Motivation, Autonomy and Assessment in Translation Studies BA Classes

Doctoral (PhD) Dissertation

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Abstract

The present dissertation explored motivation, autonomy and assessment in BA Translation Studies classes with the ultimate aims to explore how motivated and autonomous students are and to design and validate a new tool for assessing translations. Translation skills and competences were overviewed, available schools and programmes were analyzed, models of motivation and autonomy were examined, assessment scales were studied and compared. Sixty-five BA students, nine teacher-raters, one business expert and the head of the translation studies programme participated in the five empirical studies conducted between 2016 and 2020 at the University of Pécs offering a translation studies programme for BA students. In order to collect the data, mixed methods approach was used: questionnaires consisting of open-ended and Likert-type items, student essays, documents and semi-structured interviews revealed how motivation and autonomy worked in a translation studies BA specialization context. For studying assessment practices, student translations were collected, analyzed in multiple ways, and assessed by expert raters. The student questionnaire, the student essays and the follow-up interviews revealed the most important motivational factors which directed students to study translation, and the factors students found motivating or demotivating in their training. The research project also explored how autonomous they were in their studies. Furthermore, the course syllabi helped me gain insigtht into classroom practices and the special learning environment, as well as teachers' attitudes towards autonomy.

Concerning motivation, the findings showed that the majority of the participating students chose translation for instrumental motives: they saw its potential as a future bread-winning profession, although they were at the very beginning of the path leading to translator autonomy. Research into the assessment practices applied by participating teachers brought a poblematic assessment scale into focus, resulting in a validation study to create a new, fairer, more objective and more reliable tool to evaluate translations. The new scale, named PIER, which is the revised version of Kockert and Segers' Preselected Items Evaluation (2017) method was piloted and found promising with high reliability values, however, further research is necessary to improve it to become an even more reliable and valid instrument for assessing students' translations.

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List of abbreviations and acronyms

BA	Bachelor o
CDI	Calibration Dichotomous Items
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CIUTI	Conference Internationale Permanente d'Institutions Universitaries de Traducteurs et Interprètes
cr	credit
CRM	Customer Relationship Management
DCM	Directed Motivational Currents
EMT	European Master in Translation
EN	English
EU	European Union
HU	Hungarian
ID	Individual Differences
ISO	International Organization for Standardization
IT	Information Technology
KMI	Knowledge Management Instruments
L1	First language
L2	Second language
LSC	Language Service Companies
LSP	Language Service Providers
MA	Master of Arts
MT	Mother tongue
NAATI	National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters in Australia
PE	post editing
PIE	Preselected Items Evaluation

PM	Project Management
SLA	Second language acquisition
ST	Source text
TL	Target language
TQA	Translation Quality Assessment
TransCend	Trans-European Voluntary Certification for Translators
TS	Translation Studies
TT	Target text

Introduction

"Translation itself is motivating for me, especially

if I can cope with it."

(Student interviews, P2)

Rationale for the research

Although motivation, autonomy and assessment seem to be well researched areas in L2 acquisition, so far not much attention has been dedicated to them in the much narrower field of translation, which has gained primary importance in the context of the European Union. However, lay people tend to think that in order to become a translator, it is enough to know two languages, including the mother tongue, reasonably well. It is a prerequisite, of course, but speaking the mother tongue well will not make one a renowned linguist or translator.

While translators are often seen primarily as language professionals, their knowledge and skills extend far beyond their language pairs. Working as a translator requires an extensive background knowledge of the source and target languages and cultures, as well as the subject matter of the text, the purpose of the translation, who the target audience is, and translation methods and strategies suitable for different cultures and communication situations. Even possessing all these qualities might not be sufficient: to become a professional translator, one definitely has to think of the painstaking details he has to take care of while fulfilling his tasks, the endless working hours, crouching at a computer, hunting for answers for problems and expressions which, at first sight, may seem to be untranslatable.

Even without going into further details we can see that doing translation as a profession needs exceptional dedication. One has to be highly motivated to learn all the skills and aspects required for doing this kind of work, and, as translation is an autonomous activity by definition, a dedicated and motivated translator-candidate has to learn to work autonomously.

The evergreen question of wether translators are born or made, was first raised by Nida (1981). His statement that translators are born, not made started a hot debate with those who think differently and claim that translation skills are learned through training and practice (Gouadec, 2007; Limon, 2010). It is increasingly recognized that formal training in translation schools – including universities – is the most effective way to teach and learn translation skills and to test translators' abilities to provide the market with reliable professionals (Kiraly, 2000; Nadstoga, 2008; Pym, 2012). However, looking at the problem from the viewpoint of translation students, the main questions are as follows: What motivates prospective translators to learn all the painstaking nuances to pursue a profession they do not have enough information about? How autonomous are they when, finishing their studies, they start to work in the chosen field? In the case of institutional training, exploring how their translations are evaluated has primary importance, as translators will be weighed on the market of translators by the quality of their translations.

The context of the study I conducted to answer these questions was the University of Pécs which offers a translation studies program for BA students. However, the seemingly easy access to participants and data did not prove to be easy at all. My plan to implement a study with the participation of the second and third year students in the academic year of 2016-2017 had to be modified as I proceeded, mostly because of the unwillingness of the students to become participants in a research. Due to the low number of volunteers I repeated the data collection procedure in the next academic year (2017-2018). However, the data I could collect, is representative of the University of Pécs programme, and offers an insight into the nature of translator training at BA level, highlighting its values and shortcomings.

My aim was to explore participants' motivation and autonomy, and how their translations are assessed in the programme, with a special focus on how students' motivation and autonomy interact with assessment practices used in the translation courses. In addition, I designed, piloted, and validated a new assessment tool in order to make the assessment of translations more valid and reliable than the current practice in the programme. Unfortunataley, this phase was hindered by a pandemic which turned the world knowb for us upside down: due to Covid 19, reaching volunteers to participate was nearly impossible, a fact which made the research period much longer than expected.

As the present dissertation addresses problems which cannot be researched by using exclusively quantitative or qualitative measures, the findings are based on the use of a mixed methods. approach. The following section outlines the structure of the dissertation.

An overview of the dissertation

The dissertation addresses three different but interrelated fields of language pedagogy and their cross-sections the discipline of translation studies. The text is organized in three main parts, each comprising an overview of the relevant research literature and an empirical study conducted, as illustrated in Table 1.

Part I is dedicated to exploring learner motivation in Translation Studies (TS). Chapter 1 provides an overview of the discipline in focus. It gives an introduction into Translation Studies, explains what translation students are expected to know, where they can acquire the necessary knowledge, and how satisfied they are with their studies.

Chapter 2 first focuses on motivationin general by explaining the construct, comparing and contrasting different definitions of the term. Then the narrower field of translation is discussed by investigating the role of motivation in TS classes, motivating and demotivating factors are identified, instruments for measuring this seemingly unmeasurable construct are introduced: questionnaires, interviews and documents. The section on questionnaires describes how this data elicitation instrument can be constructed and used. The application of interview and documents such as student essays and course syllabi as data collection instruments are discussed in a similar fashion.

Chapter 3 discusses the empirical study conducted in order to collect data on student motivation in the Translation Studies BA classes. To draw the background, sections 3.1 and 3.2 offer an outline of translator training programs in Hungary and at the University of Pécs, where the research was conducted. Section 3.3 presents the rationale for research methodology, along with the research questions for Study 1. It also describes the context, the participants, the data collection instruments, as well as the procedures and phases of data collection, and, finally, the analysis of the dataset. For an overview of the main research questions see Table 1. The three phases of this study, each conducted with different data elicitation instruments (student essays, follow-up interviews, student questionnaire), are discussed in individual sections.

Chapter 4, Part II deals with autonomy, first in L2 acquisition in general. The section on learner autonomy (4.2) offers a range of definitions and an overview of milestone models. It also examines how learner autonomy is represented in the course syllabi of the translation studies programme and how motivation and learner autonomy are related. Section 4.3 is about teacher autonomy, also comparing definitions, and discussing how it can be traced in the course syllabi, followed by a discussion of how autonomy works in the L2 classroom, and in translation studies seminars in particular. The interdependence of learner and teacher autonomy essential in creating a student-centered, autonomous learning environment is discussed in section 4.4.

The empirical part of Chapter 4 on the degree of autonomy of displayed by BA students specializing in translation is forestalled by a short literature review of autonomy in translation (4.5). This small-scale study seeks answers to two research questions, as shown in Table 1, using questionnaire as a data collection instrument.

Part III, which puts assessment in Translation Studies classes in the focus, comprises of three empirical studies with thegoal of exploring the assessment practices in Hungary, especially at the Univerity of Pécs, and developing an assessment instrument which includes the best features of existing grading scales, and, at the same time, eliminates their drawbacks. To achieve this goal, the assessment scales of numerous institutions were examined and compared, including the one currently used to evaluate translations at the University of Pécs. The small-scale study discussed in Chapter 5 examined how this scale worked by analyzing inter-rater and intra-rater reliability. The findings indicated the necessity of a new, more valid and more reliable intrument, a norm-referenced method which is independent of priori judgments about the source text, based on the practice of using preselected items, presupposing a dichotomous approach of the text segments: a translated segment is either acceptable (correct) or not.

Chapter 6 focuses on the steps of working toward new assessment tool named PIER (PIE Revised), the adaptation of Kockaert and Segers' (2017; Van Egdom et al., 2019) norm-referenced assessment method called Preselected Items Evaluation (PIE). Section 6.1 contains a preliminary study on the lexical characteristics of 14 student translations. The aim of this small-scale study was to establish the lexical quality and readability of the translated texts before being assessed by expert-raters in order to provide pre-assessment information for the raters concerning what to expect and what to focus on. Section 6.2 reports the details of developing and piloting the new tool, PIER for assessing translations. Comparing it to the 'old' UP scale, advantages and disadvantages are identified based on assessment data and rater opinion.

Chapter 7 draws the final conclusions about what was analyzed and discussed in the three main parts of the dissertation; findings concerning each study are summarized and integrated. Finally, the last section outlines possible limitations of the research, the pedagogical implications of the studies, and suggestions for further research.

Table 1
The overview of the main research questions

Research questions	Data elicitation instruments	Participants	Method of analysis
PART I, Study 1: BA students' motivation in TS classes			
Why do BA students choose translation as a specialization?	Student essays; Student interviews; Student questionnaires	8 BA students; 3 BA students; 24 BA students	Content analysis, Statistical analysis
What language background do they have when they roll up for the course?			Content analysis, Statistical analysis
Which are the most important contributing factors to student motivation in BA translation classes?			Content analysis Statistical analysis
What do students find most motivating and demotivating in their classes?			Content analysis Statistical analysis
How do they want to use their translation skills after graduating?	Student interviews Student questionnaires	3 BA students; 24 BA students	Content analysis, Statistical analysis
PART II, study 2: Learner autonomy in TS classes			
How autonomous are BA students specializing in translation?	Student questionnaire	24 BA students	Content analysis, Statistical analysis
How does the BA specialization program support learner autonomy?	Student questionnaires; Syllabi	24 BA students; 4teachers	Content analysis, Statistical analysis
How do syllabi serve autonomy and motivation in translation classes?	Syllabi	4 teachers	Content analysis, Statistical analysis
How does teacher and learner autonomy affect student motivation?	Student questionnaire; Syllabi	24 BA students; 4 teachers	Content analysis Statistical analysis
PART III: Assessing translations Study 3: An inquiry into how the 'old UP scale' of assessment worked			
How does the rating scale in use work in terms of inter-rater reliability?	Rated exam translations (2016); Rating scale used at UP Teacher interviews	16 BA students; 4 teacher-raters	Statistical analysis Content analysis
How consistent the raters were in their assessment?	Rated exam translations (2016); Rating scale used at UP;	16 BA students; five teacher-raters	Statistical analysis Content analysis

	Teacher interviews		
How do the raters evaluate the assessment instrument system they apply to assess translation students' work?	Teacher interviews;	4 teacher-raters; head of the translation specialization program	Content analysis
What modifications would they recommend to make the scale more suitable/appropriate for assessing translation tests?	Interviews;	4 teacher-raters; head of the translation specialization program	Content analysis
Study 4: Lexical characteristics and readability of the translated texts chosen for assessment			
What are the most important lexical characteristics of BA students' HU – EN translations?	Unrated translations (2020 Compleat LexTutor Coh-Metrix	14 BA students	Statistical analysis
What readability can be predicted for the texts in focus?	Unrated translations (2020) Compleat LexTutor Coh-Metrix	14 BA students	Statistical analysis
Study 5: Working towards a new assessment tool (PIER)			
How many preselected items are necessary to create a norm-referenced, sufficiently discriminating translation assessment tool?	The source text of the translation test	5 expert raters; 1 financial expert	Content analysis
How does PIER perform in use? - How does it discriminate different qualities in translation? - In which ways does it improve inter-rater reliability? - Does it help raters to become more consistent in their assessment?	Rated translations (2020) The new assessment tool (PIER) SPSS	14 BA students (the translators); 5 expert raters	Statistical analysis
How do the raters evaluate the new tool (PIER) compared to the 'old' UP scale?	The new assessment tool (PIER), The 'old' UP scale Rater questionnaire	5 expert raters	Content analysis
Is PIER a suitable to be a tool for assessing translations?	Rater questionnaire	5 expert raters	Content analysis

Part I

What are Translation Studies about?

"As intercultural communication experts, translators require extensive knowledge to carry out their roles."
(Risku, Dickinson, & Pircher, 2010, p. 89)

Chapter 1

1.1 Introduction

Translation Studies is a subject that "focuses its professional attention in all forms of transfer of written, spoken or signed texts in one language (the source language) into texts of related meaning or effect in another (the target language)" (Laver & Mason, 2018, p. 146). Applied Translation Studies is concerned with the training of translators, the policy and regulation of their qualification, norms and working conditions. As an independent academic discipline, it grew to recognition in the seventies and eighties, and, because of its perspective to include cultural, historical and ideological aspects, it has expanded into an interdisciplinary subject since then (Laver & Mason, 2018).

Many people think that professional translation is only a matter of languages; that anyone who learnt translation at school or who is somewhat fluent in a foreign language can become a translator. Weber (1989, p. 6) calls it an "image problem", emphasizing that language knowing is essential, but insufficient. There are people who speak two languages at a high level, yet have great difficulty in transferring information from one language to the other (Gouadec, 2007; Nida, 1981). If we add that translating means converting a text in one language into "as nearly as possible a functionally or linguistically equivalent text in another" (Laver & Mason, 2018, p. 141), we immediately see that it is a highly complex process, as it is reflected in the many definitions throughout the related literature (Table 2). The "equivalence between source and target texts embraces both semantic and pragmatic meaning, and style" (Laver & Mason, 2018, p. 142), and it is also the core concept concerning translation quality (House, 2015). However, the degree of resemblance may vary according to the purpose of the translation and the intended audience.

