking; 2) Unfamiliar Challenges: On top of not having their usual cues, interpreters asked to do a sight translation may also have unusual hurdles to deal with. Even the most fluent interpreter could be thrown by a typo that a translator would easily recognize; and 3) Language Troubles: Sight translation problems can also arise when dealing with character-based languages such as Japanese or Chinese. For example, an interpreter who would immediately understand a spoken Japanese
word may not easily recognize its character. Any language that uses an alphabet different from the translator’s native tongue is likely to cause issues during sight translation.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Simultaneous interpreting (1)
- Sight translation (2)
- Consecutive interpreting (3)

Q2 The oral rendering of spoken or signed communication from one language into another is known as:
- Translating (1)
- Interpreting (2)
- Analyzing (3)

Q3 Which of the following skills is most essential for interpreting:
- Writing skills (1)
- Critical thinking skills (2)
- Listening skills (3)

Q4 Which of the following skills is most essential for sight translation:
- Listening skills (1)
- Reading skills (2)
- Writing skills (3)

Q5 Sight translation is the oral rendition of text written in one language into another language and is usually done in the moment.
- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 Sight translation depends solely of the skill of speaking.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Localization (1)
- Interpreting (2)
- Sight translation (3)
- Reading skills (4)
- Machine translation (5)
- Speech skills (6)
- Comprehension (7)
- Oral communication (8)
- Formal equivalence (9)
- CAT tools (10)

Q8 In your own words, do think learning about "sight translation" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
Machine Translation

Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

Machine translation, sometimes referred to by the abbreviation MT (not to be confused with computer-aided translation, machine-aided human translation (MAHT) or interactive translation) is a sub-field of computational linguistics that investigates the use of software to translate text or speech from one language to another. On a basic level, MT performs simple substitution of words in one language for words in another, but that alone usually cannot produce a good translation of a text because recognition of whole phrases and their closest counterparts in the target language is needed. Solving this problem with corpus and statistical techniques is a rapidly growing field that is leading to better translations, handling differences in linguistic typology, translation of idioms, and the isolation of anomalies. Current machine translation software often allows for customization by domain or profession (such as weather reports), improving output by limiting the scope of allowable substitutions. This technique is particularly effective in domains where formal or formulaic language is used. It follows that machine translation of government and legal documents more readily produces usable output than conversation or less standardized text. Improved output quality can also be achieved by human intervention: for example, some systems are able to translate more accurately if the user has unambiguously identified which words in the text are proper names. With the assistance of these techniques, MT has proven useful as a tool to assist human translators and, in a very limited number of cases, can even produce output that can be used as is (e.g., weather reports). The progress and potential of machine translation have been debated much through its history. Since the 1950s, a number of scholars have questioned the possibility of achieving fully automatic machine translation of high quality. Some critics claim that there are in-principle obstacles to automatizing the translation process. The idea of machine translation may be traced back to the 17th century. In 1629, René Descartes proposed a universal language, with equivalent ideas in different tongues sharing one symbol. The field of "machine translation" appeared in Warren Weaver's Memorandum on Translation (1949). The first researcher in the field, Yehoshua Bar-Hillel, began his research at MIT (1951). A Georgetown University MT research team followed (1951) with a public demonstration of its Georgetown-IBM experiment system in 1954. MT research programs popped up in Japan and Russia (1955), and the first MT conference was held in London (1956). Researchers continued to join the field as the Association for Machine Translation and Computational Linguistics was formed in the U.S. (1962) and the National Academy of Sciences formed the Automatic Language Processing Advisory Committee (ALPAC) to study MT (1964). Real progress was much slower, however, and after the ALPAC report (1966), which found that the ten-year-long research had failed to fulfill expectations, funding was greatly reduced. According to a 1972 report by the Director of Defense Research and Engineering (DDR&E), the feasibility of large-scale MT was reestablished by the success of the Logos MT system in translating military manuals into Vietnamese during that conflict.
Q1 What is this passage about?
- Literal translation (1)
- Machine Translation (2)
- Localization (3)

Q2 Machine translation (MT) is a sub-field of:
- Computer science (1)
- Computational linguistics (2)
- Theoretical linguistics (3)

Q3 MT is usually used to:
- Translate text or speech from one language to another (1)
- Write texts in more than two languages (2)
- Translate using the free translation approach (3)

Q4 The first researcher to conduct studies on MT was:
- James Yalla (1)
- Yehosha Hillel (2)
- Peter Newmark (3)

Q5 MT performs simple duplication of words in one language for words in another.
- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 MT can translate literary texts better than legal documents.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Interpreting (1)
- Skopos (2)
- Computational linguistics (3)
- Computer-aided translation (4)
- Globalization (6)
- Functional equivalence (7)
- Human intervention (5)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "Machine Translation" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
Localization

Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

Language localization is the process of adapting a product that has been previously translated into multiple languages to a specific country or region. It is the second phase of a larger process of product translation and cultural adaptation (for specific countries, regions or groups) to account for differences in distinct markets; a process known as internationalization and localization. Language localization differs from translation activity because it involves a comprehensive study of the target culture in order to correctly adapt the product to local needs. The localization process is most generally related to the cultural adaptation and translation of software, video games and websites, as well as audio/voiceover, video or other multimedia content, and less frequently to any written translation (which may also involve cultural adaptation processes). Localization can be done for regions or countries where people speak different languages or where the same language is spoken: for instance, different dialects of Spanish, with different idioms, are spoken in Spain and in Latin America. As the formal Localization Industry Standards Association (LISA) explained, globalization "can best be thought of as a cycle rather than a single process". To globalize is to plan the design and development methods for a product in advance, keeping in mind a multicultural audience, in order to avoid increased costs and quality problems, save time, and smooth the localizing effort for each region or country. Localization is an integral part of the overall process called globalization. There are two primary technical processes that comprise globalization: internationalization and localization. The first phase, internationalization, encompasses the planning and preparation stages for a product that is built by design to support global markets. This process removes all cultural assumptions, and any country- or language-specific content is stored so that it can be easily adapted. If this content is not separated during this phase, it must be fixed during localization, adding time and expense to the project. In extreme cases, products that were not internationalized may not be localizable. The second phase, localization, refers to the actual adaptation of the product for a specific market. The localization phase involves, among other things, the four issues LISA describes as linguistic, physical, business and cultural and technical issues. At the end of each phase, testing (including quality assurance) is performed to ensure that the product works properly and meets the client's quality expectations. Though it is sometimes difficult to draw the limits between translation and localization, in general localization addresses significant, non-textual components of products or services. In addition to translation (and, therefore, grammar and spelling issues that vary from place to place where the same language is spoken), the localization process might include adapting graphics; adopting local currencies; using proper format for date and time, addresses, and phone numbers applicable to the location; the choices of colors; and many other details, including rethinking the physical structure of a product. All these changes aim to recognize local sensitivities, avoid conflict with local culture, customs, common habits, and enter the local market by merging into its needs and desires.
Q1 What is this passage about?
- Global Markets (1)
- Dynamic equivalence (2)
- Localization (3)

Q2 Localization can be defined as:
- The process of producing translations into multiple languages in different countries or regions (1)
- The process of adapting a product that has been previously translated into multiple languages to a specific country or region (2)
- The process of creating a product that has been previously translated by professional translators (3)

Q3 Localization is different from translation because:
- It involves a comprehensive study of the source language (1)
- It involves a comprehensive study of the target literature (2)
- It involves a comprehensive study of the target culture (3)

Q4 Globalization involves two key processes:
- Translation and interpreting (1)
- Internationalization and localization (2)
- Localization and generalization (3)

Q5 Localization and globalization are two different terms referring to one concept.
- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 Adaptation is a different procedure that has nothing to do with localization.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Localization (1)
- Translation (2)
- Imagination (3)
- Global market (4)
- Conceptualization (5)
- Globalization (6)
- Adaptation (7)
- Internalization (8)
- Culture (9)
- Formal equivalence (10)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "localization" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
Literal translation

Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

In the translation process, there are some helpful techniques that can eventually help the linguist solve the issue of creating the most accurate translation of a text. Literal and free translations are the two general choices in translation; although both are different methods of translation, they can both be effective in translating a text into another language. Literal translation, direct translation, or word-for-word translation is the rendering of text from one language to another one word at a time (Latin: "verbum pro verbo") with or without conveying the sense of the original whole. In translation studies, "literal translation" denotes technical translation of scientific, technical, technological or legal texts. In translation theory, another term for "literal translation" is "metaphrase"; and for phrasal ("sense") translation—"paraphrase". The concept of literal translation may be viewed as an oxymoron (contradiction in terms), given that literal denotes something existing without interpretation, whereas a translation, by its very nature, is an interpretation (an interpretation of the meaning of words from one language into another). The term "literal translation" often appeared in the titles of 19th-century English translations of classical, biblical and other texts. Literal translation enables a translation of the text that is closely related to the original text. It retains the style and original message structure form; it is believed by most linguists that 70% of the sentences in every language can be rendered in translation using the literal method, even when dealing with difficult texts. Thus, until today literal translation techniques are widely used by translators. Truly, literal translation is one of the most important translation techniques in language translation. Using this method provides accurate translation that is easily understood by the target audience of the language. On the other hand, a free translation method is designed to deliver the intended meaning of the source language, without paying too much attention to the style of the text and syntax of the original text, but it definitely aims to create an accurate translation product as well, just in a very different way. However, literal translation does not attempt to convey the style, beauty, or poetry. There is a great deal of difference between a literal translation of a poetic work and a prose translation. A literal translation of poetry may be in prose rather than verse, but also be error free. "Literal" translation implies that it is probably full of errors, since the translator has made no effort to convey, for example, correct idioms or shades of meaning, but it might be also useful in seeing how words are used to convey a meaning in the source language.

Q1 What is this passage about?

- Dynamic equivalence (1)
- Formal translation (2)
- Literal translation (3)
Q2 Metaphrase is another term for:
- Formal translation (1)
- Literary translation (2)
- Literal translation (3)

Q3 Literal translation helps to have a target text that is closely related to:
- The original culture (1)
- The original text (2)
- The original language (3)

Q4 Literal translation can be a good approach to translate:
- Legal documents (1)
- Poetry (2)
- Cultural articles (3)

Q5 Literal translation receive a low importance as a technique in language translation.
- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 Literal translation has been used since last century to convey the beauty and style of any type of text.
- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:
- Free translation (1)
- Machine Translation (2)
- Word-for-word (3)
- Literal translation (4)
- Localization (5)
- Direct translation (6)
- Translation process (7)
- Dynamic equivalence (8)
- Adaptation (9)
Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "literal translation" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
Frame Semantics

Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

Frame semantics is a theory of linguistic meaning developed by Charles J. Fillmore that extends his earlier case grammar. It relates linguistic semantics to encyclopedic knowledge (The concept of encyclopedic knowledge was once attributed to exceptionally well-read or knowledgeable persons). The basic idea is that one cannot understand the meaning of a single word without access to all the essential knowledge that relates to that word. For example, one would not be able to understand the word "sell" without knowing anything about the situation of commercial transfer, which also involves, among other things, a seller, a buyer, goods, money, the relationship between the money and the goods, the relations between the seller and the goods and the money, the relations between the buyer and the goods and the money and so on. Thus, a word activates, or evokes, a frame of semantic knowledge relating to the specific concept it refers to (or highlights, in frame semantic terminology). Frame Semantics and its practical application assert that in order to truly understand the meanings of words in a language, one must first have knowledge of the semantic frames or conceptual structures that underlie their usage. A semantic frame is a collection of facts that specify "characteristic features, attributes, and functions of an object, and its characteristic interactions with things necessarily or typically associated with it". A semantic frame can also be defined as a coherent structure of related concepts such that without knowledge of all of them, one does not have complete knowledge of any one; they are in that sense types of gestalt (a theory of mind of the Berlin School of experimental psychology. Gestalt psychology tries to understand the laws of our ability to acquire and maintain meaningful perceptions in an apparently chaotic world). Frames are based on recurring experiences. So the commercial transaction frame is based on recurring experiences of commercial transactions. Words not only highlight individual concepts, but also specify a certain perspective from which the frame is viewed. For example "sell" views the situation from the perspective of the seller and "buy" from the perspective of the buyer. This, according to Fillmore, explains the observed asymmetries in many lexical relations. While originally only being applied to lexemes, frame semantics has now been expanded to grammatical constructions and other larger and more complex linguistic units and has more or less been integrated into construction grammar as the main semantic principle. Semantic frames are also becoming used in information modeling, for example in Gellish, especially in the form of 'definition models' and 'knowledge models'.

Q1 What is this passage about?

- Cognitive linguistics (1)
- Frame terminology (2)
- Frame semantics (3)
Q2 Frame semantics is a theory of:

- Translation (1)
- Linguistics (2)
- Localization (3)

Q3 Frame Semantics asserts that in order to understand the meanings of words in a language, one must first have knowledge of:

- the semantic frames or conceptual structures that underlie their usage (1)
- the pragmatic structures that underlie their usage (2)
- the morphological structures that underlie their usage (3)

Q4 Frame Semantics is a theory of linguistic meaning developed by

- Charles Dickens (1)
- Charles J. Fillmore (2)
- Pamela Faber (3)

Q5 A word can activate, or evoke, a frame of semantic knowledge relating to the specific concept it refers to.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 A semantic frame can also be defined as a coherent structure of related terms.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Choose the terms that have no relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Semantics (1)
- Meaning (2)
- Encyclopedic knowledge (3)
- Gestalt psychology (4)
- Engineering (5)
- Computational linguistics (6)
- Semantic relations (7)
- Perception (8)
- Dynamic equivalence (11)
Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "frame semantics" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

Peter Newmark is a renowned British translation theorist and translation educator. He divided translation into “communicative and semantic translation” in his work *Approaches to Translation* which was first published in 1981. He discussed different translation methods by which to reach the goal of “equivalence”, and provided new ideas and approaches for translation practices. According to his communicative translation theory, translation is a kind of communication process, and translators should convert the source language (SL) culture into the target language (TL) culture as much as they can. During this transplanting process of texts from one culture to another, the translators should try to make the TL readers understand the SL author’s thoughts, and make both the TL and SL readers share common ideas about the text. Genres that usually use the communicative translation method are news. In theory, communicative translation addresses itself solely to the second reader who does not anticipate difficulties or obscurities, and would expect a generous transfer of foreign elements into his/her own culture as well as his/her language where necessary. Communicative translation is likely to be smoother, simpler, clearer, more direct, more conventional, conforming to a particular register of language and tending to under translate. This method pays attention to the reader or listener of the TL in the hope that there are no difficulties or a lack of clarity in the text of the TL and the effectiveness of TL. Dynamic and formal equivalence: Dynamic equivalence and formal equivalence are differing methods of translation coined by Eugene Nida. The two terms have often been understood as fundamentally the same as sense-for-sense translation (translating the meanings of phrases or whole sentences) and word-for-word translation (translating the meanings of individual words in their more or less exact syntactic sequence), respectively, and Nida himself often seemed to use them this way. However, his original definition of dynamic equivalence was rhetorical: the idea was that the translator should translate so that the effect of the translation on the target reader is roughly the same as the effect of the source text was on the source reader. The terms "dynamic equivalence” and "formal equivalence” were originally coined to describe ways of translating the Bible, but the two approaches are applicable to any translation of any text. Formal equivalence tends to emphasize fidelity to the lexical details and grammatical structure of the original language, which yields a translation that is more literal in nature. Dynamic equivalence, by contrast, tends to favor a more natural rendering; for instance when the readability of the translation is more important than the preservation of the original grammatical structure. In diplomacy or in some business settings people may insist on formal equivalence because they believe that fidelity to the grammatical structure of the language equals greater accuracy, whereas in literature a novel might be translated with greater use of dynamic equivalence so that it may read well. According to Nida, dynamic equivalence is the "quality of a translation in which the message of the original text has been so transported into the receptor language that the response of the receptor is essentially like that of the original receptors”. Nida tended to use the term so that "the response of the receptor" was mostly semantic—the target reader took the meaning of the text to be such that the source reader would have taken the source text to mean the same thing—which led to critical accusations that this was just sense-for-sense translation in new guise. However, if "response“ is taken in its full meaning, dynamic equivalence could include not only what Aristotle (in *The Rhetoric*) calls logos (meaning and structure) but also ethos (the reader's assumption about the text's
authority) and pathos (how the reader feels about the text). In later years, Nida distanced himself from the term "dynamic equivalence" and preferred the term "functional equivalence". The term "functional equivalence" suggests not just that the equivalence is between the function of the source text in the source culture and the function of the target text (translation) in the target culture, but that "function" can be thought of as a property of the text. It is possible to associate functional equivalence with how people interact in cultures.

Q1 What is this passage about?

- Communicative/semantic translation and dynamic/formal equivalence (1)
- Functional correspondence and formal translation (2)
- Pragmatic equivalence and dynamic translation (3)

Q2 One of Newmark's major goals through developing his translation approaches is to achieve:

- Adequacy (1)
- Equivalence (2)
- Literal meaning (3)

Q3 Dynamic and Formal equivalence are closely related to:

- Scene and frame meaning (1)
- Sense-for-sense and word-for-word translation (2)
- Idiomatic and literal translation (3)

Q4 Dynamic equivalence to a certain extent is concerned with:

- The effect of the target texts on their readers (1)
- The effect of the source texts on their readers (2)
- The effect of the target culture on the target text (3)

Q5 The terms "dynamic equivalence" and "formal equivalence" were originally coined to describe ways of translating scientific and scholarly articles.