Table 2
Definitions of "translation" by different authors

Author	**Definition**
Catford (1965, p. 20)	the replacement of textual material in one language by equivalent textual material in another language
Wilss (1982, p. 3)	a transfer process, which aims at the transformation of a written SL text into an optimally equivalent TL text, and which requires the syntactic, the semantic and the pragmatic understanding and analytical processing of the SL
Nida (1984, p. 83)	consists of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style
Reiss (1989, p. 161)	a bilingual mediated process of communication which ordinarily aims at the production of a TL text that is functionally equivalent to a SL text
Bell (1991, p. 8)	involves the transfer of meaning from a text in one language into a text in another language
Spivak (1992, pp. 398-400)	the most intimate act of reading… when the translator surrenders to the text and responds to the special call of the text
Robinson (1997, p. 74)	an intelligent activity, a constant learning cycle involving complex processes of conscious and unconscious learning, …requiring creative problem-solving in novel, textual, social, and cultural conditions, in conscious analytical ways
Gouadec (2007, p. 21)	importing or exporting ideas, concepts, rationales, thought processes, discourse structures, services, myth across cultures
Baker (2011, p. 5)	a process which is intended to find meaning equivalence in the target text
Levý (2011, p. 23)	a process of communication in which translators decode the message contained in the text of the original author and encode it into their own language
Robinson (2012, p. 6)	different things for different groups of people. For people who are not translators, it is primarily a text; for people who are, it is primarily an activity that aims at the production of a text
House, (2015, p. 2)	the result of a linguistic-textual operation in which a text in one language is re-contextualized in another language
Laver and Mason (2018, p. 142)	the process and the product of all forms of transfer of written, spoken or signed texts originating in one language (the source language) into texts that resemble them in some way in another

So professional translators, except mastering at least two languages (the mother tongue and the target language) are highly skilled experts. They, beyond absolute linguistic proficiency, have to possess a perfect, or at least very good knowledge of the relevant cultural, technical, legal, commercial background, also a full understandding of the subjects involved, not to mention the sophisticated IT tools and software they must be able to use (Gile, 2009; Gouadec, 2007; Nida, 1981; Risku, Dickinson, & Pircher, 2010; Robinson, 2012). Linguistic creativity is also an important feature, especially in case of literary translations (Eco, 2004; Kenny, 2014). Although some researchers of the field may think differently (Fazekas & Sárosi-Márdirosz, 2015); with a few exceptions, translators are not born. Translation skills are learned, either through training or practice, even if in most countries anyone can become a translator if they have some prior inclination and qualities for the job (Gouadec, 2007; Limon, 2010).

In general, people tend to come into the profession from two directions: (1) from the so called language sector, and (2) from the world of industry, including experts from the most various fields, including commerce, law, mathematics, engineering, medicine, etc. Whatever their background may be, good translators must share certain qualities: the perfect mastery of their two languages, multi-cultural competence, good familiarity with the domains they specialize in through their education and a deep knowledge of what translation requires (Gile, 2009; Gouadec, 2007; Risku, Dickinson, & Pircher, 2010; Robinson, 2012). In this context, the debate on whether "translators are born or made" (Nida, 1981), seems pointless. While no one denies that certain natural qualities can be advantageous in high-quality, especially literary translation, it would be difficult for natural talents to unfold without proper training (Gile, 2009; 2010).

It is increasingly recognized that formal training in translation schools – including universities – is the most effective way to teach skills and test abilities to provide the market with reliable professionals (Kiraly, 2000; Nadstoga, 2008; Pym, 2012). As a result, the number of translator training programs has been spectacularly increasing over the past two to three decades in many parts of the world; the study of translation and translator training have become an integral element of intercultural relations and the transmission of scientific and technological knowledge (Gile, 2009; Koskinen, 2010). However, the diversity of situations, needs and relevant variables and parameters is enormous; extended research is required to be able to discriminate between excellent, good and sub-optimal methods on a solid basis (Robinson, 2012). The most intriguing questions are how the existing programs can help students to learn to translate and what the best ways are to help them retain the linguistic and cultural knowledge and master the learning and translation skills they will need to become effective and successful professionals. If translation is viewed as a special kind of writing, then the relevant writing skills need to be learned, as well as the mastery of new genres and styles of discourse in a target language (Limon, 2010).

When describing the prevailing pedagogical assumptions in translator training programs Robinson (2012) states that “there is no substitute for practical experience – to learn how to translate one must translate, translate, translate – and there is no way to accelerate that process without damaging students’ ability to detect errors in their own work” (p. 1). While “faster” is advantageous in the professional world, as it may – provided that translators do their work accurately – result in higher payment, in the pedagogical world it can easily become the synonym of careless, sloppy and superficial attitude, and also can foster bad habits. The primary emphasis should be placed on a pedagogy that “balances conscious analysis with subliminal discovery and assimilation” (Robinson, 2012, p. 2). The more consciously, analytically, rationally and systematically the students are expected to process the materials presented, the more slowly those materials are internalized. This is a good thing, as professional translators often need to be able to slow down to examine a problematic world or expression, and slow analysis can be a powerful source of new knowledge.

It is generally accepted that translator training can take many forms. According to Pym (2012), the majority of professional translators in the world probably have had no training in translation beyond experience, which should not be underestimated. At the next level, there are short-term training courses, which offer their students the required competences. These courses might involve new translation technologies, area-restricted technology or specific communication skills. Finally, there are long-term training programs offered by different institutions, increasingly by universities at BA or MA levels dating back to the second half of the twentieth century. This relatively late development is the reason why most practicing translators have probably not received formal training.

Most researchers agree that the training of professional translators is based essentially on professional experience, intuition and negotiations between trainers on methods rather on research, whereas at language departments of universities translation is essentially part of instruction (Gile, 2009). There is no use to start translator training until students read a source language accurately, write in their target language effectively, and research their information lacunae competently, said Rose (2008), arguing that translator training can be described as elitist in some parts of the world, e. g. in the US. Training in literary translation simply assumes that the students already have their skills in foreign and native language usage under control and lets them proceed to develop their own resources as writers. These are formidable prerequisites implying privilege.

When examining formal translator training, we can conclude that it can perform at least two important functions. One is to help translator candidates enhance their performance to the full realization of their potential. The other one is to develop their skills more rapidly and effectively than through experience and self-instruction. Formal training programs can also help raise professional standards by selecting the best candidates at admission and standardize working methods. Finally, they provide excellent observation opportunities for research into translation (Gile, 2009).

The prestige of training highly depends on the relative status of translators' educational qualifications (Pym, Grin, Sfreddo, & Chan, 2011); however, the specific legal status of educational qualifications when translators are recruited or hired is an issue. It is assumed to depend on who recruits or hires. As has been discussed, almost anyone can be called a "translator", the title is virtually unprotected. There are, however, some exceptions, and different countries have different ways of protecting who can translate. In most European countries, especially if recruitment happens by intergovernmental institutions or national governments, translators need to be professionally qualified with a degree either in translation and interpreting or in the languages concerned (Slovakia, Germany, Hungary, Spain, Greece), although there are ways of getting around this requirement. However, within the European Commission the translator-candidate "has to be successful in an open competition; must have two foreign languages and a university degree, not necessarily in languages, meaning that candidates do not require a degree or diploma in translation" (Pym et al., 2011, p. 14). In case of recruitment by translation companies, three requirements are emphasized: (1) formal higher education in translation (recognized degree); (2) an equivalent qualification in any other subject plus a minimum of two years of documented experience in translating; or (3) at least five years of documented professional experience in translating (Pym et al., 2011). Thus, a degree in translation might be regarded as a rough equivalent of five years of professional experience.

Therefore, for future translators the question often is whether to study or not to study. If we think of translators as intercultural communication experts, and the extensive knowledge they require – both tacit and explicit – to carry out their roles and continually refer to this knowledge throughout the translation process, as well as the formal training opportunities offered by universities and other institutions, the answer is a definite yes.

1.2 What competences do prospective translators need?

Translation competence comprises the different abilities, skills (linguistic, cultural, technological), knowledge and attitudes that translators need to possess to generate target language versions from a source text and to select from these the one that fits the brief for the task (Kelly, 2005; Laver & Mason, 2018; Pym, 1992, 2003). When training translation students we must first ask what knowledge, skills and attitudes professional translators have that students do not yet have, and how we can create an appropriate learning environment for acquiring such skills and knowledge (Kiraly, 1995). Relevant literature (Chesterman, 2005; Dickinson, 2002; Risku et al., 2010) distinguishes five important categories of knowledge used and required by translators: (1) language, linguistic and translation knowledge; (2) country and cultural knowledge; (3) general and subject matter knowledge; (4) client and business knowledge; (5) information technology and computer skills. As Table 3 shows, the listed types of knowledge and skills all could all be included in the syllabus of any translation training institution.

Table 3 *Types of required knowledge, its' most important aspects and instruments (based on Risku et al., 2010).*

Type of knowledge	**Aspects**	**Instruments**
Language, linguistic and translation knowledge	grammar, terminology, regional and professional conventions, register and writing conventions, translation methodologies and strategies, project management	glossaries, databases, style guides, terminology guidelines, handbooks
Country and cultural knowledge	economic, legal and regulatory requirements, conventional linguistic and cultural differences	databases, websites, literature, media
General and subject matter knowledge	reference material, journals, industry guidelines	databases, publications, knowledge portals, expert systems, knowledge and topic maps
Client and business knowledge	terminology, glossaries, contact, reference material, stylistic guidelines, industry information	CRM (customer relationship management) and PM (project management) tools, style guidelines, terminologies, knowledge portals
IT and computer skills	communication, desktop publishing and translation tools, formatting guidelines	user manuals, handbooks

The primary objective of university-level translation programs, which is the focus of present paper, is to provide prospective translators with the types of knowledge and skills they will need to function as professional mediators between writers and readers of different languages, as Kiraly claimed (1995). While translators are often seen primarily as language professionals, their knowledge and skills extend far beyond their language pairs. Translation requires extensive background knowledge of the source and target languages and cultures, as well as the subject matter of the text, the purpose of the translation, the requirements of the target audience and the translation methods and strategies suitable for different cultures and communication situations.

Although long-term translation training offered at universities, as Pym (2012) stated, is a relatively new form, other forms of extensive formal training programs existed in the expansive empires, e. g., in the very sophisticated Chinese institutions for the translation of Buddhist texts. European colonizations were also associated with some kind of translator training, mainly at the points where civilizations met. A good example for that is the Oriental Academy which was founded by Empress Maria Theresa in Vienna in 1754 (Pym, 2012, p. 314). When an institution was established, it usually happened with the basic aim to insure a certain quality of teaching and performance. The world wars provided further needs for the institualization of formal training; especially the Second World War when translation schools and independent university-level institutions were founded in the bordering regions of the "Third Reich". Rooting in the needs of diplomacy, the Nuremberg trials definitely highlighted the role of highly qualified translators and interpreters. By the 1960s, a string of specialized institutions was developed all over Europe, and translator training was integrated into foreign language institutes, which is still a model in some European countries. Since the 1990s translator training has been centered at universities, or if the training is offered by another institution, there is typically some kind of relationship with a university (Ségiunot, 2008). The value of translator education has been increasingly presumed at least in training circles and the discussion has progressed to the issues of what and how it should be taught (Kearns, 2008).

According to Pym (2012; 2014), university translation courses are most often offered as part of degree programs in foreign languages, imparting knowledge and skills which are specific to translation. In most cases training involves a language department, which runs the program with the participation of their teaching staff. Training can be divided into full long-term training (BA followed by MA, adding up to five years) or MA-level programs (one, or more typically two years). Nadstoga (2008) gave a good example for this in his paper when describing translator training as an important component of a teacher training program offered by the Institute of English at Adam Mickiewicz University, Posnan. It is a graduate program which offers an MA degree in English. Translation is offered in the third and fourth years. It is not considered as an aim but a means for improving the students' practical command of English and, as was suggested by Kiraly (2000) and his followers, translation is taught by applied linguists with considerable experience in translation. Generally, in the long-term model, students are usually required to complete solid training courses in language and communication skills and then specialize in their final years. MA level programs, on the other hand, rather focus on translator skills.

Although university-level training has become one of the main ways to address translator training, it has certain caveats: according to some researchers, it generally does not serve market needs; it is inefficient, sometimes even misleading, too theoretical, and out of touch with market developments (Gouadec, 2007). To bring the training closer to the market might include inviting professionals into the classroom (Pym, 2012; 2013). It is generally agreed that learning the necessary skills should always be based on the combination of instruction and practice (Kiraly, 2000). Kiraly distinguishes "translation competence" and "translator competence", the former refers to training mostly associated with linguistic skills which are needed to produce acceptable translations, whereas the latter concerns a wide range of interpersonal skills and attitudes.

As research into the field of translator training shows the need of formal instruction, which is more and more connected to universities, is undoubtedly necessary. However, it is full of challenges that mainly concern pedagogical practice and curriculum design (Pym, 2012). The steady growth in research, especially studies indicating the ways current training is failing might help to answer the question of what to teach and how to teach.

The European Master's in Translation (EMT) expert group, a quality label for MA university programmes in translation worked out a descripitive model that „serves as a recommendation for translator training institutions" (Eszenyi, 2016, p. 18), where the objective should be to educate translators who are equipped with all six competences included (Figure 1). These competences make up a full circle, with translation service provision in the centre, which is the core of a translator's activity. In this model, the translator is a service provider, as the name of the competence also suggests, and should be able to handle the most different tasks from translating to invoicing. This competence is not taught at translator training institutions, but EMT highly recommends including it, teaching prospective translators about prices, giving a price offer, translation assignments, client requirements, framework agreements, deadlines, time management, working in teams on longer texts. Translator's self-assessment is also an important aspect in the description of translator services provision.

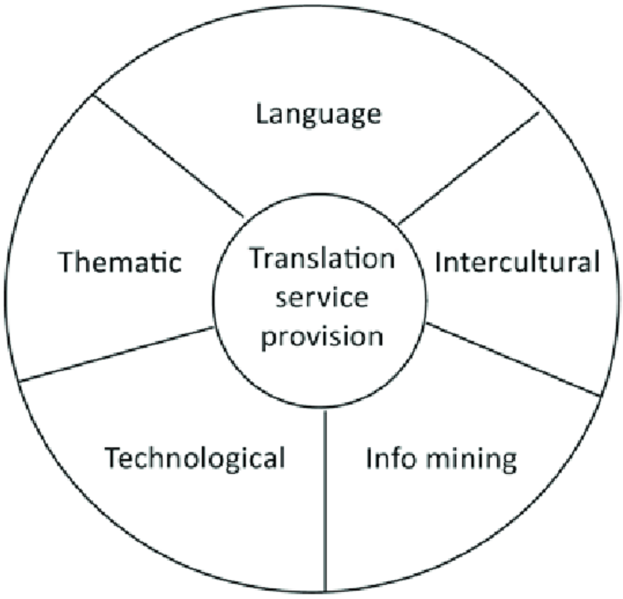


Figure 1

The descriptive model of translator competences
(Eszenyi, 2016, p. 19; EMT, 2009)

The competences included in this model are not much different from the ones that already have been discussed, however, they are described in a different way, focusing on the interrelated features a translator, at least at professional level, should possess in our rapidly changing world. Language competence contains an excellent command of the mother tongue, and a similarly good command of a foreign language at Level C1 at least in the CEFR. Excellent knowledge of the mother tongue (L1) is of high importance and has to be beyond good writing skills, as translation is also a creative process (Eszenyi, 2016; Kussmaul, 2015).

The intercultural competence consists of a sociolinguistic and textual aspect. To acquire the necessary skills translators should become aware of the differences between their working cultures at both dimensions. "The target language text should be written in a way that can fulfil its aim with the target audience" (Eszenyi, 2016, p. 23).

Information mining competence involves identifying elements in the source text that need to be looked up, a process which can result in compiling glossaries from the findings of this word hunting activity. The collected information is stored in a systematic order in this way, and the glossaries can be used in later translation assignments. This should not mean a problem in our electronic age, when mastering the use of computers and software has become a must for every translator, and also should be part of the teaching material and training institutions (Austermühl, 2014).

Technological competence is also essential in the mirror of our rapidly changing technological environment. The application of CAT tools has become extensive in translation, but "only for those who are ready to learn how to use them" (Eszenyi, 2016, p. 25). Except technological knowledge, using these tools demands an investment of time and money by the translator.

Thematic competence includes the knowledge of the typical text types (legal, technical, medical, etc.), concepts and terminology. As a translator cannot master all trades, it is sensible to specialize in a field (Eszenyi, 2016, p. 26).

Eszenyi also offers a complex description of modern translator (2016, pp. 26-27), who is

- an entrepreneur who knows their place in the market, the opportunities and how to run a business,
- a linguist who is not content to have just a C1 level in a foreign language, but… undertakes research if questions arise in order to find the answers;
- an expert whose linguistic and thematic knowledge in several languages and objects goes beyond average, their competences are dynamic and follow the changes in the translation profession, languages and the world;
- is a technician who devotes time and energy to acquiring the use of CAT tools and is able to manage editing and search programmes, online databases and dictionaries.