- True (1)
- False (2)
Q6 Functional equivalence is another approach proposed by Peter Newmark.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the current passage:

- Equivalence (1)
- Interpreting (2)
- Localization (3)
- Response (4)
- Effect (5)
- Fidelity (6)
- Theoretical linguistics (7)
- Machine translation (8)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about these translation approaches may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
CAT Tools

Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

Computer-assisted translation, computer-aided translation or CAT is a form of language translation in which a human translator uses computer software to support and facilitate the translation process. Computer-assisted translation is sometimes called machine-assisted, or machine-aided, translation (not to be confused with machine translation). The automatic machine translation systems available today are not able to produce high-quality translations unaided: their output must be edited by a human to correct errors and improve the quality of translation. Computer-assisted translation (CAT) incorporates that manual editing stage into the software, making translation an interactive process between human and computer. Some advanced computer-assisted translation solutions include controlled machine translation (MT). Higher priced MT modules generally provide a more complex set of tools available to the translator, which may include terminology management features and various other linguistic tools and utilities. Carefully customized user dictionaries based on correct terminology significantly improve the accuracy of MT, and as a result, aim at increasing the efficiency of the entire translation process. Translation memory programs store previously translated source texts and their equivalent target texts in a database and retrieve related segments during the translation of new texts. Such programs split the source text into manageable units known as "segments". A source-text sentence or sentence-like unit (headings, titles or elements in a list) may be considered a segment, or texts may be segmented into larger units such as paragraphs or smaller ones, such as clauses. As the translator works through a document, the software displays each source segment in turn and provides a previous translation for re-use, if the program finds a matching source segment in its database. If it does not, the program allows the translator to enter a translation for the new segment. After the translation for a segment is completed, the program stores the new translation and moves on to the next segment. New to the translation industry, language search-engine software is typically an Internet-based system that works similarly to Internet search engines. Rather than searching the Internet, however, a language search engine searches a large repository of Translation Memories to find previously translated sentence fragments, phrases, whole sentences, even complete paragraphs that match source document segments. Language search engines are designed to leverage modern search technology to conduct searches based on the source words in context to ensure that the search results match the meaning of the source segments. Like traditional TM tools, the value of a language search engine rests heavily on the Translation Memory repository it searches against.

Terminology management software provides the translator a means of automatically searching a given terminology database for terms appearing in a document, either by automatically displaying terms in the translation memory software interface window or through the use of hot keys to view the entry in the terminology database. Some programs have other hotkey combinations allowing the translator to add new terminology pairs to the terminology database on the fly during translation. Some of the more advanced systems enable translators to check, either interactively or in batch mode, if the correct source/target term combination has been used within and across the translation memory segments in a given project. Independent terminology management systems also exist that can provide workflow functionality, visual taxonomy, work as a type of term checker (similar to spell checker, terms that have not been used correctly are flagged) and can support other types of multilingual term facet classifications such as
pictures, videos, or sound. Alignment programs take completed translations, divide both source and target texts into segments, and attempt to determine which segments belong together in order to build a translation memory or other reference resource with the content. Many alignment programs allow translators to manually realign mismatched segments. The resulting bitext alignment can then be imported into a translation memory program for future translations or used as a reference document. Interactive machine translation is an approach in which the automatic system attempts to predict the translation the human translator is going to produce by suggesting translation hypotheses. These hypotheses may either be the complete sentence, or the part of the sentence that is yet to be translated. Crowd-assisted/sourced translation refers to employing large numbers of bilingual human translators who collaborate via social media. When Facebook needed to translate a large body of existing English language text on its graphical user interfaces, the company made use of the voluntary help of its already-existing bilingual user base, organized by Yishan Wong.

Q1 Computer-assisted translation is a form of translation in which:

- A human translator uses computer software to publish translations (1)
- A human translator uses computer software to support and facilitate the translation process (2)
- A machine that translates texts from one language into another (3)

Q2 Translation memory programs store:

- Previously translated source texts and their equivalent target texts (1)
- Target texts and term bases (2)
- Previously translated source texts and related dictionaries (3)

Q3 Which of the following tools is not considered a CAT tool?

- Translation memory (1)
- Terminology management software (2)
- Online translation service provider (3)

Q4 Employing large numbers of bilingual human translators who collaborate via social media is known as:

- Interactive translation (1)
- Crowd-assisted/sourced translation (2)
- Communicative translation (3)
Q5 Alignment programs take completed translations, divide both source and target texts into segments, and attempt to determine which segments belong together to build a translation memory.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 Terminology management software provides the translator a means of manually searching a given terminology database for terms appearing in a document.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Terminology management (1)
- Machine translation (2)
- Interpreting (3)
- Translation memory (4)
- Computer-aided translation (5)
- Equivalence (6)
- Computer-assisted translation (7)
- Skopos theory (8)
- Contrastive linguistics (9)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "CAT tools" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
Adaptation

Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

When communicating a message to a listener or reader whose mother tongue is not the same as our own, especially when that person does not even understand the language, we must use different ways or methods to get the message across as clearly as possible. While we can use gestures, signs, or noises in order to make ourselves understood, when communicating something written, we must turn to translators. One of the tools used in translation is adaptation. It is used in many cases, as cultural differences between different speakers can cause confusion that can sometimes be tricky to understand or simply prevent us from understanding each other. Adaptation is not to be confused with localization, however, which is used when the target audience speaks a different variant of the same language, such as in the case of Latin America. When adapting a message, we are not translating it literally. This does not mean, however, that when adapting a message or idea we are being unfaithful to the original message, or that we are not doing our job well (translating). Simply, there are situations in which it is required. British scholar Peter Newmark defines adaptation, taken from Vinay and Darbelnet, as, “The use of a recognized equivalent between two situations. It is a process of cultural equivalence: Dear Sir/Muy señor mío; Yours faithfully/Le saluda atentamente”. Adaptations, also known as “Free Translations”, are when the translator substitutes cultural realities or scenarios for which there is no reference in the target language. Adaptations are equivalents, and can be seen more clearly in the translations of TV shows or movies, where conversations or cultural references must be adapted for foreign audiences. When comparing translation and adaptation, we are comparing two ways of communicating a message. In many cases it is impossible to translate a text without making an adaptation, as a “literal” translation of the message would cause a loss of all or part of the meaning for the target audience. It is important to know when to adapt a message, when an expression might have a more appropriate equivalent for a given situation. This makes us better translation professionals. In other words, differences between translation and adaptation can be summarized as follows: 1. To convert vs to suit: Translation is the process of converting words or text from one language into another; in other words, a translation is a process of using the exact equivalent word in another language. An adaptation is the action or process of adapting or being adapted. In other words, it is a change or the process of change by which an element finds a way to suit to its target environment. Hence, adaptation proposes solutions to reinforce the essence while communicating in another language. 2. Textual context vs audience context: Translation allows communication in other languages and takes account of the textual context by choosing the right word in case of homonymous words or ambiguous phrases. Adaptation preserves or even improves the quality of the text in the target language as it goes beyond the context of the text; it focuses on how the audience will read and what will the audience want to read. 3. Convenience vs Strategies: Translation aims at communicating and informing conveniently the audience in another language, whereas adaptation serves to communicate and inform strategically the audience by taking into account of their beliefs, behavior and preferences. 4. Efficiency vs Effectiveness: If your goal is to get the message out quickly and to inform without necessarily engaging the audience, translation is an efficient mean of communication. However, if your purpose is to engage your audience, your message should be effective, containing a strategy.
Effectiveness is not only assessed on the ease of understanding the message, but also on the impact following reading the text, such as responses to a call-to-action for instance.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Dynamic Equivalence (1)
- Adaptation (2)
- CAT tools (3)

Q2 Adaptation is one of the tools used in:
- Translating texts from one language into another (1)
- Analyzing texts in different languages (2)
- Revising translations of texts in different languages (3)

Q3 Adapting a message means:
- Translating it literally (1)
- Translating it word-for-word (2)
- Translating it to achieve cultural equivalence (3)

Q4 Adaptations is known as:
- Functional translations (1)
- Free translations (2)
- Formal translations (3)

Q5 Adaptations can be seen clearly in the translations of TV shows or movies.
- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 Adaptation is significantly concerned with the literal meaning of the message to be conveyed.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage

- Translation (1)
- Globalization (2)
- Free translation (3)
- Machine translation (4)
- Audience context (5)
- CAT tools (6)
- Cultural equivalence (7)
- Contrastive linguistics (8)
- Literary criticism (9)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "adaptation" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
Recall task

Please provide your name:

Answer the following questions based on the two texts you have read for your task last week. Please rely on your memory and refrain from checking the texts.

Q1 What was the topic of the first text?

Q2 What was the topic of the second text?

Q3 What were the main points covered in the first text?

Q4 What were the main points covered in the second text?

Q5 List all the terms that you are able to recall (remember) from the first text (10 terms min./30 terms max.).

Q6 List all the terms that you are able to recall (remember) from the second text (10 terms min./30 terms max.).