The above listed qualities describe translators as people who have extraordinary abilities, an assumption which might not be true. As we know from Nida (1981), they are not necessarily born with these qualities; these can be learnt in the translator training programs of different institutions, including universities.

1.3 How satisfied are translators with their studies?

The previous section of the chapter focused on what translators and translation students have to know and to be able to do to pursue their profession successfully; what kind of training they can get in different countries, including Hungary. In 2016 a research was conducted which examined how satisfied translators were with the situation of their business, and with the training they had accomplished, if they had attended a program.

The results of the research were published by Sarah Henter (2016) of *Henter & Asociados, SL*, a company which, according to Henter's LinkedIn profile, offers translation and creation of texts for the pharmaceutical industry, medical services, clinical trials and apps (https://www.linkedin.com/in/sarahhenter/?locale=en_US). "The translation industry is one of the few that were not heavily affected by recession in the last seven years", she claims, adding that translation services are expected to keep growing and reach $37 billion in 2018 (p. 25). Although the US represents the largest market, Europe is close second.

Henter and her colleagues (2016) collected data in an online survey which they sent to major translators' associations, universities and translators asking volunteers to respond. They were interested in demographic data, work-related questions and education satisfaction. In the course of three months they collected answers from 155 volunteers living in 19 European countries (including four respondents from Hungary), in the Americas and in Australia (pp. 27-29). Although the number of respondents is not big, the collected data offers useful insight into the nature of translation, as a profession.

What is interesting for us is the fact that most of the research findings, which represent the "receiving side", i. e. the translators themselves, are very similar to the corresponding data describing the "offering side", i. e. the teaching institutions and the industry. The findings on work-related questions established that the most popular working language was English (29%, nearly one third of the respondents), followed by French (18%), Spanish (17%) and German (11%) (pp. 35-36).

Concerning education satisfaction, the results reinforced what several authors established in their studies (Pym, 2013; 2014; Pym et al., 2011): perhaps due to the lack of formal training, especially at MA level, most of the working professionals do not have any formal qualification. The majority of the respondents (57%) said that they did not hold a Masters or other postgraduate degree (p. 34), while 50% of the participants answered that their studies had prepared them for their current job. Only 37% said that the subjects taught were related to real-life market needs. Concerning teachers, 70% of the respondents agreed that they were well-prepared, and only 14% said they had acquired skills to run a business and work as a freelance translator. Less than the half of the respondents (39%) learned during their studies how to use CAT tools, 54% said that, all in all, they were happy with their university education. The majority (61%) said they would choose the same studies again, whereas 31% would change most of the subjects they had (Henter, 2016, pp.41-45). One third is a high ratio and it shows that the teaching institutions still have a lot to do concerning their translation training programs all over the world. Even if the sample size per country was small, the findings, especially as they very similar to what is discussed in the special literature, can be considered a hint in a certain direction.

1.4 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to frame my research, positioning it in the field of Translation Studies, where it belongs. I overviewed the works of major authors, focusing on the domains of knowledge and skills translators, to be able to do their work, need to possess, the main arenas of translator training, the prevailing pedagogical assumptions in translator training programmes and the different forms they may take.

The relevant literature showed that the requested knowledge and skills are diverse, however, the way they are included in translator training programmes are different, as are the programmes themselves. Some authors describe translator training as offering “everything at every level” (Kóbor & Lehmann, 2018), however, most researchers agree that translation studies are most often offered as part of degree programs at universities, imparting translation specific knowledge and skills (Kiraly, 2000; Nadstoga, 2008; Pym, 2011; 2012; 2014; Ségiunot, 2008) in the frames of long-term and short training.

The knowledge and skills translators need extend far beyond the language pairs they use for their work, including extensive background knowledge of the source and target languages and cultures, as well as the subject matter of the text, the purpose of the translation, the requirements of the target audience etc. As translations are often made for a special market, acquiring high-level client and business knowledge also has become part of the instruction. Even being a good translator is not always enough. In our modern world, it is necessary to master technical skills, which enable translators to rely on online sources and tools that help to meet the formatting guidelines and produce edited, publishable texts.

As it was highlighted in Chapter 1, translation is a highly complex activity, which, besides knowledge and skills, presumes characteristics defining wether a person is suitable for the profession or not. The first, and perhaps the most important such characteristic is motivation, which gives direction to everything an individual does and stimulates one to act in a focused and consistent way to reach the aim of the given activity (Józsa, Wang, Barrett, & Morgan, 2014).

Chapter 2
Motivation in second language acquisition

"Motivation… energizes human behavior and gives it direction."

(Dörnyei, 1998, p. 11)

2.1 Introduction

BA students majoring in English at the University of Pécs are offered to take up one of a selection of specializations at one point of their studies. In the translation studies classes students learn the basic skills and abilities which are necessary to translate a variety of texts in an intelligent and principled way. During their studies, they also get the opportunity to acquire knowledge that will equip them with the ability to use what they learnt in a constructive, solution-oriented manner, and creatively apply their language- and problem-solving skills. According to the website of the university (www.pte.hu), English majors at BA level, have a good chance to become professionals who can use the English language at advanced (C1) level and are able to interpret, mediate and create colloquial, cultural, economic, political, social, linguistic and literary texts in a responsible manner.

All these seem to be in accordance with the requirements of the globalized world we live in. The establishment of official multilingualism in world organizations such as the European Union, the presence of multinational companies throughout the world, and the new waves of migration resulted in a major incentive for massive translation activity at the turn of the 20th and the 21st centuries. Linked to this type of incentive is the official recognition of the rights of linguistic groups and individuals not speaking the local languages to be provided with interpreters and translators in courts and offices in everyday situations, as well as official documents in their own languages, and in the language which seems to be the lingua franca in or new world – English. As a result, the discipline of applied linguistics has come to include interculturality as an area of study due to worldwide changes that are best expressed in the words globalization and internationalization (Dombi, 2013; Holliday, Hyde, & Kullman, 2004; Menyhei, 2014). Today, it would appear that the main impetus for studying translation is the official policies which recognize and support linguistic heterogeneity, including official bilingualism (Baker, 2001). Therefore, when students decide to take up translation as a specialization, they might act in response to the needs of the surrounding world, where they are likely to encounter not only people with a set of beliefs, values, ideologies and behaviors very different from their own, but also multilingual-multicultural texts, which may hold a variety of beliefs, values and ideologies. To become successful participants of this global community they have to learn how to get one's message across accurately and appropriately (Menyhei, 2014).

If we think of translation as an action that "enables cooperative, functionally adequate communication to take place across cultural barriers" (Baker, 2001, p. 3), it is not difficult to see how inspiring the choice can be for an English major student. There has never been a bigger need for individuals who are able "to meet the challenges imposed by our changed world; in the pluralistic societies that comprise people from different cultural and language backgrounds, representing various hues, nations and religions" (Dombi, 2013, p.11). However, these large-scale ideas usually work in the background. It can be assumed that students who choose translation as a specialization are guided by more mundane incentives and, most of all, by their own goals, which, reflecting their individual differences, can be very different.

The next sections of the paper aim to highlight these incentives, including the planned instruments of the investigation and the most important force that drives BA students to study translation as a specialization: motivation.

2.2 What do we know about motivation?

Although motivation seems to be an extremely popular field to explore in "the ever-changing landscape" of L2 research (Dörnyei, 2020, p. 1), there are poorly researched areas and shortcomings, as researchers argue (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012; Ushioda, 2016; Wu, 2016). When it comes to describing what the term signifies in scientific discourse, the opinions are so diverse that it is difficult to see if people are talking about the same thing, turning it into a deeply "challenging issue" (Dörnyei, 2020, p. 4).

Motivation has been discussed in literature as a strong individual variable, a trait, a personal attribute; a state caharacteristic, and also a process that goes through ebbs and flows. It has been referred to as an affect and cognition at the same time, and although it has traditionally been discussed as a conscious variable we are aware of, researchers started to discuss unconscious motives which have impact on human behavior (Dörnyei, 2020). It is also one of the main determinants of second / foreign language learning, which "explains why people decide to do something, how hard they are going to pursue it and how long they are willing to sustain the activity” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 7).

Motivation as a significant dimension in language learning (Gardner, 1985; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic, 2004; Lightbown & Spada, 2013) is often seen as something that “energizes human behavior and gives it direction” (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 117). The internal structure of motivation, at the same time, “undergoes dynamic changes in the language learning process, and, depending on the instructional setting, the momentary influences of the social context, as well as the given mid- and short-term goals, a complex interplay of different factors influences effort and persistence in language learning” (Kormos & Csizér, 2014, p. 20).

As most researchers argue, motivation is a highly complex construct used not only in everyday life but in many areas of social sciences, educational studies and applied linguistics to explain reasons for human behavior (Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006; Józsa, Wang, Barrett, & Morgan, 2014; Oxford, 2011; Ushioda, 2016). It is also a term that both teachers and learners use widely when they speak about language learning success or failure. Actually, “the meaning of the concept spans such a wide spectrum that sometimes we wonder whether people are talking about the same thing at all” (Dörnyei, 2014, p. 518). However, there is one thing most researchers agree on: motivation, by definition, concerns the basic question of why people act as they do. It determines the choice of a particular action, the persistence with it and the effort expended on it (Dörnyei, 2014, Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, Ushioda, 1996, 2016).

It is easy to see why motivation is so important in SLA research: “It provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long, often tedious learning process” (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 72; see also Gardner, 2001; Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). Gardner’s socio-educational model of second language acquisition (Gardner, 2010) gives us a broad schematic outline of how motivation is related to other learner and contextual characteristics. It places motivation within the system of four distinct aspects of the second language acquisition process: antecedent factors (gender, age, learning history), individual differences, language acquisition contexts, and learning outcomes (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993, p. 8). Although age is a crucial aspect in L2 acquisition, and a range of studies have been published about how the age factor impacts learning in a variety of educational contexts (Józsa et al., 2014; Nikolov, 2009; Nikolov & Mihajlević Djigunović, 2006), in case of BA students, especially concerning motivation, learning history and individual differences seem to be more decisive. In the case of young adults, we can see dramatic person-to-person disparity in both the quality and the quantity of L2 knowledge and language skills (Dörnyei &

Ryan, 2015).

As ID factors concern background learner variables that modify the general learning process, they definitely have to be taken into consideration in all kinds of research on motivation. Furthermore, recent studies have started to conceptualize motivation as a "process orientated and situated construct that shows regular fluctuation" (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 183; Kormos & Csizér, 2014), and also as one of "the most consistent predictors of second language success" (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003, p. 589) . However, it is not only motivation that fluctuates; learners' beliefs, attitudes and other cognitive and affective attributes also undergo changes (Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Ryan & Deci, 2017). As a result, there are periods in the learning process which show decline in motivation, moreover those learners, who, due to ID factors, do not manage to keep up with the curriculum or their peers, might become demotivated (Wu, 2016).

Demotivation by Dörnyei (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 143) is the counterpart of motivation; "concerns specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ingoing action". It does not mean that a learner losts his or her motivation completely, but if "motivation energizes human behavior" (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 11), demotivatin definitely deenergizes it. However, there are conditions, which can result in the complete loss of motivation. Deci and Ryan (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 110) call it amotivation, described as "the relative absence of motivation, that is not caused by a lack of initial interest but rather by the individual feelings of incompetence and helplessness when faced with an activity".

As it is evident in Gardner's model language learning contexts also play an important role in motivation during L2 learning. As research and experience prove, motivation, as a many-faced aspect, "can be successful only in a learning environment which is student centered and meets the effective needs of students" (Christison & Murray, 2014, p. 42). In addition to all these, research suggests that learner autonomy strongly contributes to motivation. Dörnyei (2001a; 2001b; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998) even lists the "ingredients" of autonomy-supporting teaching practices, including increased learner involvement in organizing the learning process. All this is in accordance with what Nikolov did in her English classes between 1977 and 1995 by involving her students in decision making (Nikolov, 1999, 2000). Ushioda (1996) and Heitzmann (2014) also argued that autonomous language learners are by definition motivated learners. Also, the motivating role of the teacher (who is often a role model) is indisputable (Dörnyei, 2001a; Gardner, 2001; Nikolov, 1999; 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2017); students tend to assess their development on the basis of feedback from the teacher as well as by their self-perception of their competences (Heitzmann, 2014) (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Gardner (1985, p. 6) reported that students' attitudes towards a specific language group are bound to influence how successful they will be in mastering the target language, as it, according to Williams (1994), most often becomes a part of the learner's identity. It involves an alteration in self-image, the adoption of new social and cultural behavior and therefore has a significant impact on the social nature of the learner (Adolphs et al., 2018). We cannot neglect the importance of classroom atmosphere, either, as it definitely helps learners achieve their goals (Dörnyei, 1994; 2007; Heitzmann, 2014; Nikolov, 2000).

Research has identified a few ID related factors that undermine learning effectiveness and second language motivation. One of them is students' anxiety, which prevents learners from performing well in several situations (Nagy, 2007; Tóth, 2008). Teachers play a crucial role in creating a safe classroom environment which definitely facilitates the learning process (Dörnyei, 2007; MacIntyre, 2002; Young, 1999). If they fail in this respect, they can become the most demotivating factors in language learning (Wu, 2016).

2.3 What do we know about motivation to learn translation?

After studying the huge reservoir of studies on motivation in second / foreign language learning, the question still arises: what motivates a student majoring in English to choose translation as a specialization (Doró, 2010)? We should keep in mind that translation, as a linguistic domain, struggled with recognition for a long time, was underestimated as a profession (Baker, 2011, p. 2), and translators were commonly deemed as "questionable sources" (Flanagan, 2016, p. 150), which did not help the prestige of the profession. Because of these factors, not few students were inclined to major in translation studies at universities or to choose it as a specialization (See Appendix C). The nature of activity might also have added to the unpopularity of the discipline. As all practicing translators know, translating long texts from one language to another is a hard, tedious, sometimes boring, both intellectually and physically exhausting activity. A student who wants to become a translator has to be linguistically well prepared (Doró, 2011), has to master two languages at least, the source language and the target language, and has to make choices all the time. Kinga Klaudy, while examining the character of translation as an activity emphasizes the huge scale of choices the translator faces. "The result of his or her activity – the corpus (text) created in the target language – is the result of numberless choices and decisions... When comparing the different translations of the same text, we always find identical and different solutions, suggesting that the subjective decisions of the translator have an objective base" (Klaudy 1997a, p. 21; 1997b). To achieve this, certain skills have to be developed and trained, as it was already discussed in Chapter 1(Doró, 2010; 2011).

The numberless studies quoted earlier discuss intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in detail. However, in translation classes it is not enough to possess deep-rooted desires to complete a task or to know that performing it well will be rewarding. It is mastery motivation that forces us to train and master the necessary knowledge and skills. Mastery motivation stimulates the individual to attempt in a focused and consistent way to solve a problem (Józsa et al., 2014), which is essential if one wants to translate long texts successfully. Under adequate conditions, "mastery motivation operates as long as the challenge persists and as long as acquisition is not complete; i.e., until mastery has been reached" (Józsa, 2014, p. 39). It functions as the basis of learning at all levels, with all age groups including adults, who pursue their profession with expertise or look for ways to solve a problem or to accomplish a task which is at least moderately challenging for them (Józsa et al., 2014).

There is a new conceptualization of motivation, which involves "a prolonged process of engagement in a series of tasks which are rewarding primarily because they transport the individual towards a highly valued end" and was referred to as directed motivational currents (DCM) (Henry, Davidenko, & Dörnyei, 2015, p. 330). Dörnyei called it an injection of motivation into the system which involves a greater surge of urgency than normal motivational behavior (Dörnyei, Muir, & Ibrahim, 2014). As the name specifies it, it is targeted at a definite goal. In case of translation, the goal is to transfer a text from the source language into the target language as successfully as possible. Seemingly, it is not a complicated task. However, as translation is most often a time and energy consuming activity, the motivation for this kind of language use has to be not only prolonged, but also very strong. Kormos and Csizér (2014) argue that goals and attitudes play an important role in influencing motivated action, and translation is definitely a goal directed activity.

The success of translation often depends on the translators' confidence in recognising the structures and layers of the foreign language they work with, and on their ability to find the native language equivalents of culture-specific expressions or of sophisticated figures of speech. As discussed in Chapter 1, all these aspects need solid background knowledge which cannot be acquired without conscious learning or being exposed to the target language in its native environment (Baker, 2011, pp. 67-68). It is not a problem if translators do not feel at home in the economic, historic, political or religious mazes of a given culture, if they are aware of their shortcomings and take the pain to look up the necessary information in the appropriate sources, thus avoiding inaccurate, inappropriate or misleading translation. So the renowned Hungarian literary historian Mihály Szegedy-Maszák is correct when he claims that "because of the differences between the languages, the translator sometimes has to fight extreme obstacles as the values of the original and the target language are incommensurable" (Szegedy-Maszák, 2008, p. 14). Regarding cultural values, translating from English into Hungarian becomes even more difficult "because of the very few historic links between the two cultures" (Szegedy-Maszák, 2008, p. 15). That is why interculturality (Dombi, 2013; Holliday et al., 2004; Menyhei, 2014) is an important – and presumably also a motivating – element in translation classes. However, if these are beyond translators, they may turn out to be demotivating (Dörnyei, 2001b).

2.4 Measuring motivation

2.4.1 Questionnaires

The most common and sensible way to examine participants' motivational background is to use a questionnaire, which can provide a cheap and effective way of collecting data in a structured and manageable form (Dörnyei, 2003; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). However, putting together a questionnaire is not a simple task. Despite the common knowledge that "they are easy to construct, extremely versatile, and uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information quickly in a form that is readily processable" (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 1), they often result in poorly collected data (Gillham, 2000, p. 1). The reason is that their main strength – the ease of their construction – is also their main weakness: most questionnaires applied in second language (L2) research are *ad hoc* instruments; questionnaires with sufficient psychometric reliability and validity are not that easy to come by in the field (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 3). All these points suggest that the researcher has to be extremely careful while accomplishing the task. After deciding what type of questionnaire to use, there are several steps and issues that have to be taken into consideration: the types of the questions, the design, the length, the timing, the administration, the steps of processing, and, of course, ethics, including sensitive topics, confidentiality and anonymity (Dörnyei, 2003; Griffee, 2012; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). Dörnyei (2003) elaborates on the advantages and disadvantages of using questionnaires, directing the researcher's attention to other research methods such as personal interviews which can enrich the investigation with useful data.

Over the past few decades questionnaires of various kinds have become one of the most widely used data elicitation instruments in second language acquisition (SLA) research (Dörnyei, 2010; Gao, 2004). They help the researcher to establish a shared understanding of the examined phenomenon. They are relatively easy to construct and capable of gathering a large amount of data in a simple way, in a short time, and in a format that is relatively straightforward to analyze. However, the strength of questionnaires is also their main weakness: everybody knows what questionnaires look like, so most people tend to think that every educated person can put together a questionnaire that works (Dörnyei, 2010a).

By definition, "questionnaires are any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers" (Brown, 2001, p. 6). We can distinguish two types: the so called "paper and pen" form and their modern version, a computerized or web-based questionnaire which can reach out to a larger and more diverse pool of potential participants (Wilson & Jean-Marc, 2010). However, in case of a small-scale research it is still more adequate to use traditional paper-based questionnaires, especially if the researcher works with a convenience sample and wants to make sure that respondents return their forms.

According to Dörnyei (Dörnyei, 2010a) questionnaires yield three types of data: factual, behavioral, and attitudinal. Factual questions are used to find out who the respondents are, so they are aimed at the participants' age, gender, level of education and different kinds of background information that may be relevant when it comes to interpreting the findings. As it often happens in L2 research, the additional data in this case include facts about the respondents' language learning history, their L2 competence, parents' L2 knowledge, amount of time spent doing L2 related activities, etc.

Behavioral questions aim to find out what respondents typically do or did in the past. As the present questionnaire is aimed at students in translation as a specialization in English studies, the items here include language questions about past experience in this field.

The third type of data elicited by questions on attitudes are used to find out what participants think, concerning their attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests, and values.

Using questionnaires in L2 research has advantages and disadvantages. They are efficient in terms of researchers' and respondents' time, effort and financial resources, as a huge amount of information they can be collected in a relatively short time (e.g., in an hour). If the questionnaire is well constructed, data processing is also fast and straightforward, and modern computer software (e. g., SPSS) makes it even faster and more reliable. However, they have limitations; in fact, a few researchers agree that “no single method has been so much abused” (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 6; Gillham, 2000, p. 1). The most serious problems are:

(1) the simplicity and the superficiality of the answers;
(2) unreliable and unmotivated respondents;
(3) respondents’ literacy problems;
(4) the lack of opportunity to correct the respondents’ mistakes;
(5) the so called social desirability bias, when respondents have a fairly good guess about what the desirable answer is and they will give that, even if it is not true for them (Dörnyei, 2010, pp. 7-9).

When a researcher constructs a questionnaire, the logical starting point is to establish the aims of the research and to come up with specific, focused research questions (de Vaus, 2014; Gillham, 2000) after reading others publications on the same or similar focus. A series of steps and procedures have to be taken into consideration:

(1) deciding the general features of the questionnaire (length, format, main parts);
(2) writing questions / items to draw up an item pool;
(3) selecting and sequencing the items;
(4) writing appropriate instructions and examples;
(5) piloting the questionnaire; and
(6) conducting item analysis once data have been collected (Dörnyei, 2010a).

Constructing a questionnaire is especially difficult for a novice researcher (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). Although experts agree that borrowing questions from other research studies is acceptable, it has its caveats (Blair, Czaja, & Blair, 2014). It is not always possible, either; in cases when one wants to study a poorly researched area for specific reasons, it would not work. There are several questions the researcher has to deal with. What is the optimal length? Too long questionnaires can become counterproductive, because the respondents grow tired or bored. According to researchers experienced in the field, the optimal length is four to six pages, which would not require more than half an hour to complete (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 12). The layout is also an important aspect, as it may have a significant impact on respondents. Dörnyei (2010, pp. 13-14) offers a list that summarizes the five most important points:

(1) A questionnaire not only has to be short, but it has also to *look* short;

(2) it should have appropriate density with full pages, which, at the same time, do not look crowded;

(3) an orderly layout can create a good impression;

(4) the quality and the color of the paper or background can also make difference;

(5) sequence marking makes it user-friendly.

Frary (1996) also suggests keeping questionnaires brief and concise. Sensitive topics should be avoided; the respondents' anonymity should be guaranteed. They are both serious issues that need to be considered throughout the developmental and administration process. The voluntary nature of participation and other ethical issues cannot be emphasized enough (Blair et al., 2014; Creswell, 2003; Dörnyei, 2010; Gillham, 2000; 2008; Mackey & Gass, 2005).

It is also a good idea to establish what the main parts of a questionnaire would be, including an informative title followed by a general instruction which should cover the following points: (1) what the study is about; (2) the organization / person responsible for the study; (3) promising confidentiality; (4) saying "thank you" (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 19).

The specific instructions refer to how respondents should go about answering the questions (ticking, circling, marking on a scale, etc.). They are typically followed by the central part of the questionnaire: the actual items. According to Dörnyei (2010), they rarely take the form of actual questions; they are more often statements that the respondents have to agree or disagree with to a certain extent on Likert scales. The items have to be separated from the instructions clearly by using different typefaces or font styles or other markers.

Another fundamental issue is to decide how we want respondents to answer the questions (Creswell, 2003). It is a good idea to start with drawing up a shortlist of specific content areas. After that, it is much easier to eliminate the redundant or unnecessary items and keep only those ones, which are directly related to the variables and the hypotheses a questionnaire is designed to investigate.

Questionnaires can be used in both quantitative and qualitative research. When designing a qualitative study, where there are no pre-determined variables and hypotheses, we will most probably expect extended answers, so open items should be included which allow the researcher to figure out how things are (Nunan & Bailey, 2009).

Dörnyei (2010, pp. 26-39) mentions several question types in his book, listing their advantages and disadvantages (Table 4). He emphasizes the importance of question design, creativity and common sense that should be employed in order to create good, working items. Researchers should follow an old rule, “tests of practicability must play a crucial role in questionnaire construction” (Moser & Kalton, 1971, p. 350).

As Table 4 indicates, although the literature offers a great number of question types, to start creating a questionnaire is very much similar to entering a maze. To be able to find the way out, I will depend on Dörnyei’s do’s and don’ts list (2010, pp. 40-48), as it seems to be a secure crutch for a novice researcher, and I am sure it was created to fulfill this very aim.

Table 4

Types of questionnaire items (based on Dörnyei, 2010)

Question types		Description	Advantage	Disadvantage
Closed-ended		ready-made response options to choose from	straightforward coding and tabulation; no room for subjectivity	respondents get no opportunity to add or modify it
Rating scales: n be used for evaluating almost anything;	Likert	multi-item scales; a series of characteristic statements related to a particular target	simple, versatile and reliable	neutral and extreme items do not work well; too many points lead to unreliable responses
	Semantic differential	a continuum between two bipolar adjectives on the extremes	easy to construct; no need to write statements; easily adaptable	the scope is more limited than that of Likert scales
	Numerical rating	a rating continuum refers to a wide range of adjectives or adverbs	can easily be turned into semantic differential scales and vice versa	
	True-False items	a relatively short key sentence containing a single idea that is not subject to debate (it is either true or false)	need only two response options in cases when a yes-no decision can be reliable	the tendency to respond in the affirmative direction
	Mixing scale types	the main features of two or more scale types are mixed	creative; marking the answers with the least cognitive effort; effective visual marking option	

Multiple-choice items	respondents are asked to mark one or more of the offered options, including leaving them unanswered	relatively straightforward; easy to construct reader-friendly items	in case of omissions, it is difficult to decide the reason (was it conscious or just an accident?)
Rank order items	respondents are asked to order the items by assigning a number to them	technically easy	can be demanding if more than five ranks are requested; not easy to process them statistically
Numeric items	ask for specific numeric value (e.g., the respondent's age in years)	answering them is straightforward	
Checklists	a list of descriptive items, where respondents are asked to mark the items that apply to the particular question	easy to construct	some sort of grouping or statistical control might be necessary
Open-ended questions	the actual question is not followed by response options, but rather by some blank space for the respondents to fill	provide greater richness than fully quantitative data; can result in identifying issues previously not anticipated; most useful in cases when we do not know the range of possible answers	an inherent limitation: "restricted openness" – not really suitable for exploratory research; take up precious "respondent-availability time; difficult to code in a reliable manner
Specific open questions	ask about concrete pieces of information (facts about the respondents, past activities etc.)	request straightforward, one-line answers	
Clarification questions	mostly when there is an "Other" category, or a "Please, specify" instruction	makes important responses more pronounced	
Sentence completion items	an unfinished sentence that the respondent needs to complete	can be more effective than a simple question	Answers need coding

Short-answer questions	involve a real exploratory inquiry about an issue; inquire a more free-ranging, unpredictable response	can be motivating for the respondent; enable the researcher to look for the unknown / unexpected; a good way to finish a questionnaire	Answers need coding

Dörnyei's list also serves as a kind of checklist, which contains all the necessary "ingredients" of the activity:

(1) Draw up an "item pool", which contains at least one and half to twice more items than the final scales;

(2) Aim for short and simple items;

(3) Use simple and natural language;

(4) Avoid ambiguous or loaded words and sentences;

(5) Avoid negative constructions;

(6) Avoid "double barreled" questions;

(7) Avoid items that are likely to be answered the same way by everybody;

(8) Include both positively and negatively worded items;

(9) Write translatable items.

All this means, that writing effective questionnaire items requires special attention to detail, including item sequence, based on three main ordering principles (Dörnyei, 2010, pp. 46-48):

(1) use a clear and orderly structure with a user-friendly, easy to follow item format;

(2) start with carefully selected opening questions to create a pleasant first impression;

(3) place factual (e. g., personal) questions and open-ended questions at the end.

Gillham also emphasizes the importance of the uncluttered look and offers advice to use a variety of different question types, so that the respondents would not get bored as they read and answer the questions (Gillham, 2000, pp. 39-40).

There is one thing that surfaces quite clearly from the related literature: the rules are straightforward, and questionnaires seem to be easy and simple to create, if one follows the rules and organizing principles offered by the questionnaire specialists. Unfortunately, reality has its own ways; what seems to be straightforward at the theoretical level can turn out to be tedious work when it comes to practice.

2.4.2 Interviews

Interviews are not an easy option, but are regarded to be indispensable in case study research. Interviewing, on any scale, is time-consuming but is worth their considering provided you can identify a small number who are key or representative (Creswell, 2003; Gillham, 2000a; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). Interviews and questionnaires serve different purposes: to carry out a larger scale or preliminary survey we use questionnaires, to achieve a depth of understanding we can use an appropriate form of interview (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Interviews, independently of their purpose (medical, selection, therapeutic, research etc.) have a great deal in common, however, they are different in the extent they are structured (Gillham, 2000c). The most structured forms of the interview are those where the interviewer knows what he or she wants to find out, so the interviwee is asked direct questions planned and created in advance. All interviewees are asked the same questions in the same order. In unstructured interviews the questions are not planned, they arise spontaneously, like in a natural conversation. In semi-structured interviews the same predetermined questions are asked of all those involved, plus supplementary questions which are not planned in advance, combining structured and unstructured styles, offering the advantages of both (Gillham, 2005; 2008a).

Interviews, independently of their level or structure, are flexible; in case of questionnaires, only limited inferences can be made because the researcher cannot explore what lies behind the answers to the questions. Gillham (2005, pp. 3-4) summarizes the main features of an interview as follows:

(1) Questions asked or topics raised are fully open with the interviewee determining their own answers – a key distinction from questionnaires where normally the researcher not only asks the questions but also provides the answers in some sort of choice format.
(2) The relationship between interviewer and interviewee is responsive or interactive, allowing some degree of adjustment (clarification, exploration etc.)
(3) There is a structure and purpose on the part of the interviewer even when the context is natural or at least naturalistic in the sense of taking advantage of the arising opportunities.

These criteria are most satisfactorily met in the semi-structured interviews, which, because of their flexibility and the quality of the data obtained are the most effective ways to conduct research interviewsn (Gillham, 2005).

An interview can be conducted at a distance or face-to-face. Although distance interviewing has some advantages (cost, including time and energy is lower and access may be easier). The most frequent ways of distance interviewing are the telephone interview and most recently the e-mail interview. In case of telephone interview the emphasis on the use of relatively brief structured interviews, the results of which can be analysed in a standardized format (Gillham, 2005). The number one advantage of telephone interviewing is clear: you are talking 'live' to the respondent, so you can be reactive. Misunderstanding can be clarified easily, prompts can be used, and there is a mutual responsiveness. People talk more easily than they write, so they are more ready to conduct a telephone interview than an e-mail interview, which involves writing. E-mail interview has three applications. The first one being when the respondent is too busy to meet personally or lives in another city or country so would otherwise be difficult to reach. The second one is, when it is the preferred option of a respondent, who is reluctant to participate in a face-to-face interview. Finally, it can be a good way to clarify minor factual details, as many people respond to e-mails more rapidly than to traditional letters or messages left on answering machines. The e-mail interview's greatest advantage is its spee and flexibility (Lowndes, 2005). However, dealing with personal topics via telephone or e-mail will probably lead to caution on the part of the respondent (Gillham, 2005). It is sometimees vulnerable or extraordinary what an interviewee may disclose to someone they have not met before, so there are some ethical rules the interviewer should follow. It is important not to encourage inappropriate disclosures, however, if they occur, the researcher needs to know how to treat them.