Q7 Which of the two texts have you found most interesting, and why?
Adaptation

Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

Translation and adaptation are considered both the practices and results of a communicative act. They are an integral part of global interaction. Translation is crucial for cross-cultural understanding as it reveals ideologies, policies, and social experiences. Adaptation, similarly, helps to highlight shades of meaning by building bridges across minds and languages (Baker, Saldanha 2011). The phenomenon of adaptation has been severely criticized in the field of classical translation studies and is often called ‘an abusive form of translation’ (Raw 2012: 21). This point was supported by Hendrik van Gorp in his 1985 article (reprinted in 2004) where he confirmed all the negative connotations towards adaptation, suggesting that translation creates ‘an ideal image’ of a source text while adaptation ‘potentially subverts’ that image (Gorp 2004: 66). Nowadays, the relationship between adaptation and translation seems to be an uneasy one as well. In general, adaptation can be understood as a set of ‘translative interventions which result in a text not generally accepted as a translation, but nevertheless recognized as representing a source text’ (Baker, Saldanha 2011: 41). Being interpreted this way, the phenomenon of adaptation is likely to ‘embrace various vague notions such as rewriting, appropriation or transediting’ (Baker, Saldanha 2011: 41). Appropriation, rewriting, and transediting, however, aim to create a product which is more independent of the source text. This product requires less equivalence than that created with the help of adaptation (Baker, Saldanha 2011). The importance of adaptation is highlighted with the following statement (Vinay, Darbelnet 1995: 41): ‘if a translator systematically refuses to adapt, it will eventually lead to a weakening of a target text’. This point of view provides a clear understanding of adaptation as an unavoidable part of the translation process, which aims at strengthening the connection between source and target texts and between source and target audiences, too. Even the most experienced translators face various hindrances caused by inequalities of source and target realities. It is reasonable to suggest that adaptation is meant to eliminate these inequalities. Mona Baker and Gabriela Saldanha put forward the most common factors which cause adaptation in translation (Baker, Saldanha 2011: 41): ‘Cross-code breakdown’ (there are no lexical or any other kinds of equivalents in the target language); ‘Situational or cultural inadequacy’ (contexts and views of a source text cannot be properly applied to the target text); ‘Genre switching’ (a need to switch from one genre to another); and ‘Disruption of a communication process’ (a need to address a different type of readership). Evidently, these factors are often combined. Thus, a translator’s approach to a source text can be either limited to a certain part of it (applied to a certain difficulty in a source text) or ‘strategic’ (applied to a text as a whole to deal with the complex of difficulties) (Baker, Saldanha 2011). Authors subsequently distinguish between two types of adaptation (Baker, Saldanha 2011: 41): ‘Local adaptation’; and ‘Global adaptation’. As a rule, the use of local adaptation is triggered by situational difficulties in the process of translation. This kind of adaptation is applied to isolated parts of a given text to cope with the ‘intrinsic’ structural, pragmatic, social or cultural translation difficulties. As a local operation, adaptation helps to shorten the distances between source and target texts. We find it reasonable to compare local adaptation to a translation technique, as they both
serve to overcome isolated problems of a source text and have a very limited effect on the target text as a whole (Baker, Saldanha 2011). Global adaptation, on the contrary, is applied to the entire text and is caused by ‘extrinsic factors’ of the source text. Many scholars define global adaptation as a process which may occur not only when translating from one language into another, but also within one and the same language. This kind of global adaptation is called ‘monolingual adaptation’ (Baker, Saldanha 2011: 34). To illustrate monolingual adaptation, one can give an example of adapting a novel for a play or turning a play into a movie.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Frame Semantics (1)
- Adaptation (2)
- Dynamic equivalence (3)

Q2 Translation and adaptation are considered both practices and results of:
- A communicative act (1)
- A pragmatic act (2)
- A speech act (3)

Q3 The phenomenon of adaptation is likely to embrace various vague notions such as:
- Rereading & revision (1)
- Re-editing (2)
- Rewriting (3)

Q4 One of the most common factors which cause adaptation in translation is:
- Cross-cultural factors (1)
- Cross-code breakdown (2)
- Source text simplicity (3)

Q5 Local adaptation is applied to isolated parts of a given text to cope with the ‘intrinsic’ structural, pragmatic, social or cultural translation difficulties.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q6 Monolingual adaptation is not applied to the entire text and is caused by ‘extrinsic factors’ of the source text.

○ True (1)
○ False (2)

Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Cultural inadequacy (2)
- Interpreting (3)
- Communication process (4)
- Global adaptation (5)
- Translative interventions (6)
- Sociocognitive terminology (7)
- Frame Semantics (8)
- Semantic translation (9)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "Adaptation" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
The nature of translation projects in the market are usually characterized by large quantities, with tight schedules and high quality requirements. The traditional translation model for dealing with these vast amounts of translation tasks is inevitably challenging. Modern project management tools and translation technology must be employed to conform to the market needs. Therefore, to adapt to social progress, the practical translation competence is not only about the basic ability to achieve bilingual and bicultural conversion, but also the capability to master commonly used technical translation tools. General translation software technology can be divided into two types: one involving language conversion and the other not involving language translation. The former includes word processing, format conversion, voice input, text optical recognition (OCR), and electronic encyclopedias, and the latter includes all types of electronic dictionaries, online translation software, network bilingual corpus, and paralleled corpus retrieval technology. Computer-aided translation or computer-assisted translation (CAT) technology uses various techniques of the information age, greatly improving the efficiency and quality of the translation, and promoting the modernization and industrialization of the translation process. The use of CAT technology (such as electronic dictionaries, etc.) has begun to spread, making the CAT technology an important target in language research and teaching research, as well as a main means of translation practice. CAT technology is widely used to function as an assistant translator, to accelerate the translation speed and to reduce duplication of translation work. Such technology meets the needs of the times and the market, and, as a result, shows vigorous power in development. Currently, CAT technology has been widely employed by translation service providers and many multinationals, who claim that professional translators need to master these skills. In today’s information age, the level of practical translation competence is commonly measured by the mastery of CAT technology. CAT starts to provide a translator platform (translator workstation) for professional translators. CAT as a technology has developed rapidly since translation materials were electronized. The so-called technique, in a broad sense, is the use of technology, such as computer software, hardware, networks, and other auxiliary equipment in the translation process, and the technique on pre-translated text analysis and processing, translation memory, and the proofreading software, as well as desktop publication. In a narrow sense, technique refers specifically to the improvement of the translation process and the development of special software and related technologies. According to previous studies, the currently used CAT tools can be roughly divided into two categories: one is a kind of general software and hardware that are not specifically developed for the translation process and computer software. These tools include the commonly used word processing software (such as Microsoft word, Dragon System), electronic dictionaries software (such as OCR, Abby FineReader, OmniPage, TextBridge, Kingsoft, Kingsoft translation, electronic encyclopedias) and related hardware (such as an external storage facility, rewritable optical drives, digital cameras, scanners, etc.). The other category is based on a bilingual corpus and translation memory technology (Translation Memory, TM), such as the translation software (more popular as Trados, Word Fast, Word-Fisher, Masanobu CAT, DjVu, SDLX, etc.) This kind of software tells a computer to do things involving pure memories, such as term matching and automatic search tips, memory and reproduction of highly similar sentences, so as to eliminate translators’ efforts in repeatedly searching the terms, and to realize semantic
conversion and transmission. In recent years, translation tools keep escalating its version to make them easier to operate than before and have more resources and capabilities. For instance, the computer memory of Google's Lingoes translation experts (lingoes) is many times smaller than that of Kingsoft, but it is more powerful in relation to word search, sentence examples and the full translation version. The translation-memory-based translation software is currently widely used in translation companies. Colleges and universities should be fully aware of the relationship between the CAT teaching and training students’ ability to continuously adjust and improve the teaching mode, although these software are usually expensive and the cost of the initial investment is high. Students need to acquire certain computer knowledge and training so that they can easily operate CAT. The development of a translation curriculum should be made taking into account the experience of CAT teaching mode abroad and the actual situation. The development of the translation curriculum should include application-oriented language translation education so as to train the basic market information, complex, high-quality translation skills, thus enhancing students’ market competitiveness in the knowledge-based society.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Specialized language pragmatics (1)
- CAT tools (2)
- Literal translation (3)

Q2 General translation software technology can be divided into two types: one involving language conversion and the other is:
- not involving language translation (1)
- involving language editing (2)
- involving language revision (3)

Q3 CAT technology is widely used from the start to be developed to function as an assistant translator, to accelerate the translation speed and to:
- produce many duplications of translation work (1)
- reduce duplication of translation work (2)
- None of the above (3)

Q4 According to the text, the development of translation curriculum should be:
- theoretical-oriented language translation education (1)
- application-oriented language translation education (2)
- experience-oriented language translation education (3)
Q5 To adapt to the social progress, the practical translation competence is not only the basic ability to achieve bilingual and bi-cultural conversion, but also the capability to master commonly used technical translation tools.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 Computer assisted translation is a technology developed before the translation materials electronized.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- CAT tools (1)
- Technology (2)
- Literal translation (3)
- Translation-memory (4)
- Dynamic equivalence (5)
- Frames (6)
- Formal correspondence (7)
- Project management tools (8)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "CAT tools" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
Literal translation

Please provide your name:

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow based on the actual wording of the text.