Keeping to the basic ethical rules of interviewing helps the interviewer to avoid being intrusive and to maintain a friendly, but not confiding tone. The most important elements that help to set that tone are as follows (Gillham, 2005):

(1) Identify yourself as a researcher (e.g., a schoolteacher, a university student). This identification should include the name of the institution you represent, and your own role there (PhD student, research assistant etc.);
(2) Identify the purposes of the research and what is expected of the participants, which may include signing a consent form with information about the research and what the interviewees are asked to do;
(3) When storing and analyzing personal research data, the key points are (a) confidentiality, (b) anonymity, if the interviewees ask for it; otherwise a real identity increases the authenticity of the interview, (c) security both of paper and computer

information, especially in case of highly sensitive data, (d) the possible publication of the collected data or making it otherwise accessible, (e) exceptional uses, e.g., to use the gained information for presentation purposes, for which explicit permission is necessary and (f) data lifetime: data destruction when they served they purpose should be a routine form of protection;

(4) Bear in mind the right of interviewees to review the transcript of their interview and to modify them.

As with other research instruments, there are several stages of developing and using interviews: (1) drafting, (2) piloting the questions, (3) selecting the interviewees, (4) conducting the interviews, (5) transcribing oral data, (6) coding and (7) analyzing the interview data (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003, p. 44).

Interviews are traditionally less structured than other research instruments. There are three types of interviews: (1) an unstructured interview is the most flexible approach; (2) semi-structured interviews allow the interviewer to direct the interview more closely but questions can be changed and added on the go, and (3) structured interviews, according to the literature, is “no more than a questionnaire completed face-to-face” (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003, p. 45).

There is an agreement that unstructured interviews are controlled by the interviewee, whereas semi-structured interviews offer predefined areas for open discussion. It is the structured interview, which, with its predictability, provides the easiest dataset for analysis.

The number and also the types of the questions, as well as their sequence should be clarified in the drafting stage. Each question must be phrased in order to gather as much information as possible. As no research instrument is perfect, the piloting phase is crucial, because it helps to eliminate ambiguous questions and provides useful feedback on the structure and the flow of the intended interview (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003).

Selecting the interviewees requires extra care, mostly because interviews take a long time to plan and also to conduct and analyze, including the transcription of the recorded data. For these reasons, it seems to be sensible to work with a small and if possible, a representative sample. The physical organization of the interview is also an important element in the process; the setting and the arrangement of the interview situation should put both parties at ease.

Using interviews has advantages and disadvantages. The greatest advantage is that, because of the researcher’s indirect involvement, a 100 per cent response rate can be achieved. The researcher can decide on follow-up questions if the initial answer is not satisfactory, can observe body language and interpret the tone of the response. However, interviews are time-consuming. As a rule, two days' transcription time should be allowed for one full day of interviewing (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). The other drawbacks are that the information we get is filtered through the views of interviewees and is provided in a designated place (Creswell, 2003, p. 186).

When preparing for the interview, as in the case of questionnaires, it is sensible to go through a checklist (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003, p. 64), focusing on:

- What questions will be asked?
- How will the planned questions be ordered?
- What structure will the interview follow?
- What devices will be used to record the interview?
- Have any ambiguous questions remained after piloting?
- To what extent is the interview group representative of the examined population?
- Has a suitable place been arranged?
- How will you position yourself?
- How will you brief the participants?
- How will you thank the interviewees?
- How much time will be necessary?

The final stage of the interview process begins with drawing together the data and making them ready for coding and analysis, for which the relevant literature (Mackey & Gass, 2005; Saldana 2009) offers a long list of methods, including first cycle coding methods, second cycle coding methods and post-coding. In small-scale research this would involve grouping the responses to each question from all participants. This will allow themes and issues to be easily identified and quantified. When analyzing a large number of transcripts, it may be necessary to use computer-based tools.

2.4.3 Documents: student essays

Documents can be treated as a source of data in their own right, as an alternative or an addition to questionnaires, interviews, observations and other data collection instruments. They are most frequently written sources, although there are alternative types of documents, including pictures, artefacts and even music (Creswell, 2003; Denscombe, 2014). The greatest attraction of using documentary sources, most often written texts, is their accessibility. The most frequent types of documentary data include: government publications, official statistics, different reports, newspapers and magazines, minutes of meetings, letters, memos, diaries, essays, website pages and data on the Internet (Denscombe, 2014, p. 229).

Letters, memos, diaries and essays including student essays are written by people whose thoughts and behaviors the researcher wants to study. They usually contain an account of personal feelings and emotions concerning the topic or event described, in this way they provide rich information on the studied phenomenon. On the other hand, they may be protected, unavailable to public access, and may require the researcher to search out the data in places which are hard to find; a process that can make information mining time and energy consuming (Creswell, 2003).

A collection of one's students' written work can be done easily by asking the students to write an essay or a composition on a given topic, expressing their thoughts and their related experiences. It offers easy accessibility, and also saves the teacher-researcher the time and expense of transcriibing. A basic concern is that what is collected should be authentic (J. Horváth, 2001). In case of student essays, written in-class or at home, their authenticity cannot be questioned. Student essays also offer primary or 'first-hand' data, as they are obtained from the original source as part of the applied aspect of research (Scheurich, 2007). They also represent data that are thoughtful, in which participants have given attention to compiling. In addition, they enable the researcher to obtain the language and words of participants (Creswell, 2003).

To analyze the content of any document the most sensible method is to apply content analysis (Creswell, 2003; Denscombe, 2014; Dörnyei, 2007b; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Nunan & Bailey, 2009), which is a logical and relatively straightforward procedure. Having an appropriate sample of texts, we break them into smaller units (in case of short texts it is not necessary). The unit of analysis can be each and every word, complete sentences or whole paragraphs. Qualitative data analysis invariably starts with coding, which involves highlighting extracts in a way that they can be easily identified, retrieved, grouped or categorized. Dörnyei (2007b) calls this procedure initial coding, usually followed by second-level coding which helps the researcher go beyond the descriptive labeling of the relevant data segments. For analyzing the data, the researcher has to develop relevant categories and count the frequency with which the units occur. (It can be a tally of the times, when various units occur.) Another useful method is to produce a hierarchy of codes, e. g., in the form of a tree diagram, which helps to clarify how the categories are related to each other (Dörnyei, 2007b).

Content analysis reveals what appear in the texts as relevant, the priorities portrayed through the texts, the values conveyed in the text and also how ideas are related. The main strength of this method is that at intial level it provides a means for quantifying the contents of a text, whereas at second-level interpretive analysis the underlying deeper meaning of the data. It also has a main limitation: it has an in-built tendency to dislocate the units and their meaning from the context in which they were made (Denscombe, 2014; Dörnyei, 2007b).

As a summary, we can say that documentary research, both as an alternative method or an addition to other methods, has compelling advantages. The first one is the relatively easy access to data and the vast amounts of information on can find in documents. It is also cost-effective and provides data which is permanent and easily accessible. Its main drawback is that documents, including essays, can owe more to the interpretations and beliefs of those who produce them than to objective reality.

2.4.4 Documents: syllabi

There are several conflicting views on what makes syllabus design and curriculum development different. The "narrow" view draws a clear distinction between the two, stating that curriculum development is concerned with planning, implementation, management and administration of education programmes (Nunan, 1988), while syllabus design is concerned with the selection and grading of content. Some language specialists, e.g., Allen (1984), Stern (1984), Yalden (1984) believe, that syllabus and methodology should be kept separate, others, like Breen (1984) and Widdowson (1984) think otherwise.

According to a rather traditional definition, a syllabus is a statement of content which is used as the basis for planning courses; the task of the syllabus designer is to select and grade course content (Nunan, 1988). Breen (1987a) also sees it as a plan of what is to be achieved through teaching and learning. It can provide detailed information for students on what is to be achieved in the course and therefore, it can act as an implicit contract. In Brumfit's definition, a "syllabus for a second language programme is not a guide for private use by teacher and learner. It is a public document, a record, a contract an instrument which represents negotiation among all the parties involved" (Brumfit, 1984, p. 13). Perhaps the most noted function of a syllabus is administrative: it provides an organizational structure to the course (Cullinan, 2016).

From a learner perspective, the most important questions are: What does the learner want to do with the target language? What activities will stimulate or promote language learning? To be able to answer these questions a “needs analysis” can be performed, which, in simple terms, refers to “the procedures used to collect information about learners”, including motivation, expressed needs, likes, dislikes, learning styles with the aim of designing a course that is tailored to the specific needs of the students involved (Cullinan, 2016, p. 58). Espinosa underlines the necessity and the motivating nature of what he calls “autonomy-fostering syllabus” (Espinosa, 2015, p. 114). A course, based on such a syllabus allows the students to identify what they deem important to learn, what readings, texts they would welcome, and also to plan how to get them; this is a process motivating in itself. Althouh the syllabi can differ from teacher to teacher, the topics, covered in them, should be in accordance with the overall content of the curriculum taught in the course.

Nunan (2003, p. 193) speaks of “learner-centeredness” and “learner centered” curriculum development and syllabus design, when the syllabus is the result of a collaborative effort between teachers and learners, since the latter are closely involved in the decision-making process regarding the content of the curriculum and syllabus. Nikolov (2000), based on a research conducted with young learners, also writes about the motivating force of negotiated syllabus and classroom work. Christison and Murray (2014), when stating that “motivation, as a many-faced aspect, can be successful only in a learning environment which is student centered and meets the effective needs of students” (2014, p. 47), mean a similar point. Those, who focus on the language learning process, emphasize that learners also should contribute to that process, including syllabus planning (Breen, 1987b). Working on a process syllabus can result in a pedagogical partnership between teachers and learners through a teaching process in which learners become equipped with the knowledge, skills and attitudes that enable them to play an active role in the planning, implementation and evaluation of their own learning. A negotiated syllabus is created, which, on the one hand, motivates the learners to carry out what they planned, and on the other, leads to a higher degree of autonomy.

2.5 Summary

This chapter aimed to overview the literature on one of the main determinants of second / foreign language learning, motivation, with special focus on a neglegted area, TS classes at BA level, including the different means and methods of measuring this very complex construct. Sections 2.1 and 2.2 discussed literature on motivation in general, comparing different definitions of the construct, arriving at the conclusion that motivation, as an imoprant ID factor, has a huge impact on language learning success. In order to show the many-faceted nature of motivation, the most influential theories and models were listed (Adolphs et al., 2018; Dörnyei, 1994; (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Gardner, 2010), arriving at the general conclusion that motivation concerns the basic question why people act as they do.

Section 2.3 focused on motivation in BA translation studies classes, seeking the answer to the ever-rising question: Why do students majoring in English choose translation as a minor or a specialization? Why do they want to study a discipline, which still struggles for recognition, but, at the same time, requires the high-level knowledge of at least two languages (Baker, 2011; Doró, 2010; Flanagan, 2016)? The studies quated emphasized the importance of mastery motivation (Józsa et al., 2014) and of a relatively new conceptualization called directed motivational currents (Henry et al., 2015). Other authors pointed out those aspects, which make translation more difficult than the other language learning activities: its goal-directed and energy consuming nature, the culture-specific knowledge it requires, the most different skills that have to be developed and trained (Doró, 2011; Klaudy, 1997a; Szegedy-Maszák, 2008); traits which easily can result in demotivation.

Section 2.4 concentrated on different ways and methods, both quantitative and qualitative that can be used to examine and measure motivation: questionnaires, interviews and documents, including student essays and course syllabi as possible data collecting instruments. The part on questionnaires (2.4.1) was based on Dörnyei's (2003b; 2010a;) and Gillham's (2000b) book on developing questionnaires, which discussed each step of this complex and tedious process, emphasizing the advantages and pointing out the drawbacks of the tool. Other approaches also were studied (Creswell, 2003; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Nunan & Bailey, 2009) in order to find out how qualitative research can add extra information to quantitative findings; how interviews and documents can be used for deeper or background analysis.

The works listed in the literature overview in Chapter 2 confirmed that motivation is a highly complex phenomenon. Although we know a lot about it, it is difficult to research, so we have to be really careful and attentive when we decide on the research procedures, including the instruments we want to use. Chapter 3 aims to examine BA students’ motivation in translation studies classes based on a study carried out at the University of Pécs between 2016 and 2019.

Chapter 3
Student motivation in Translation Studies BA classes

3.1 Translator training in Hungary

Formal training… can help enhance performance…
and develop translation skills more rapidly.”
(Gile, 2009, p. 7)

Following Pym’s (2013) suggestion to rethink the translation skills in translation training programs, Hungarian researchers have attempted to map the most important fields and directions, and define new foci for teaching (Kóbor & Csikai, 2017). One of the greatest merits of this recent inquiry is the fact that it also aimed to meet the professional needs of the translation market (Kóbor, 2017).

The question of competences has been an important and challenging research field for Hungarian researchers during the last decades. The list of the necessary competences they identified (competences connected to translation, as an activity; technology; the management of the translation process) (Fischer, 2017) strongly corresponds with the categories offered in the international literature (Chesterman, 2005; Dickinson, 2002; Risku et al., 2010). Some features, which have been part of instruction at European universities for a long time, appeared as a new phenomenon in discussions authored by Hungarian experts. The translation market is more and more often referred to as “language industry” (Fischer, 2017, p. 24), demanding new terminologies such as language service providers (LSP), language service companies, (LSC), knowledge management instruments (KMI), project management (PM), machine translation (MT), post editing (PE), etc .

The competences, important for the industry and also for the profession are best highlighted when international models are compared. In a study, Krajcsó (2017) compared four well-known competence models (EMT, CIUTI, TransCert, ISO). Although the lists seem to be similar, the grouping of competences is remarkably different (See Table 5). It is also apparent that competences which can be connected to translation as a service are listed as especially important ones in each presented model.

Linguistic competences create an independent group in each system, similarly to intercultural competences, although different terms (intercultural, transcultural and cultural) are used in the lists. Technological competences also are also named differently (technological, technical and thematic domain) and with slightly different emphasis. Competences, which are regarded less important, are typically taught within another one, mostly as part of language or linguistic competence. Krajcsó (2017) points out that translator training institutions mostly cover competences connected to translation, as an activity (linguistic, intercultural, translation competences), while "domain competence" is typically missing from their curricula. According to Dróth (2017), there is another "underrepresented" category: translation management, which she, in accordance with Kiraly (2000), discusses not as *translation*, but as *translator* competence (see 1.2).

Table 5

Comparison of four international translator competence models (Krajcsó, 2017)

EMT (European Master's in Translation)	CIUTI (Conference Internationale Permanente d'Instituts Universitaires de Traducteurs et Interprètes)	TransCert (Trans-European Voluntary Certification for Translators)	ISO (International Organization for Standardization)
Translation service provision	Translator's competence	Translation skills Personal translation management	Translation comp. (within translation competence)
Language	Native language Foreign language	Language skills	Linguistic competence
Intercultural	Intercultural	Transcultural skills	Cultural competence
Info mining	(within foreign language)	Information mining &terminology skills	Cultural competence
Technological	(within foreign language & translator's competence)	Technological skills	Competence in research, information acquisition and processing
Thematic	(within foreign language)	Domain-specific skills	Domain competence

After looking at what competences four formal translator training institutes cover, we can move to the institutions (universities) which offer translator training programs in Hungary. These programs have undergone substantial, possibly overdue changes during the last ten years. The reasons are discussed by Válóczi (2010) as follows: (1) Due to Hungary's membership in the European Union, the demand for well-trained translators and interpreters has significantly increased; (2) the content of translation and interpreter training had to be adjusted to the social and economic changes characterized by the diverse needs of the market. The role of translators / interpreters has been re-interpreted: now they provide "services", based on high-level problem solving, negotiating, organizing and communicating qualities; they are experts with thorough linguistic, professional and often interdisciplinary knowledge. (3) Education policy has put an end to the ongoing debate about the place of translation training in the education system.