The practice of translating a text word-for-word takes for granted that a single word can be isolated from its context and has only one obvious meaning. But the contrary is true; any word has a whole range of different meanings. A look into any dictionary makes this very clear. It is only through the context that one gets an idea of what could be meant by this or by that word. I shall present here a very simple example: When one is confronted with a word like “du” and asked what it means, one can only guess that it is “you” in German, the second case in French comparable to “of” in English or that it is the transcription of a Chinese character which might bear the meaning of “lonesome” (独). In any case even the pronunciation would be different. One could not even answer the question how to read “du”, if one does not know to which language, i.e. context the syllable belongs. Demanding literal translation of a word is wrong, because there is no word that is literal (wortgetreu). Every word has a history, a long history and therefore offers a lot of possibilities. It is the principle of good literature to play with words. A word play, however, is only feasible through different layers of meanings. Thus every word has its own depth, which cannot be found in a dictionary. A dictionary, even a good one, can only give an orientation and lead in the right direction, but it cannot disclose the very depth of a word. A word, therefore, is not to be translated literally, but from its depth which is a matter of understanding and interpretation in a given context. In this sense translation is not an act of changing the code from one language to the other, but a matter of knowledge, a progress from philology which has the single word in its center to culture, to cultural studies (translation turn). An experienced translator never translates words. He or she translates sentences, passages, pages or even the whole thing! Why? Literal translation would not only mean to follow the grammar of a foreign language in strict form, but also to follow its punctuation. We all know any language has its own grammar and punctuation. If one would try to keep the sentence construction of English in Chinese or vice versa, the result would sound ridiculous. The same is true for the full stop and comma. There is no need to go into more detail. Thus, translation is a matter of choice and decision, of selection and possibility, of history and knowledge. And this is what a good translator is confronted with daily. He or she will know that so called mistakes are not the problem of his or her work, but the sound of a text in translation. It has to fulfill a function, its function, otherwise it is dead. I have read a lot of so called correct, but dead translations. They buried a dead writer a second time! On the other hand, dynamic equivalence and formal equivalence are two dissimilar translation techniques used to achieve differing levels of literalness between the original and target languages of a text. Both of these techniques are used in biblical translation. The two terms have often been understood fundamentally as sense-for-sense translation (translating the meanings of phrases or whole sentences) and word-for-word translation (translating the meanings of words and phrases in a more literal method). Therefore, it can be said that formal equivalence tends to emphasize fidelity to the lexical details and grammatical structure of the original language, whereas dynamic equivalence tends to employ a more natural rendering but with less literal accuracy.
Q1 What is this passage about?

- Literal translation (1)
- Idiomatic translation (2)
- Frame-semantics (3)

Q2 Formal equivalence tends to emphasize fidelity to the lexical details and grammatical structure of:

- The original language (1)
- The target language (2)
- The target text (3)

Q3 Literal translation would not only mean to follow the grammar of a foreign language in strict form, but also to follow:

- its punctuation (1)
- its pragmatics (2)
- its style (3)

Q4 According to the text, every word has its own depth which cannot be found:

- in a dictionary (1)
- in an encyclopedia (2)
- in a textbook (3)

Q5 Dynamic equivalence and formal equivalence are two similar translation techniques used to achieve different levels of literalness between the original and target languages of a text.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 Dynamic equivalence tends to employ a more natural rendering but with less literal accuracy.

- True (1)
- False (2)
Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Literal translation (1)
- Machine translation (2)
- CAT tools (3)
- Literalness (4)
- Formal equivalence (5)
- Terminology management (6)
- Frames (7)
- Sense-for-sense translation (8)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "Literal translation, formal and dynamic equivalence" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
So what is localization engineering? It is not translation but is still strongly related to language. It is not engineering but is still much related to building products. Localization engineering basically is taking the development environment of a product, taking it apart, and putting it together again after all the text has been translated. Actually, localization engineering is probably the main difference between localization and translation. It is all that “technical stuff” that needs to happen when a software user interface is translated, or an online help file, or even an HTML file. When the localization industry started taking off, in the early 1980s, localization engineering as an independent job was unknown. In those days usually the original developers or programmers of the source language product collaborated directly with the translators to build localized versions of the product. This worked relatively well, even though there was an obvious gap between the language background of translators and the technical background of developers. Communication was not always smooth and both parties did not always understand or appreciate each other’s priorities or challenges. So a bridge had to be built between all this “technical stuff” and the translation work. This came as a fairly natural evolution as many software publishers started outsourcing more than just the translation work to “localization vendors” who clearly recognized many opportunities. Developers had to focus on making the release dates of the—normally—English products, and had no time and/or interest in dealing with all the complexities of multilingual versions of the product. Basically, the ideal model for software publishers was to send out the build environment of their product and receive a fully localized and ready-to-ship version of the product a few weeks or months later. When the localization industry matured, software publishers realized the competitive advantages of releasing all language versions of their products simultaneously, which called for even more technical work (use of translation technology, processing updates, testing beta versions) in the localization and translation process. So the answer to the question “what is localization engineering” is a very broad one. In general, localization engineering consists of all the work that translators cannot do, as well as all the work that the original product developers cannot do. Below we will take a closer look at what this work exactly entails and what the profile is of the people who do this work. Localization Engineering Tasks: Traditionally the tasks of localization engineers primarily consisted of preparing projects, building and compiling localized products, and supporting translators. The “products” are typically Windows or Macintosh software applications and online help systems. Let us now take a closer look at what localization engineers do. A “localization kit” normally consists of hundreds of files, of which some are translatable but many are not. A localization kit has built environments for software applications and/or the accompanying online help files. To build a software application, you need all the resource files and code files, which are then compiled into a binary file or executable which can be run on a computer. A software product that has been well-internationalized stores all translatable text in one or more of these resource files, which makes the localization job relatively simple. However, in many cases, files containing translatable text are found all throughout the build environment. It is the localization engineer’s responsibility to locate and identify all these translatable files and to prepare them for translation. Localization engineers should ensure that translators know exactly what they need to do, so
they can get started quickly. Software localizers normally translate resource files in a translation memory tool such as TRADOS or a user interface localization tool such as Alchemy Catalyst or Passolo.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Internationalization (1)
- Software engineering (2)
- Localization engineering (3)

Q2 Localization engineering can be defined as:
- Taking the development environment of a product, taking it apart, and putting it together again after all the text has been translated (1)
- Taking the development environment of a product, taking it apart, and putting it together again before conducting the translation task (2)
- Designing a product and putting it together while conducting the translation task at the same time (3)

Q3 Localization engineering is probably the main difference between:
- Localization and globalization (1)
- Localization and translation (2)
- Internationalization and localization (3)

Q4 The localization industry started in:
- 1980-1985 (1)
- 1986-1989 (2)
- 1990-1998 (3)