As a result, training programs have become part of university curricula at BA level, initially as complementary courses and specializations, later as independent subject blocks. In response to the increasing demand for highly trained graduates on the market, translator and interpreter training was introduced at MA level, as well, in addition to language schools which also offer translator training courses.

The first translator and interpreter training program was introduced by Kinga Klaudy at the Eötvös Loránd University in 1973 (Klaudy, 2013, p. 9). Since then other universities have joined the successful and increasingly popular training form. A 2010 study by Válóczi lists 21 faculties of 14 universities or colleges, which offer their prospective students 40 different, accredited training programs in Hungary. The list incudes Corvinus University of Budapest; Budapest Business School; Budapest University of Technology and Economics; University of Debrecen; Eötvös Loránd University; Kodolányi János University of Applied Sciences; University of Miskolc; University of Nyíregyháza; University of West-Hungary, Savaria Campus; Pannon University, Pázmány Péter Catholic University; University of Pécs, University of Szeged and Szent István University in Gödöllő. The programs differ in duration (generally two to four semesters, ten to fourteen classes a week), content and fees. A 2016 summary (Vermes, 2016) mentioned 26 faculties of 17 universities offering translator training (see Appendix C), which suggests that the demand is huge.

The number of institutions, which offer master programs, is still very low in Hungary. In 2010, there were only three accredited translator training programs at this level: at Eötvös Loránd University, at Pannon University and at University of Miskolc (Válóczi, 2010). The admission requirements are high: a complex C level exam in one, a complex B level exam in another foreign language plus passing a complex admission test. At MA level 300 contact hours of instruction are offered every semester for x semesters. The master programs include a 100-hours professional practice. The best graduates can carry on with their studies in doctoral programs. Although there is only one doctoral school in Translation Studies in Hungary (Eötvös Loránd University, lead by Kinga Klaudy), there are several doctoral schools in linguistics which offer their students translation topics.

The situation has changed a lot by 2017; Kóbor and Lehmann (2018) describe it as "everything at every level" (which is definitely true in international arenas, as well), referring to the diverse opportunities prospective translation students can choose from, including BA and MA levels and also special postgraduate programs (see Appendix C). In literal meaning what they say suggests, that – concerning the skills – there is no difference between the listed levels; the improvement is rather superficial, there is still a lot to do in order to optimize the quality of the training. Since 2010, new institutions have "joined the club": Károli Gáspár University of the Reformed Church in Hungary, Eszterházy Károly College in Eger and Semmelweis University. In 2016, 17 universities offered 78 different training courses: 13 at BA, 56 at post-graduate, eight at MA and one at PhD level (Vermes, 2016). The unique feature of the Hungarian training system is that there is no *professional* translator training at BA level; those, who are interested, can study translation in the frameworks of a 50-credit *specialization*, as the part of their bachelor studies in a foreign language major. The admission requirement for this program is B2 or C1 level proficiency in a foreign language, depending on the applicants' choice. However, the certificate the graduates get does not qualify them to work as certified translators.

In March 2020 seven Hungarian universities offered MA level translation and interpreting programs in the official site of Hungarian Oktatási Hivatal (https://www.felvi.hu): Eötvös Loránd University in Budapest, University of Debrecen, Eszerházy Károly College, University of Miskolc, Pázmány Péter Catholic University, Pannon University, and University of Szeged. The admission capacity of the seven universities was 208 alltogether, including 152 state-financed and 56 self-financed positions (https://www.felvi.hu). (Table 6).

The tution fee in case of self-financed positions was betveen 250,000 and 375,000 Forints per semester. The published admission requirements were the same at each institution, including one C 1 level, and one B2 level complex language exam in the chosen languages, and an entrance test, consisting of a a written and an oral (interview) part. However, COVID-19 restrictions rewrote the admission procedure for the academic year of 2020 – 2021. At Eötvös Loránd University, for example, the applicants were expected to hand in a CV in Hungarian language, including the applicants' preliminary studies (800-1,000 characters) plus a summary of their relevant achievements (publications, conference participations, grants, etc. (800-1,000 characters), and also a motivation letter written in the target language (3,500-4,000 characters). The oral exams were replaced by scheduled online interviews. At Pázmány Péter University both the CV and the motivation letter were expected to be written in Hungarian and in the chosen foreign language, and the applicants also had to hand in a summary of their BA portfolio (2,500 characters) in both Hungarian and the target language. The procedure, with minor differences, was similar at each university.

Table 6
Translation and Interpreting MA programs in Hungary, 2020-2021 (Source: felvi.hu)

Degree: Certified translator and interpreter					
University	Admission capacity (max) State-financed	Admission capacity (max) Self-financed	Entrance exam	Number of semesters	Number of credits
University of Debrecen	20	5	written	4	120
Eötvös Loránd University	50	6	written + oral	4	120
Eszterházi Károly University	8	8	oral	4	120
University of Miskolc	6	24	written	4	120
Pannon University	8	3	written + oral	4	120
Pázmány Péter Catholic University	25	5	written + oral	4	120
University of Szeged	40	5	written + oral	4	120

The so-called specialized post-gradual training courses, where the admission requirement is a BA or MA degree, also occupy an important place in translator training in Hungary. The duration of the training, similarly to MA level is three to four semesters. In the academic year of 2017/2018 applicants could apply for specialized training programs at nineteen faculties of fifteen universities (Kóbor & Lehmann, 2018).

It is important to mention that in Hungary the translation training programmes should accommodate the demand for two dominant languages, English and German. Some traditionally important European languages (French, Russian, Italian and Spanish) are also offered by some universities; all other languages remain marginal (Vermes, 2016).

Examining the most important features of translator training in Hungary we can conclude that it is highly diverse; the offer prospective students can choose from is wide, and hopefully creates a good basis for positive competition at every level.

3.2 Translation Studies at the University of Pécs

Translator training at University of Pécs has significant traditions, which can serve as a good example for a possible MA translation program. The four-semester long, 120 credit post-gradual translation training programs in English (btk.pte.hu/angol_magyar_szakford), French (btk.pte.hu/francia_magyar_szakford) and Italian (btk.pte.hu/olasz_magyar_szakford) at the Faculty of Humanities, as well as a similar program at the Faculty of Medicine of the University of Pécs (UP) (aok.pte.hu/hu/egyseg/60/index/almenu/164 also may attract new students.

Currently, BA students at the Institute of English Studies, Faculty of Humanities, UP can choose translation as a specialization in the second year of their studies, after passing their English proficiency exam. As it can be chosen instead of a compulsory minor, only a small number of students takes it up. Table 7 shows how many students applied for the program between 2014 and 2020, the years my research covers. It can bee seen that there was a significant drop in 2015, which, concerning present study, is important, because it shows the population from which I could recruit participants.

Table 7
The number of translation students between the academic years of 2014/15 and 2020/21 (Neptun data, retrieved on 29/07/2020)

Academic year	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	2017/18	2018/19	2019/20	2020/21
Number of students	35	10	11	10	11	17	18

The enrolling students can earn only 50 credits as opposed to the 120 credits of the specialized post-graduate programs in the field of Humanities and Health Sciences (Kóbor & Lehmann, 2018, p. 25). It means that they have significantly fewer contact hours in the subjects that comprise their curriculum than those who study in the other two forms of program. The significance of different competences and the emphasis put on them is well reflected in the corresponding credits (Table 8). As is apparent in the table, *Translation and interpretation techniques* and the connected skills constitute a relatively large number of classes in each program: one third of the total credit in case of postgraduate programs, and two thirds of the total credit in the case of the BA specialization.

The credits, as they reflect the emphasis on the different components, speak for themselves. There is hardly any emphasis on IT skills, and the difference is huge between the programs concerning language and culture. Special terminology also seems to be a neglected area, although it should be a significant element in special translation programs. What is also worth noting is the fact that the *Language and culture* component, which can earn high credits even in the Health Sciences program, is not given a larger emphasis neither in the planned MA program, nor in BA specialization. Those, who want to become translators in the field of Health Sciences, typically do not have a degree in the target language, while the participants of the BA level training learn target language culture, history and civilization in a relatively high number of classes in the frames of their major studies.

Table 8

The representation of different components of translator training at UP, including the planned MA program; the BA specialization and the two special post-graduate programs (Kóbor & Lehmann, 2018, p. 25)

Components	Translator and interpreter MA program (plan) (credits)	Translation specialization (English, BA) (cr)	Special post-graduate programs Humanities (cr)	Special post-graduate program Health Sciences (cr)
Translation and interpretation theory	8 – 10	5	10	11
European studies; legal and economic skills	6 – 10	0	12	4
Translation and interpretation techniques	44 – 46	33	45	49
Special skills	4 – 8	6	5	9
Special terminology	4 – 6	0	5	11
Language and culture	4 – 6	3	18	8
IT competences, tools, language technology	10 – 12	3	5	4
Credits	120	50	120	120

Having compared the program elements and the syllabi, we can state that there are significant differences in proportions, however, we can detect a great degree of similarity between the training programs at different levels. They basically include the same components, even if they are weighted differently, and each of them puts the greatest emphasys on translation and interpretation techniques, which cannot be learnt in any other classes.

Table 9

Study plan for English Studies, BA translation specialization programme (4 semesters, 50 credits)

Code	Name	Type of the class	Credit / Semester 1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
ASNB01	**Introduction into translation theory**	lecture			2			
ASNB02	**English-Hungarian contrastive linguistics**	lecture				3		
ASNB04	**English-Hungarian / Hungarian-English translation skills**							
ASNB04 01	English-Hungarian translation skills I	seminar			3			
ASNB04 02	English-Hungarian translation skills II	seminar					3	
ASNB04 03	Hungarian English translation skills I	seminar				3		
ASNB04 04	Hungarian English translation skills II	seminar					3	
ASNB05	**Language technology and CAT**	seminar				3		
ASVB03	**Text linguistics and Stylistics**							
ASVB03 01	Text linguistics and Stylistics I	lecture			3			
ASVB03 02	Text linguistics and Stylistics II	lecture			3			
ASVB06	**Specialized translation**							
ASVB06 01	Translating political and legal texts E-H	seminar				3		
ASVB06 02	Translating political and legal texts H-E	seminar					3	
ASVB06 03	Translating business and financial texts E-H	seminar						3
ASVB06 04	Translating business and financial texts H-E	seminar						3
ASVB06 05	Translating IT texts E-H, H-E	seminar						3
ASVB06 06	Translating Texts in the Social Sciences	seminar					3	
ASVB06 06	Translating literary texts	seminar						3
ASVB07	**Final exam**							3
Tot. cr:			**0**	**0**	**11**	**12**	**12**	**15**

Source: (https://btk.pte.hu/sites/btk.pte.hu/files/files/hallgatoinknak/golyahir/2016/ba_napp/szakfordito_anfranb2_09-10-12267idoterv.html)

Table 9 contains the detailed description of the BA translation specialization programme on a timeline, together with the credits. It clearly shows that the biggest emphasys is on the practical skills. The theory is concentrated in the first and the second semesters of the programme, the third and the fourth semesters are totally devoted to practice.

Looking at Tables 8 - 9, we can see that the spectrum of the fields the students do translations in is diverse. To be able to translate texts in them needs special background knowledge in politics, law, business and finance, IT, social sciences and literature, which is not offered in the study-plan (Table 9). Table 8 also reveals that there are no classes on special terminology, either. This means that students, if they want to do proper translations, have to do a lot of extra research. Perhaps an intriguing question is why English majors choose this specialization, when the certificate they get does not qualify them to work as certified translators. To find the answer to this question I conducted an empirical study on students' motivation to study translation at BA level.

3.3 Study 1: BA students' motivation in Translation Studies classes

"Good research cannot be built on poorly collected data…"

(Gillham, 2000, p. 1)

3.3.1 Introduction

Although motivation seems to be a well researched area in the huge arena of applied linguistics (Doró, 2010; Dörnyei, 1994; 1998; 2010; 2014; Dörnyei et al., 2014; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Gardner, 2010; Heitzmann, 2014; Józsa et al., 2014; Kormos & Csizér, 2014; MacIntyre, 2002; Nikolov,1999; Nikolov & Mihajlević Djigunović, 2006; Ushioda, 2016; Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012), so far little attention has been paid to English majors who choose translation studies as a specialization at BA level at the University of Pécs (https://felveteli.pte.hu/kepzes_pdf/618). This four-semester program offers the applicants special knowledge, but no certification, however, it can prevent them from getting their diploma if they fail the final translation test. According to 2019 data (https://felveteli.pte.hu/ponthatarok), the required points for English Studies at BA level were 356, and between 10 and 65 applicants could be accepted. These numbers mean that the pool is shallow, when it comes to choosing a minor or a specialization. In the academic year of 2016-2017, when the first part of the research was conducted there were only 30 students in the program, including the second and the third year, so it was the total number to take into consideration for my research. It is small, but as my study serves local needs of starting translation training at MA level, I did not want to spread my research to other institutions.

Although the literature offers several methods to study motivation, this complex and dynamically changing phenomenon (21., 2.2, 2.3), regarding my small sample in phases 1 and 2, I decided on qualitative methods (student essays, follow-up interviews), while in the third one I used a questionnaire.

3.3.2 Research questions

My research on motivation consisted of three phases, each aiming to look at the most powerful motivating factors that lead students to opt for translation as a specialization, how their learning experiences impact their motivation and development, and also to find out about their language background, their strengths and weaknesses, what they regard most motivating and demotivating in their classes. Consequently, four research questions were formulated:

(1) Why do BA students choose translation as a specialization?
(2) What language background do they have when they roll up for the course?
(3) Which are the most important contributing factors to student motivation in BA translation classes?
(4) What do students find most motivating and demotivating in their classes?
(5) How do they want to use their translation skills after graduating?

The first and second phases were carried out in the spring semester of the 2016-2017 academic year with the aim of preparing a solid background for the third, more comprehensive phase, implementing a questionnaire study, which was conducted in the fall semesters of the 2017-2018 and 2018-2019 academic years. The research plan is shown in Table 10.

Table 10 *Research plan for Study 1*

Phase	**Semester**	**Research questions**	**Research instruments**	**Number of participants**
1	2016/17 Spring	1, 3, 4	Student essays	8 BA students
2	2016/17 Spring	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	Follow-up interviews	3 BA students
3	2017/18 Fall 2018/19 Fall	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	Student questionnaire	24 BA students

The first phase aimed to gather information on the resons of students' enrollment in the program, asking them why they liked translation classes. The follow-up interviews in the second phase focused on the patterns that emerged in the student essays. Motivating and de-motivating factors were identified and grouped, which helped to create the initial question pool for the student questionnaire to be carried put in the third phase of the research.

3.4 Phase 1: Student essays

3.4.1 Participants

The participants in the first phase were eight anonymous second-year BA students majoring in English who took up translation in the third semester of their studies, after passing their proficiency exam (C1 level) in the end of their first academic year. However, heir estimated level of English proficiency was between B2 and C1 on the six level scale described in the *Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR*, Council of Europe, 2001) and the Hungarian school-leaving examination all students had passed at advanced (B2) level before being admitted to university. (423/2012. Korm. rendelet).

3.4.2 Data collection instrument

To be able to establish a baseline for a motivation map, in this phase the participants were asked to continue the first line of a short composition: "I like translation classes because..." I chose this simple writing task as my data collection instrument because this kind of short task was familiar to them from their previous studies, it was easy to complete, and I assumed it was suitable to gather basic information on the participants' main motives to enroll in the specialization.

3.4.3 Procedures

The written task was completed in-class, and the allocated time was 15 minutes. As a result, I got eight compositions, which were short, and to the point. To examine the data I conducted content analysis based on the main principles of qual research (Creswell, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007b; Saldana, 2009). The reasons, given by the students, were identified and, in order to group them, categories were set up. The results are shown in Table 6.