Q5 In the 1980s, the ideal model for software publishers was to send out the build environment of their product and receive a fully localized and ready-to-ship version of the product a few weeks or months later.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q6 It is always preferable that localization engineers have no communication with translators in order to know exactly what they need to do.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Localization (1)
- Globalization (2)
- Interpretation (3)
- Technical stuff (4)
- Developers (5)
- Safety engineering (6)
- Source language product (7)
- Formal correspondence (8)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "Localization Engineering" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
While professionally trained medical interpreters remain the criterion standard for interpretation in clinical practice, they are often not available in community-based practices. For this reason, physicians are beginning to turn to machine translation to supplement their communication. Originally developed to facilitate simple text-to-text translations, machine translation has evolved in recent years to facilitate more complex translations by incorporating more sophisticated algorithmic approaches. Machine translators are available as commercial computer solutions (e.g., SYSTRAN Enterprise Server and IBM WebSphere) or as free, Web-based applications (e.g., Google Translate and Microsoft Bing Translator). Most machine translators are text based and provide instant translations between various languages, and sometimes there is an option for audio output. A range of language keyboards are sometimes available. For example, Google Translate has a keyboard icon that allows users to access different language scripts by toggling an on-screen keyboard. To access the virtual keyboard, pick the specific language you want to translate from (i.e., ensure “Detect language” is not selected, and choose a language other than English). The virtual keyboard icon will appear in the lower left-hand corner of the text box. Smartphone applications that link to online machine translation programs are also emerging. In a clinical encounter, a physician faced with a language barrier and no professional interpreter might choose to use a machine translator to assist in communicating with a patient. Machine translation might be used to clarify patient histories, review a clinical diagnosis, or restate the recommended treatment plan and follow-up to facilitate comprehension. Physicians might also encourage patients to ask questions or respond to queries by directing them to input text into the machine translator. Machine translation remains imperfect, and misunderstanding might arise in the case of inaccurate translations. During any cross-cultural encounter, physicians should remain alert for dissonance and mitigate misunderstanding through regular feedback. For example, if a machine translator provides an expression that does not make sense in the context of what is being discussed, then the patient might have a confused or a blank facial expression. To facilitate understanding, a physician might rephrase or restate questions, or seek additional sources of interpretation. Finally, back-translation, which involves cutting and pasting translated text back into the translator, might help assess the accuracy and appropriateness of translations. Verbal communication exchanged via machine translation represents only one of the many forms of communication that support interaction between doctor and patient; nonverbal communication remains an important element in face-to-face encounters. When one of these forms of communication is hindered, another form of communication is often emphasized to maintain effective clinical interaction. Nonverbal cues might play a role in communication in the absence of shared verbal language. Across cultures, however, some nonverbal cues might be difficult to interpret. The risk of misunderstanding is magnified for patients with low literacy and limited levels of health education. In addition, traditional health beliefs or unfamiliar health conditions increase the risk of patient-physician misunderstanding. While a professional interpreter can often identify dissonance and help broker an understanding between physician and patient, machine translators leave it up to the physician and patient to negotiate these misunderstandings. Thus, we suggest in the context of limited physician cross-cultural communication skills, patient mental illness, or low patient literacy, machine translators should be used with extreme caution. In 2008, by mathematically evaluating simple translations completed by various
machine translation systems, the National Institute of Standards and Technology found that Google Translate provided the most accurate translations relative to its competitors. At the moment, Google Translate also stands out among other machine translators in terms of the number of languages it can manage, as it incorporates 65 languages and can translate between 4,160 language pairs. Translation accuracy, however, can vary drastically among Google Translate’s language pairs. In a 2010 accuracy assessment study, translation accuracy was determined to be poor among Asian and certain eastern European languages, but good among common European languages. For instance, translations involving English and French, Swedish, or Italian achieved high scores, whereas those involving English and Hindi or Vietnamese yielded low scores.

Q1 What is this passage about?
- Mechanical language engineering (1)
- Machine translation (2)
- Communicative translation (3)

Q2 Most machine translators are:
- Speech-based (1)
- Text-based (2)
- None of the above (3)

Q3 Physicians may use machine translation to supplement their:
- Clinics (1)
- Prescriptions (2)
- Communication (3)

Q4 Verbal communication exchanged via machine translation represents:
- One of the many forms of medication that supports patients' health (1)
- One of the many forms of communication that support interaction between doctor and patient (2)
- One of the many forms that supports patients' prescriptions (3)

Q5 Machine translation remains perfect, and understanding may always be expected by using this tool.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q6 At the moment, MSN Translate Service stands out among other machine translators in terms of the number of languages it can manage, as it incorporates 65 languages and can translate between 4,160 language pairs.

- True (1)
- False (2)

Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Computer (1)
- Accuracy and appropriateness of translations (2)
- Adaptation (3)
- Machine translation (4)
- Domestication (5)
- Communicative translation (7)
- Verbal communication (8)
- General theory of terminology (9)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "Machine Translation" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
Pragmatics is generally considered to be the study of the ability of speakers to communicate more than that which is explicitly stated. As Mey (2004: 42) writes: "Pragmatics is essentially about the users of language in a real-life situation, and about the conditions that enable those users to employ linguistic techniques and materials effectively and appropriately. It is the study of meaning arising from language in context, in other words, the meaning intended by the speaker or text sender and understood by the listener or text receiver." When the communication act is successful, these meanings coincide, and when it is not, they diverge to a greater or lesser degree. As such, pragmatics focuses on the effect of context on communicative behavior as well as on how inferences are made by the receiver in order to arrive at the final interpretation of an utterance. The scope of pragmatic meaning can be entire utterances, as well as individual lexical units. Specialized language pragmatics is directly related to the situations in which this type of communication occurs, and to the ways that the text sender and receiver potentially and effectively deal with them. Such communicative situations are the focus of the external or sociocultural view of pragmatics, whereas the online construction of text and word meaning by sender and receiver refers to the internal or cognition-oriented view of pragmatics. Cognition-oriented pragmatics explores how the text, which is the result of the communication act, is molded by the situation itself, as well as the previous knowledge, intentions, expectations, and beliefs of the text sender. It also targets how the text is finally understood by the receivers, both at the micro and macrocontextual level. The structure, content, and terminology of the specialized text are constrained by all of these factors, and can be analyzed in terms of frame, context, and construal or speaker perspective. The transmission of such meaning is problematic even in one language. When it is a question of two languages, as is the case in any act of translation, the difficulties are multiplied. For this reason, it is imperative for translators to be aware of how pragmatics, perhaps more than any other part of language, can dramatically affect their professional activity. Frame refers to the conceptual network to which any given term gives access. The information in this network is the source of the underspecified meaning, whose peacock feathers are displayed in all their glory when the term is activated in a specific context. However, not all knowledge accessible by a term has equal standing. Certain aspects are more central than others. According to Langacker (1987), there are four types of encyclopedic knowledge associated with a word: (1) conventional; (2) generic; (3) intrinsic; (4) characteristic. (1) Conventional knowledge is the extent to which a particular facet of knowledge is shared within a linguistic community. (2) Generic knowledge refers to the degree of generality associated with a particular word. (3) Intrinsic knowledge refers to the aspect of word meaning that makes no reference to entities external to the referent. (4) Characteristic knowledge refers to the aspects of the encyclopedic information that are characteristic of or unique to the class of entities that the word designates.
Q1 What is this passage about?
- The pragmatics of specialized language (1)
- Internationalization (2)
- Communicative translation (3)

Q2 Pragmatics is considered to be:
- The study of the ability of speakers to communicate in a superficial manner (1)
- The study of the ability of speakers to communicate more than that which is explicitly stated (2)
- The study of the ability of speakers to communicate using more than one language (3)

Q3 The scope of pragmatic meaning can be:
- Individual lexical units. (1)
- Entire utterances and individual lexical units. (2)
- None of the above (3)

Q4 Frame refers to:
- The conceptual network that any given term gives access to (1)
- The conceptual network that only technical terms give access to (2)
- The conceptual network that specialized concepts give access to (3)

Q5 Conventional knowledge is the extent to which a particular facet of knowledge is shared within a linguistic community.
- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 Cognition-oriented pragmatics explores how the text is molded by other texts' intentions.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Communication act (1)
- CAT tools (3)
- Specialized language (4)
- Communicative situations (5)
- Equivalence (6)
- Frame (7)
- Machine translation (8)
- Communicative translation (9)

Q8 In your own words, do you think learning about "Pragmatics and Frames" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max.)
What is sight translation? Sight translation is the rendering of material written in one language into spoken speech in another language. It is a true and accurate verbal translation of written material into the spoken form so that the parties can understand what documents written in foreign languages say. When is sight translation used? Sight translation is often used when limited English proficiency (LEP) defendants are given forms in court that are written in English, such as rights forms, plea forms, and probation orders. It is also used when foreign-language documents such as birth certificates, personal letters, and identity documents are presented in court. Keys for proper sight translation: Recommended practice is to afford the interpreter sufficient time to review the document’s contents before rendering it. When performing sight translation, the interpreter must: possess a wide vocabulary and knowledge of the specific type of document presented; have the ability to quickly scan and understand the main points of the document; and accurately interpret the document into its equivalent meaning in the target language. Summary interpreting: Summary interpreting, in which an interpreter offers a shortened or condensed version of what has been said, is not appropriate in legal or quasi-legal settings. Recommendations in judicial, legal and quasi-legal settings: interpreters are obligated to interpret all communication made between parties of different languages directly and accurately, without omissions or embellishments. All those involved, such as judges, defense attorneys, prosecutors, law enforcement, court staff, court support services, defendants, victims, and witnesses, can make best use of interpreting services by following these guidelines: 1. Talk through the interpreter, not to the interpreter. When using an interpreter to address a non-English speaker, speak directly to that person as if the interpreter weren’t even there. 2. Use the first person when addressing the other party. Do not say, “Could you ask him if he is aware of the maximum penalty for this offense.” Instead, turn directly to the party you are addressing and say, “Are you aware of the maximum penalty for this offense?”. 3. Do not ask the interpreter for his opinion or input. 4. Watch your speed. This goes both ways. When speaking extemporaneously, do not speak too fast, and do not speak too slowly. When reading something aloud (such as jury instructions, waiver of rights, or a specific evidence code section), keep your pace slower than normal. 5. Do not try to communicate with the interpreter or otherwise interrupt him while simultaneously interpreting. Simultaneous interpreting requires intense, high levels of concentration and accumulated skill in order to be performed properly. Distracting the interpreter during simultaneous interpreting can cause an immediate breakdown in communication for all parties. 6. Parties must refrain from talking at the same time in order for the interpreter to interpret court proceedings properly. Just as court reporters are duty-bound to stop parties from talking over one another during recorded proceedings, interpreters have an equal duty do the same in order to protect the due process right of the defendant. 7. Do not direct the interpreter to convey information to the LEP individual when you are not present.
Q1 What is this passage about?
- Consecutive interpreting (1)
- Sight translation and summary interpreting (2)
- Simultaneous interpreting (3)

Q2 Sight translation is often used when limited English proficiency (LEP) defendants are given forms in court that are written in English, such as:
- Stories, novels and poetry (1)
- Rights forms, plea forms, and probation orders (2)
- Scientific articles (3)

Q3 Which of the following skills is most essential while interpreting:
- Asking the interpreter for his opinion (1)
- Not asking the interpreter for his opinion or input (2)
- Interrupting the interpreter (3)

Q4 Offering a shortened or condensed version of what has been said from one language into another is called:
- Simultaneous interpreting (2)
- Summary interpreting (3)
- Sight translation (4)

Q5 Sight translation is used when foreign-language documents such as birth certificates, personal letters, and identity documents are presented in court.
- True (1)
- False (2)

Q6 For proper sight translation, the interpreter must only have the ability to quickly scan and understand the main points of the document.
- True (1)
- False (2)
Q7 Choose the terms that have "NO" relation to the topic of the current passage:

- Localization (1)
- Interpreting (2)
- Sight translation (3)
- Adequacy (4)
- Machine translation (5)
- Consecutive interpreting (7)
- Summary interpreting (8)
- Equivalent meaning (9)
- CAT tools (10)

Q8 In your own words, do think learning about "sight translation" may help you as a translator? Why? (100 words max)
Please provide your name:

Answer the following questions based on the two texts you have read for your task last week. Please rely on your memory and refrain from checking the texts.

Q1 What was the topic of the first text?
Q2 What was the topic of the second text?
Q3 What were the main points covered in the first text?
Q4 What were the main points covered in the second text?
Q5 List all the terms that you are able to recall (remember) from the first text (10 terms min./30 terms max.).
Q6 List all the terms that you are able to recall (remember) from the second text (10 terms min./30 terms max.).
Q7 Which of the two texts have you found most interesting, and why?
APPENDIX D

FABER AND MARTINEZ’S (2009) COURSE PLAN
(1) 

**TEMPLATE**  
**Objective:** To make the student aware of the terminographic resources and systems of terminology management for translation as well as the need to evaluate them.

**Phase 1**  
*Introduction and explanation.* The teacher gives a concise overview of the standard types of terminographic resources for translators and asks them to examine the advantages and disadvantages of each type. This task is carried out in groups. Each group is assigned a specific type of resource, which they will analyze according to a series of variables.

**Phase 2**  
*Group work.* Each group makes a list of terminology-related problems that translators must deal with, and proposes a list of solutions for each problem. The information in each resource is analyzed in reference to the range of solutions proposed.

**Phase 3**  
*Exposition and discussion of results.* The students learn about the different types of terminographic resources through the presentations given, and thus become aware of the wide range of information offered in such resources.

**Phase 4**  
*Evaluation of results.* The class then reflects on the usefulness of these resources in translation jobs.
### Evaluation and assessment

Faber and Martinez (2009, p. 10)

#### Table 1. Examples of the initial, formative, and final evaluation of the subject of Terminology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge type</th>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Evaluation tool</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual and attitudinal knowledge</td>
<td>To make students aware of the distinction between word and term</td>
<td>• Elicitation of students’ opinions (initial evaluation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Discussion of required reading and oral presentation by teacher (initial/formative evaluation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual and attitudinal knowledge</td>
<td>To increase students’ knowledge of General Terminology Theory and new tendencies in Terminology theory</td>
<td>• Discussion of required reading and oral presentation by teacher (initial/formative evaluation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual and attitudinal knowledge</td>
<td>To increase students’ awareness of different types of terminology management</td>
<td>• Discussion of required reading and oral presentation by teacher (initial/formative evaluation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural and attitudinal knowledge</td>
<td>To help students develop strategies for using and consulting different types of terminographic resources</td>
<td>• Group work on different aspects of terminographic resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Terminographic searches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Oral presentation of results in class (formative evaluation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural and attitudinal knowledge</td>
<td>To help students develop terminology work methods and management strategies regarding the following activities:</td>
<td>• Supervised work and final project deliverable (formative and final evaluation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• description of the translation job and the specialized knowledge domain;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• term extraction;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• consultation of terminographic resources;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• identification of conceptual categories and linguistic designations;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• elaboration of definitions;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• presentation of terminographic work using OntoTerm®</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I. INTRODUCTION

Topic 1: What is Terminology?
   Unit 1. Views on Terminology
   Unit 2. Functions and users

II. THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF TERMINOLOGY

Topic 2: Approaches to Terminology
   Unit 3. General Terminology Theory
   Unit 4. Communicative Theory of Terminology
   Unit 5. Sociocognitive Theory of Terminology
   Unit 6. Frame-Based Terminology Theory

Topic 3: Approaches to terminology work
   Unit 7. Prescriptive and descriptive terminology management
   Unit 8. Systematic and ad hoc terminology work. Monolingual and multilingual strategies

III. TERMINOLOGY APPLIED TO TRANSLATION

Topic 4: Basic concepts
   Unit 9. General and specialized discourse: words and terms
   Unit 10. Specialized knowledge units
   Unit 11. Term formation
   Unit 12. Conceptual categories, concepts, and relations
Unit 13. Conceptual systems and multidimensionality

Unit 14. Terminological and conceptual variation in specialized discourse

Unit 15. Terminographic definition

Topic 5: Terminology and the translation process

Unit 16. Terminological needs of the translator

Unit 17. Terminology in translation

Topic 6: Sources of terminology acquisition and documentation

Unit 18. Standard terminographic documentation sources

Unit 19. Terminographic documentation in Internet

Unit 20. The compilation of an ad hoc corpus for terminographic documentation

Unit 21. The role of corpora in the translation documentation process

Topic 7: Analysis and representation of lexical and conceptual knowledge

Unit 22. Structuring lexical and conceptual knowledge

Unit 23. The elaboration of terminographic definitions

Unit 24. MultiTerm®: standard software application for terminological databases

Unit 25. OntoTerm®: software application for terminological knowledge bases
APPENDIX E

TEXTS READABILITY LEVEL RESULTS
## Adaptation 1 text:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
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<td>Number of characters (without spaces)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Number of words</td>
<td>640.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Number of sentences</td>
<td>30.00</td>
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<td>Average number of characters per word</td>
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<tr>
<td>Average number of syllables per word</td>
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<tr>
<td>Average number of words per sentence</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gunning Fog index</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Kincaid Grade level</td>
<td>13.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARI (Automated Readability Index):</td>
<td>13.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMOG</td>
<td>14.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Reading Ease</td>
<td><strong>37.13</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CAT tools text 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of characters (without spaces)</td>
<td>4,223.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of words</td>
<td>753.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of sentences</td>
<td>28.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of characters per word</td>
<td>5.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of syllables per word</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of words per sentence</td>
<td>26.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gunning Fog index</td>
<td>19.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coleman Liau index</td>
<td>16.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Kincaid Grade level</td>
<td>17.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Combined readability scores:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ARI (Automated Readability Index)</td>
<td>18.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMOG</td>
<td>17.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Reading Ease</td>
<td>19.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Communicative translation:

- Number of characters (without spaces): 3,760.00
- Number of words: 709.00
- Number of sentences: 20.00
- Average number of characters per word: 5.30
- Average number of syllables per word: 1.77
- Average number of words per sentence: 35.45

**Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading**

- Gunning Fog index: 21.91

Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:

- Coleman Liau index: 14.59
- Flesch Kincaid Grade level: 19.16
- ARI (Automated Readability Index): 21.27
- SMOG: 18.64
- Flesch Reading Ease: 20.86

Frame semantics 1:

- Number of characters (without spaces): 2,270.00
- Number of words: 429.00
- Number of sentences: 17.00
- Average number of characters per word: 5.29
- Average number of syllables per word: 1.79
- Average number of words per sentence: 25.24

**Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gunning Fog index:</th>
<th>17.74</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coleman Liau index:</td>
<td>14.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Kincaid Grade level:</td>
<td>15.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARI (Automated Readability Index):</td>
<td>16.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMOG</td>
<td>16.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Reading Ease:</td>
<td>30.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Literal translation:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of characters (without spaces):</th>
<th>2,278.00</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of words:</td>
<td>438.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of sentences:</td>
<td>17.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of characters per word:</td>
<td>5.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of syllables per word:</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of words per sentence:</td>
<td>25.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gunning Fog index:</th>
<th>19.26</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coleman Liau index:</td>
<td>13.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Kincaid Grade level:</td>
<td>15.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARI (Automated Readability Index):</td>
<td>15.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMOG</td>
<td>17.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Reading Ease:</td>
<td>30.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Localization 1:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of characters (without spaces):</th>
<th>2,830.00</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of words:</td>
<td>507.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of sentences:</td>
<td>19.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Average number of characters per word:
- 5.58