3.4.2 Results and discussion

The reasons the students gave in their compositions typically could be organized into six categories: (1) language use, (2) teachers, (3) fellow students / peers, (4) texts, assignments, instruments, (5) atmosphere, and (6) personal goals (Table 11: The numbers in brackets refer to the number of students who mentioned the given reason in their composition.)

Table 11

Motivating factors mentioned by students in their compositions (frequency)

Motivating factor	**Examples**
A) Language use (7)	improving skills, vocabulary and grammar differences in structure similarities and differences between the two (Hungarian and English) languages
B) Teachers (5)	the feedback they give assessment personality
C) Peers (3)	meeting of different viewpoints discussing solutions
D) Texts, assignments, tools (7)	diversity of the texts / topics new vocabulary, web pages, technology
E) Atmosphere (4)	interactive funny “not as boring as other classes”
F) Personal goals (3)	becoming a professional translator preparing for the challenges ahead

Seven students liked translation classes, both seminars and lectures, because they improved their different skills, vocabulary, and grammar, and highlighted the similarities and differences between the source language and the target language. Five students mentioned teachers as motivating factors, most often because of the usefulness of the feedback and the assessment they give, and for other personal reasons (“they are between tolerable and awesome”). Three students found important that they could discuss the solutions of their peers and meet different viewpoints in translation classes. Nobody referred to peer-assessment, either because it is not used in the classes or they did not recognize it as something worth mentioning. The texts the students had to deal with, the assignments they got and the instruments they used were mentioned in seven compositions. The diversity and the interesting nature of the texts and assignments were emphasised; whereas the instruments they used were mentioned because they were either “new” or “ancient.” Interestingly, in both cases they were described as motivating. The working environment (the atmosphere) was mentioned by three participants. One found it motivating because it was interactive, one because it was funnier than other classes and one because it was not as boring as other classes. It was also described as safe: an environment where “nobody gets hurt”. The personal goal of becoming a professional translator was mentioned by three students out of the seven.

3.5 Phase 2: Follow-up interviews on student essays

3.5.1 Participants

As a follow-up to the written task, I invited participants to interviews through their tutor. The interviews happened in two sessions. In the first session (30/04/2017), I interviewed two volunteers, a female (P1) and a male (P2), in the second session (05/03/2017) my interviewee was a male student, (P3) all from the group who wrote the texts (second-year group from 2016-2017).

3.5.2 Data collection instrument

I planned to conduct structured interviews focusing on surfacing patterns in the written texts, setting up categoried for the aspects of learning translation, each because of the motivating force they may have on someone’s decision when it comes to choosing a field to study: (1) Background, learning environment and language competence, (2) Translation as a skill and specialization, (3) Course content, (4) Feedback and assessment.
I also wanted to pinpoint what students found motivating, demotivating or neutral concerning the four listed aspects.

As Rubin and Rubin say, “qualitative interviewing requires intense listening, a respect for and curiosity about what people say, and a systematic effort to really hear and understand what people tell you” (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 17). As I always regarded myself a good listener, and I wanted to collect as much information as possible by the simple means of listening, I found the interview the perfect tool for this part of my research. It also ment that I sometimes let my interviewees (and even myself) take side-tracks, and as a result, the interviews turned out to be semi-structured in the end.

3.5.3 Procedures

First, I asked the interviewees if they wanted to use English or Hungarian. As they chose their mother tongue, the interviews were conducted in Hungarian language, recorded by a dictaphone, transcribed and translated to English afterwards. Both sessions took approximately one hour, and the interviewees were asked the same questions (see section below). The venue in the first case was a café, a silent room with perfect privacy, mineral water, coke, and coffee. The second time we were in a seminar room at the university, with an open window and chirping birds outside. As it turned out, the difference between the places did not really count; the atmosphere was relaxed in both cases, and, perhaps because they were volunteers, the interviewees were open and talkative.

3.5.4 Results and discussion

(1) Background, foreign language competence

The questions of the first part of the interview aimed to find out what foreign language background the interviewees had, including their first encounter with English as a foreign language, the other languages they had studied, the main sources of influence when it came to choosing English studies as a major and translation as a specialization at university. I also asked them about their expectations and their first experiences at university, their weaknesses and strengths, and how much they thought they improved during their studies.

The first thing that became clear was that the interviewees were the children of the generation that studied Russian at school, both at primary and secondary level. Although their parents were taught this language, they did not like it, did not become fluent speakers of it and after leaving school they did not use it for any purpose. They did not learn another language either, however, their children, who started school after the 1990 change of regime, were offered the freedom of choice when it came to language learning. Russian was not compulsory anymore, and English, followed by German, became the two most popular foreign languages in a very short time. Thus, the family background, more precisely the parents' low level of foreign language competence was not a factor in the case of my three interviewees that would have encouraged them to study foreign languages. It was the change of paradigm in educational policy, the freedom of choice concerning foreign languages, which played a motivating role at schools.

Following the trends, two of the three participants chose English as a foreign language at primary school, although they started learning it in different classes. In the first interview the female participant (P1) took it up in the first, the male (P2) in the fifth class, so their first encounter with English as a foreign language happened quite early. They both studied English for several years before entering university: P1 for twelve and P2 for eight years. P3, on the other hand, took it up only at the age fourteen, however, before starting secondary school he went to a language preparatory class, where they had twelve English lessons a week – much more, than in an ordinary class. By the time they enetered university, all of them had had a B2 level language exam. When preparing for the language exam, P1 had extra classes in English with a private teacher, whereas P2 and P3 were coached by their teachers at school. They also studied a second foreign language, which was German, the second most often chosen foreign language in Hungary. All three respondents gave it up temporarily due to the lack of time and for financial reasons, but they were well aware that they would have to continue learning it if they wanted to carry on with their translation studies at MA level.

Arriving at university, they all found that they were at a similar proficiency level in English with their fellow students, and they faced the same difficulties. The most striking was the fact that they *had to* do and learn everything in English, whereas at primary and secondary level they used English only in the English lessons. What was a difficulty at the beginning soon became a motivating force for them: their vocabulary grew very fast and they became much better readers in English.

I also wanted to know if all their expectations were met concerning the translation programme. “If it takes much time to come up with an answer, it means that you cannot come up with anything. No, I cannot say I found anything disappointing. What we have not learnt so far, will learn in the next two semesters. I think I basically get what I expected before”, said P3, who had already experimented with law and teacher training, but he gave them up, because he “did not like what he got”. “I initially thought we would have more practice, but now I see that what we do is enough. Even seems to be too much sometimes. Right now we have assignments for three different classes”, said P2. “I think the programme is good as it is”, added P1. “I did not expect more. As we are only eight in the group, it is homely. I did not think it woult be this informal. And we cover so much. I am satisfied indeed”.

(2) Translation as an activity, a skill and specialization

The second part of the interview focused on translation, which they chose as a specialization in their sophomore year. I was curious if they could define the construct of the discipline they chose to study. What did it mean for them? Why did they choose it? What experience did they have in translation before applying for the programme? What qualities did they think a translator needed? Did they plan to continue their studies at MA level? How did they want to use their special knowledge and skills after graduating?

I had a common experience with my interviewees, which seemed to be a good starting point. Just two weeks before the interviews were conducted, we all listened to the renowned translator's, Peter Czippott's engaging lecture about translation at the University of Pécs, where he, as an invited lecturer, presented a long list of definitions of the construct (https://btk.pte.hu/esemenyek/peter_czipott_mufordito_eloadasai). However, the participants in the present study were not able to define translation either in a sophisticated or in a practical way. They did not remember that translation, in Czipott's poetic understanding, meant the two sides of a tapestry, and they could not bring up any of definitions given by scholars in relevant literature (see 1.1, Table 2). Translation for them, as it turned out, meant a simple practice; a task, where they had to give back the words of the source text in the target language the best way they could. They all rejected 'word-for-word' translation, they voted for 'content' translation, even in the case of special (e.g., legal) texts.

All three chose translation as a specialization because they saw it as a potential career that they could pursue in the future not only in Hungary, but anywhere in the world. The other reason to choose it in the cases of P1 and P2 was the fact they learnt Hungarian literature in an increased number of classes at grammar school, and they felt they were good at it. Therefore, an additional motivating factor was their good knowledge of the mother tongue, which relevant literature also mentions as basic as the good level knowledge of the target language (Chesterman, 2005; Gile, 2009, 2010; Gouadec, 2007; Kelly, 2005; Laver & Mason, 2018; Limon, 2010; Nida, 1981; Pym, 1992, 2003; Risku et al., 2010; Robinson, 2012).

They did not really have any experience in translation before choosing the specialization except for activities they did for fun. One interviewee, P3 acted as a family interpreter once, and cited an experience when he translated a longer text for his brother, and the idea that he could do it as a bread-winning job started to formulate after that. "My teacher said that I could get good money for such a translation, and what to say… I was motivating". P2 experimented with translating comics and subtitles for TV series.

Answering the question "What kind of knowledge and skills do you think a translator needs?" they mentioned the reasonable knowledge of the source language and the target language and factual knowledge (special technology, resources available). Only P3 argued that "the good knowledge of the mother tounge is enough. My English vocabulary is poor, but that does not prevent me from translating". Perhaps, because they were at the very beginning of their translation studies, they did not know too much about the theory of problem solving (options for translating – direct, literal, oblique translation, etc.), or strategies and techniques ("We discuss these when a problem comes up".) They did not even think that translating texts could be physically exhausting; no wonder, so far they had translated only short texts. Only P3 mentioned that the "ability to sleep" was important. "If you do not sleep enough, you cannot be effective". They laughed when I asked them if they were ready to sit 10 hours a day in front of the computer. "We do that anyway", was their answer. What was pronounced by all three participants was creativity in finding the best equivalents for even the most difficult turns of speech in the source text, like "törpe bögre görbe bögre", mentioned by P3 or "Mézga Géza", brought up by P1, or in case of so called "law frequency words" and collocations (Kenny, 2014, p. 128). Translating culture specific texts held considerable difficulties for them, although P3 said that "we can look up these things quite easily".

They all agreed that choosing translation as a specialization was a good decision for them, most of all because it gave them knowledge, which was useful in their English studies classes, as well. P1 and P2 planned to continue studying it at MA level, and later to do it as a career, either in Hungary or abroad. P3 also wanted to become a professional translator, but, because of financial reasons, he was not sure if he wanted to do MA studies. "I do not have any state-financed years left, so I can do it if I can collect enough money for the tution fee", he said.

(3) Course content

The questions of the third part were aimed at the course itself. What and how many classes did they have? What tasks and activities did they do in these classes? Which of these did they find useful for developing their translation skills? How many teachers did they have, and how were the classes by different teachers taught? How were they instructed about course content and course requirements? What tools did they use in classes and when doing their home assignments? What forms of assignments did they like doing?

As the three respondents belonged to the same study group of eight, they all had four different classes in the third semester of the translation programme, typically one lecture and three practical seminars. Although it was in accordance with the official study plan, non of them could name the classes. The lecture, P1 and P2 said, covered cultural differences and similarities, comparative grammar (in the study plan it was comparative linguistics) and, due to the low number of students in their group, it tended to be interactive with practical tasks in the end.

Concerning course content, they named two tasks they regularly did: translating from one language into the other and discussing the translations they did. In the first term of the first year of the programme (in the second year of their BA studies), they translated from English into Hungarian, but from the third term they did it in the other direction, as well. P1 and P2 found translating from Hungarian into English rewarding. The teachers had warned them that it would be more difficult, and now they were motivated by the mere fact that they could cope with this task. “Translation itself is motivating for me, especially if I can cope with it”, said P2, who had the strongest mastery motive (Dörnyei, 2010b; Józsa et al., 2014) of the three. They got weekly assignments (“a one-page translation for each lesson”); they often started doing them in class and if they did not get to the end, they could continue at home so that the next time they could discuss their texts. P1 and P2 found discussion the most enjoyable and useful part of the course. P3 did not like it so much, because it took much time, and he was not interested in other students’ translation problems, although he admitted he “could learn from them”. At the beginning of the semester they always got the syllabi for each class, so they knew what to expect. Sometimes they could negotiate: they could choose the texts for translation, and, as was pointed out by P1 and P2, choice was a strong motivating factor, because it involved their interests (Nikolov, 2000). However, it did not really count for P3.

The classes were practice oriented and taught by four teachers according to the study plan (3.2, Table 7). Strategies, techniques and methods were discussed when a problem arose, and they all found this helpful, because the explanations were connected to concrete texts in this way.

Concerning the instruments, they used their unanimous answer was “Google is our best friend.” They consulted dictionaries only if their Google search was unsuccessful. If they used a dictionary, it was typically an online, bilingual one. Only P3 liked using traditional, printed dictionaries, because “they were reliable and it was a good feeling to keep the book in my hands and turn the pages”. P1 and P2 referred to a software (MemoQ) they were learning how to use, but they still were at the basics. They all have heard about corpora from their teachers, but they have never relied on them so far, and haven not been encouraged to use them; no wonder they could not name any.

They typically had a written a one-page assignemment for each class, but that was not a problem for them: “We are here to practice as much as we can”, said P1 in total agreement with the others. They sometimes were late with their assignments, but they always did them in the end. In case of one teacher, they always started to do the assignment in class. “We do a kind of oral translation by turntaking”, said P2. If they did not get to the end of the text in class, they could finish the translation at home. They liked doing it that way, because they got instant feedback, which, according to literature, significantly enhances motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

(4) Assessment, feedback

As for assessment, all three students found weekly in-class assessments of their assignments (including the discussion of the identified problems) really useful and inspiring: “We become aware of our errors, and we can learn from each other’s mistakes”, said P1 and P2. They also agreed that the feedback they got from their teachers was essential for their development, even if it was negative. Only P3 had ethical problems with it: “They seem to forget that the unlucky sod, whose translation is being torn apart, is also sitting there, ashamed”. Once, due to a teacher’s illness, P1 and P2 got the grades for their translations without feedback, so they could not decide what mistakes they had made, and they felt at loss. “Luckily, it happened just once, because it was really demotivating” said P2. The feedback is sometimes general, and concerns common mistakes, other times it is labelled, that is aimed at a person. “The teacher projects one of the translations, and we take it apart”, said P3. “We analyze, discuss every sentence, every phrase. The teacher makes comments, helps us to find better solutions, and if we have questions in connection with our own translation, we can ask it”, summarized P1 the way they were given feedback in class. “In the end of the semester everybody in the group gets a detailed, personal feedback”, added P2. All three participants found both forms/approaches useful, because they highlighted the strengths and weaknesses of the individual students, and showed which fields and tasks needed more practising. “We are confronted with mistakes we would not be able to see on our own”, added P1. As they had to hand in their translations through dropbox, they had access to each other’s work, could read anyone’s translation, but they never did peer assessment. “Reading our mates’ translation is also a kind of help, because we might fight solution for a problem we could not solve”, argued P2. P3 found the idea of peer assessment “really odd”.

When I asked them to highlight three really motivating things in their classes, after a telling pause P1 listed interesting texts, the teacher’s personality and translating business and legal texts. “If the texts are interesting or humorous, they are easier to translate, as well. And it is good to have attentive, motivating teachers”. The third most motivating thing she named was rather instrumental: “I am inclined to do business or legal translations, because they pay better than literary translations. That is why these classes are so motivating for me”. As P2 pointed out, boring tasks sometimes resulted in demotivation in his case, but if the texts were enjoyable, the translation itself was joyful for him. “That was the main reason I chose this specialization”, he explained. “And the teachers themselves can be motivating, too, although knowing how little they earn is rather demotivating”. For P3 it was difficult to find three motivating elements in his classes. His main motivation to study translation was instrumental: “I want to become a professional translator and make money with it”, he said. After some thinking, he found one of his teachers motivating: “I really do not like to miss out on his classes. He has great knowledge, an inspiring personality and he is fair. His opinion is important to me”. However, he mentioned another teacher who taught a very difficult class. “I cannot stand this teacher. He literally irritates me. He also failed me in his subject, which was not a problem, because he was right. But… he knows what he teaches. In the end, I decided I had to forget about my negative feelings towards him, and learn from him as much as I can. Once we even had a great talk. So it is not the teacher’s personality which is important. It is his knowledge”. P3 listed one more other thing, which he – in contrast with P1 and P2 – found neutral concerning translation classes. The texts for him were not that important. “The topic is given. It is not the teacher’s mistake, if the text is boring.”