### Average number of syllables per word:
- 1.91

### Average number of words per sentence:
- 26.68

**Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading**

- **Gunning Fog index:** 18.01

**Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:**

- **Coleman Liau index:** 15.95
- **Flesch Kincaid Grade level:** 17.37
- **ARI (Automated Readability Index):** 18.20
- **SMOG:** 16.71
- **Flesch Reading Ease:** 18.06

### Machine translation:

| Number of characters (without spaces): | 2,743.00 |
| Number of words: | 511.00 |
| Number of sentences: | 24.00 |
| Average number of characters per word: | 5.37 |
| Average number of syllables per word: | 1.81 |
| Average number of words per sentence: | 21.29 |

**Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading**

- **Gunning Fog index:** 15.95

**Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:**

- **Coleman Liau index:** 14.41
- **Flesch Kincaid Grade level:** 14.10
- **ARI (Automated Readability Index):** 14.50
- **SMOG:** 15.14
- **Flesch Reading Ease:** 31.92
### Sight translation 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of characters (without spaces):</td>
<td>3,131.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of words:</td>
<td>587.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of sentences:</td>
<td>26.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of characters per word:</td>
<td>5.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of syllables per word:</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of words per sentence:</td>
<td>22.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gunning Fog index:</td>
<td>16.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coleman Liau index:</td>
<td>14.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Kincaid Grade level:</td>
<td>14.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARI (Automated Readability Index):</td>
<td>14.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMOG:</td>
<td>15.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Reading Ease:</td>
<td>32.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Adaptation 2 (posttest 2015/2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of characters (without spaces):</td>
<td>3,497.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of words:</td>
<td>669.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of sentences:</td>
<td>27.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of characters per word:</td>
<td>5.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of syllables per word:</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of words per sentence:</td>
<td>24.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gunning Fog index:</td>
<td>18.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CAT tools 2

Number of characters (without spaces): 4,406.00
Number of words: 756.00
Number of sentences: 28.00
Average number of characters per word: 5.83
Average number of syllables per word: 1.97
Average number of words per sentence: 27.00

Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading

Gunning Fog index: 21.75

Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:

Coleman Liau index: 17.42
Flesch Kincaid Grade level: 18.15
ARI (Automated Readability Index): 19.52
SMOG: 19.07
Flesch Reading Ease: 13.03

Literal translation 2

Number of characters (without spaces): 2,880.00
Number of words: 625.00
Number of sentences: 35.00
Average number of characters per word: 4.61
Average number of syllables per word: 1.56
Average number of words per sentence: 17.86
Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gunning Fog index:</th>
<th>12.33</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coleman Liau index:</th>
<th>9.66</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Kincaid Grade level:</td>
<td>9.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARI (Automated Readability Index):</td>
<td>9.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMOG:</td>
<td>12.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Reading Ease:</td>
<td><strong>57.14</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Localization 2**

Number of characters (without spaces): 3,341.00
Number of words: 617.00
Number of sentences: 29.00
Average number of characters per word: 5.41
Average number of syllables per word: 1.85
Average number of words per sentence: 21.28

Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gunning Fog index:</th>
<th>16.74</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coleman Liau index:</th>
<th>14.68</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Kincaid Grade level:</td>
<td>14.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARI (Automated Readability Index):</td>
<td>14.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMOG:</td>
<td>15.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Reading Ease:</td>
<td><strong>28.93</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Machine translation 2:**
**Pragmatics and frames:**

Number of characters (without spaces): 2,750.00  
Number of words: 535.00  
Number of sentences: 23.00  
Average number of characters per word: 5.14  
Average number of syllables per word: 1.79  
Average number of words per sentence: 23.26  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gunning Fog index</td>
<td>17.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coleman Liau index</td>
<td>13.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Kincaid Grade level</td>
<td>14.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARI (Automated Readability Index)</td>
<td>14.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMOG</td>
<td>15.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Flesch Reading Ease:** 32.05

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sight translation 2:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of characters (without spaces): 2,817.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of words: 529.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of sentences: 32.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of characters per word: 5.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of syllables per word: 1.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of words per sentence: 16.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gunning Fog index: 14.70</th>
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</table>

*Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coleman Liau index: 13.75</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Kincaid Grade level: 12.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARI (Automated Readability Index): 11.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMOG: 14.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesch Reading Ease: 35.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX F

CURRENT TERMINOLOGY COURSES
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Name</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Description and Links</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Center for</td>
<td>The University</td>
<td>TRST 407 Terminology and Computer-Assisted Translation (CAT) MA</td>
<td>The theoretical and practical aspects of terminology studies, as well as the computer skills required of a translator in today's Language Service Provider (LSP) environment, and mastery of a variety of computer-assisted translation (CAT) tools and the SDL Trados suite. Practical applications of terminology work including advanced Internet research for translation work, terminology &quot;mining&quot; exercises, construction of terminology databases and management of those databases. Terminology theory is situation within the field of translation studies as derived from the discipline of linguistics. <a href="http://www.translation.illinois.edu/courses.html">http://www.translation.illinois.edu/courses.html</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>of Illinois, USA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>Madrid Spain</td>
<td>Terminology Applied to Translation - (791004) MA</td>
<td>This subject will provide an overview of terminology as a discipline from both a theoretical and practical side. It aims to explain the conceptual (semantic) systems of English and Spanish in relation to some of the specialized discourses chosen with the objective of describing their terminological characteristics. In addition, real terminological issues using lexicographical sources (among others) shall be studied, and solved. Finally, terminology databases and bilingual glossaries will be designed and may be developed for use in translation. <a href="https://www1.uah.es/centros_departamentos/departamentos/print_asignatura_v3_en.asp?CodDepto=&amp;CodAsig=791004">https://www1.uah.es/centros_departamentos/departamentos/print_asignatura_v3_en.asp?CodDepto=&amp;CodAsig=791004</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Alcalá</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universitat</td>
<td>Barcelona, Spain</td>
<td>Terminology Applied to Translation and Interpreting</td>
<td>The aim of this course is to provide the student with the knowledge of terminology and terminographic (terminology management) resources and text corpus management needed in translation and interpreting. At the end of the course, students should be able to: 1) demonstrate basic knowledge in multilingual terminography and terminology; 2) apply this knowledge when using resources for extracting terminological information; and 3) apply this knowledge to text corpus management tools to generate co-occurrences and concordances. <a href="http://www.uab.cat/doc/101488">http://www.uab.cat/doc/101488</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autònoma de</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NYU School</td>
<td>New York, USA</td>
<td>TRAN1-CE8008 Introduction to CAT and</td>
<td>Understand the basic concepts and components of CAT tools and terminology management using a few of the more common options available. Learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

306
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>City, Country</th>
<th>Course Code</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bellevue College Continuing Education</td>
<td>Bellevue, WA, USA</td>
<td>TRANS 105: Terminology Management &amp; Research</td>
<td>This is a hybrid class: the first session meets at North Campus, 14673 NE 29th Place, and instruction occurs online or at North Campus as directed by the course syllabus. Students develop skills in terminology research, dictionary usage, and glossary building. Basic terminology in the fields of medicine, law, computers, business, and international trade are covered.</td>
<td><a href="https://www.sps.nyu.edu/professional-pathways/courses/TRAN1-CE8008-introduction-to-cat-and-terminology-management.html">https://www.sps.nyu.edu/professional-pathways/courses/TRAN1-CE8008-introduction-to-cat-and-terminology-management.html</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kent State University</td>
<td>Kent, OH, USA</td>
<td>TRST 60011: Terminology &amp; Computer Applications</td>
<td>This course focuses on the role of terminology in these contexts: - Terminology management - Corpus management - Terminology extraction (term/information mining) - Creating text corpora for terminology &amp; information management - Text alignment - Translation memory &amp; text editing - Other translation-related applications, systems, and programs - Concept systems, thesauri, and ontology systems</td>
<td><a href="http://www.campusce.net/BC/Course/print.aspx?2164">http://www.campusce.net/BC/Course/print.aspx?2164</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The terminology component of the course will comprise:
- A theoretical aspect consisting of lectures and readings on terminology management
- A practice-oriented aspect based on the use of SDL MultiTerm 2011 and the related SDL Professional Suite of tools
- The practical aspect will include the following projects:
  - Small group work to create a multilingual termbase treating the terminology related to bicycles, as well as translating related materials
  - Project or subject-field-related individual terminology project
  - Exercises using translation memory, term extraction, text alignment, etc.

Source: *Course Syllabus*, Kent State University (2013)