Analyzing the answers to my questions I grouped what stood out as motivating, neutral or demotivating for my interviewees’ in their studies (Table 12). As it is quite evident, the participants have experienced just a few neutral, and hardly any demotivating factors so far. In some cases, because of its nature, the same factor could turn out to be motivating, neutral and demotivating. (E.g. an interesting text is motivating, whereas a boring one is rather demotivating or neutral.)

Table 12 *Factors listed by the three interviewees as motivating, neutral or demotivating*

	Factors	**Motivating**	**Neutral**	**Demotivating**
Background, language competence	family background		√	
	paradigm change in education policy (1990)	√		
	first school experiences			√
	school teachers		√	√
	number of languages studied		√	
	language proficiency at entering university	√		
	improvement in skills and language use	√		

Transltion as a skill	previous experience in translation	√		
	good level of Hungarian proficiency	√		
	the interesting nature of the source text	√		
	the creative nature of the activity	√		
	the direction of translation		√	
	seeing translation as a potential career	√		
Course content	previous expectations were met	√		
	number of translation classes per week		√	
	tasks / texts	√	√	√
	teachers	√	√	
	opportunity to negotiate	√	√	
	tools /instruments used		√	
Assessment, feedback	teacher assessment / feedback	√		
	peer assessment (very rare)	√		
	group discussion of an assignment	√		
	feedback, concerning the whole group	√		
	personal feedback	√		
	lack of feedback			√
	good grades	√		

Key: √ marks the category the listed factor belongs to.

The participants of the interviews thought their expectations had been met in translation classes. In the end I asked each of them to rate the programme and themselves, as well. On a scale of 1 to 5, P1 and P2 awarded 5 points to the classes and to their teachers, P3 gave 4 points; and they put themselves or rather their knowledge and the skills they learnt between 3 and 4. They said would not change anything concerning the course, however, P2 would appreciate one more class on cultural topics.

3.6 Summary of findings

The first two phases of the study aimed to examine a seemingly well researched topic: motivation in learning English as a second language. However, there was not one in the rich reservoir of previous studies, which would have dealt with motivation in translation studies as a specialization at BA level. To start to examine this many faceted phenomenon, I chose two closely related ways, and I think it turned out to be beneficial. What was written in the compositions (3.4.2 Table 9) was reinforced in the interviews (3.5.4 Table 10), which, at the same time, offered a great deal of new information concerning the background, the language competence, and other things that lie behind a choice of this nature.

Knowing that the research involving a single group of eight students cannot be regarded as representative of all BA students in the translation program, it is easy to identify its shortcomings. What surfaced as a neutral factor in this study (e.g., family background) can easily turn out to be a motivating one with a larger sample (e. g., in families, where both parents speak foreign languages or make their living using them) or even demotivating (in case of students with disadvantaged family background). However, it pointed out several factors, which have to be taken into consideration when examining BA students' motivation in translation studies. It highlighted those ones, which motivate students to achieve better results in what they do, and also those aspects which have to be changed. The students' answers underlined the importance of language proficiency, the course content, the teachers' personality and knowledge, the assignments they did, the amount they practiced, the way their work was assessed and the feedback they got. The interviews proved the importance of mastery motivation ("the simple fact that I can do my assignments is motivating for me"; "the teachers warned us that translating texts into English would be difficult, but I see I can do it and it makes me satisfied"; "it develops my vocabulary, so I can make better translations"). Instrumental motivation ("It seemed I would be able to make money with it"; "I want to do it because it pays better than literary translation") also got significant emphasis. It also turned out that the effect of the background depended on different, seemingly unrelated factors, for example the politically dependent educational system of the period when the parents of the participating students went to school: they did not have the freedom of choice in learning foreign languages, which was demotivating for them. Now they children have a huge scale of foreign languages to choose from, an opportunity which is motivating itself.

The results of these two phases were helpful in the design of the third data collection phase and instrument used with a bigger sample – a questionnaire. The findings highlighted the areas to be included, identified the questions which should be studied in more specific ways, for example, questions concerning family background, (e. g., parents' level of education and uses of a foreign language), and the aspects which emerged in the course of the interviews (concerning translating instruments, for example) also had to be taken into consideration.

3.7 Phase 3: Student questionnaire

3.7.1 Constructing the questionnaire

After discussing the previously reviewed relevant literature, I started to construct a questionnaire (Appendix B). Based on the procedures recommended by Dörnyei (2010a), first I decided about the format. I considered and rejected the electronic format, because in my own experience both as a student and a teacher, I am convinced that students are more willing to do something in-class, under their teacher's supervision than at home, sacrificing their precious free time. I also considered the paper format more user friendly, although more difficult to process. However, as the number of participants was not too high (the number of students who study translation as a specialization is not more than 20-22 a year (see 3.2 Table 7), including both the 2nd and 3rd year groups) I judged it as a small challenge. The main parts, as well as the questions and the items were prompted by the results of the previous stages. Following Gillham's (2000) advice, I tried to use a variety of different question types, so that the respondents would not get bored.

3.7.2 Piloting

After writing the instructions and giving the necessary examples, the questionnaire was ready for piloting in the spring semester of 2016-2017. The plan was to involve four sophomore BA students and two professors for feedback on how the questionnaire worked. I recruited the students through their teachers again. They got the questionnaire electronically, so they could comment on it, and after analyzing what they wrote we also discussed some points on Skype. In their comments, the students identified topics (e.g., in-class activities, translation tools, assignment and feedback related questions) which were included in different forms more than once. They also measured how much time it took to fill in the questionnaire: it was between 25 – 40 minutes, so I assumed that after removing the unnecessary questions and items it would not take more time than the suggested 30 minutes (Dörnyei, 2010a; Frary, 1996).

After making the changes I thought necessary I asked two of my professors for their feedback. One of them was the head of the doctoral school (T1), an applied linguist who had considerable knowledge in the field. The other one (T2) was also an applied linguist with experience in translation, who taught in the programme. They read the second draft of the questionnaire, and also gave invaluable tips what scales or question types to use, and how to re-word questions to make the questionnaire more to-the-point and user-friendly. (See examples for changes in Table 13.)

T1 identified a few “double-barreled” and redundant items, which I removed, and suggested me to “stretch” respondents, i. e. encourage them to reason their answers. She also pointed out topics to include, e.g., questions concerning the other languages the respondents studied (which languages, how long). Following their advice, I changed the wording of quite a few questions, and changed the question types (instead of numerical ranking I used Likert-scale or the open-ended questions were replaced by checklists etc.). The greatest alteration was suggested by T2. She encouraged me to enclude a part an autonomy, which, according to literature, goes hand-in-hand with motivation (Benson, 2007; Christison & Murray, 2014; Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; M. Lamb, 2011; Little, 2007; Murray, Gao, & Lamb, 2011; Nikolov, 2000; Nunan, 1997; Reinders & Lázaro, 2011; Sade, 2011; Ushioda, 2011), and an important aspect of translation as a profession or an activity (Baer & Koby, 2003; (Benson, 2007; 2008b; 2011; Gile, 2009; Kiraly, 1995; Klaudy, 1997; (La Ganza, 2008; Venuti, 2013). It made a lot of sense, so I included questions on autonomy, too. The process resulted in an eight-page questionnaire with five parts including 36 questions: (1) Language competence (5 questions); (2) Translation as a specialization (6 questions); (3) The content of the courses (6 questions); (4) Learner autonomy (10 questions); and (5) Feedback and assessment (9 questions). It became a bit longer than the four-six pages suggested in literature (Dörnyei, 2010a), which can be attributed to two reasons: (1) the added section on autonomy and (2) the explanatory tables, e. g., a CEFR scale, which the questionnaire includes.

Table 13

Examples for alterations in the questionnaire after piloting

Questionnaire pilot version	Questionnaire final version	Alteration
4 parts with 30 questions	5 parts with 36 questions	added a part on autonomy
	What other languages and how long have you been learning?	added a a question
Why did you choose translation as a specialization?	Why did you choose translation as a specialization? List three reasons.	reworded the question
Do you have any experience in translation? If so, please specify it by circling the answers that fit you most.	Did you have any experience in translation before you began studying translation at university? If so, please specify it by circling the answers that fit you most.	reworded the questin
Did you do any translation studies before?	---	removed the question
What do you find the most difficult when translating a text? Rank the activities from 1 (the easiest) to 10 (the most difficult).	Please, mark on a scale of 1 to 4 how difficult you find the listed activities. Circle the answers that fit you most. (1 – the easiest; 4 – the most difficult)	reworded the question and changed the question type
Is the number of the classes enough to improve your skills?	Is the number of the classes provided int he programme enough to improve your skills?	reworded the question
Would you like to have more classes? Give your reasons, please.	-	removed the question
Name the activities / tasks you do in your translation classes.	-	removed the question
	In what ways do you think the courses could be more useful?	added a question
How often do you get feedback on what you do in classes / out of class?	How often do you get feedback on what you do in classes	turned a two-item question to two one-item questions
	How often do you get feedback on your home assignments?	
How do you treat your mistakes made in tests?	How do you benefit from the evaluation received for your exam tasks?	reworded the question

3.7.3 Participants

The questionnaire was aimed at BA students studying in the translation specialization. In the fall semester of 2017, there were 21 students in the programme: eleven in the first, ten in the second year of their translation studies. As the return rate was law, the questionnaire was sent to the sophomore (1st year translation) students in the 2018 fall semester, as well. In the first round, 14 out of the 21 students returned fully filled-in questionnaires, whereas in the second round ten of the eleven students sent it back resulting in 24 filled-in questionnaires.

3.7.4 Procedures

The paper-and-pen questionnaires were administered in translation studies classes by the teacher, and the students who were present filled it in. The first round took place in the last class of the fall semester, 2017. The procedure, due to the low return rate, was repeated once with a different group in the beginning of the fall semester, 2018. This time only one of the eleven students did not return the questionnaire. There was no allocated time, the filling-in process was approximately 30 minutes.

3.7.5 Results and discussion

This section presents the analysis of data collected by the student questionnaires. The return rate, due to the relatively low number of students per group (see Table 6) was also low (24 altogether, including eight 2nd year and sixteen 3rd year students). As 75 % (24 of out 32 students) filled it in, the findings can be regarded as representative for the population of BA students with translation studies specialization at the University of Pécs. The data was analyzed manually.

A) Language competence

The first part of the questionnaire addressed the issue of language competence, focusing on how long the respondents studied English before entering university; what their level of English language proficiency was on the CEFR scales; what other languages they had learnt and for how long; and how they perceived their strengths and weaknesses concerning English.

The CEFR Companion Volume (2018, p. 114) states that “professional translators are usually operating at a level well above C2”. From the curriculum of the program we know, that passing the proficiency exam is a basic requirement to taking up translation as a specialization; therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the admitted students are at C1 level.

As the length of the program is four semesters, this, theoretically, should be a solid base, as two years should be enough to reach the required level. However, it turned out to be a very optimistic assumption, as quite a high number of students in the programme are well under C1, as the findings for the relevant part of the questionnaire and the interviews with their teachers will show.

Answers to the second question revealed that the respondents, before being admitted to university, had studied English for 3 to 13 years (Table 14). Despite the fact that a foreign language is compulsory for all Hungarian students from grade 4 (age 10), very few students indicated that they had started learning English at a young age. The number of years suggests large differences in their knowledge, especially knowing that the students have only one year to reach the desired C1 level at the university, which is the prerequisite of getting into the translation program.

Table 14
Number of years learning EFL before admission to university (N=24)

Number of years	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Number of students	1	8	1	2	1	2	3	1	1	3	1

Concerning their self-perceived English language proficiency level (Figure 2; Table 15) almost half of the students (46%) identified themselves as C1 level users, whereas six (25%) marked B2 and seven specified C2 level (29%) (Figure 2). Interestingly, the only student who had studied English for three years marked C2 as his/her proficiency level, similarly to 50 % of those who had learnt English for four years.

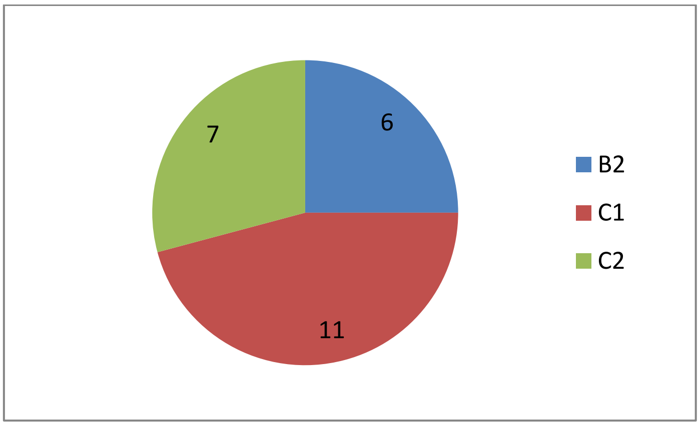


Figure 2
The respondents' perceived English language proficiency level (N=24)

Table 15

CEFR global scale descriptors for B2, C1 and C2 levels (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 24)

Level	Characteristics
B2	• Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. • Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. • Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
C1	• Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. • Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. • Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. • Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
C2	• Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. • Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. • Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.

In Hungarian public education some children start to learn a foreign language at kindergarten age, however, the number of kids whose parents choose to do so is low and no official data can be found (Medgyes & Nikolov, 2014). According to Hungarian National Curriculum (NAT 2020), learning of the first foreign language begins in grade 4 at primary school, but depending on local curricula, it can start in the first grade, if it is a special language class and the required conditions are given. That explains the difference in years concerning the length of foreign language studies (Table 13). The number of lessons varies, also depending on the type of class a child attends, which means that two students, learning the chosen foreign language for the same number of years can arrive at different levels by the end of their studies, depending on the number of lessons they had throughout the years. In case of the Hungarian secondary-school leavers it is minimum 984 lessons (3 lessons a week for nine years, starting the language in the fourth class of primary school). The average number of lessons at grammar schools is 1,363, at technical schools is 1,240 (Nikolov, 2011, p. 1051). The typical grammar-school student from age 15 tends to learn a second foreign language, as well, usually in two lessons a week.

If we look at Table 14 again, it is easy to see that English was the second foreign language for many respondents, more exactly for those, who learnt it for three, four or five years, presumably taken up at secondary school. This assumption was reinforced by the answers given on the question aimed at other foreign languages learnt by the participants. English was the first foreign language for 14 students and the second foreign language for the ten participants (Figure 3).

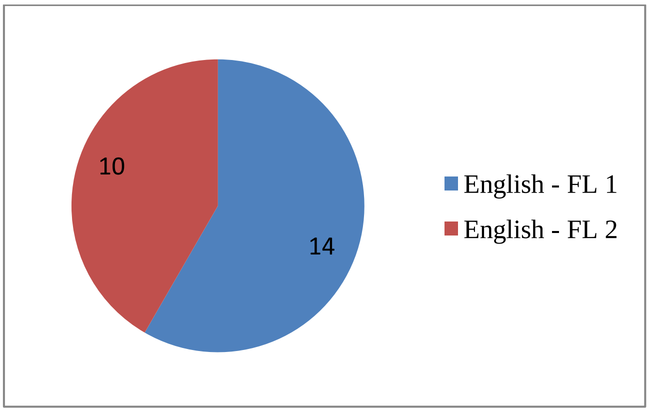


Figure 3
The ratio of English selected as FL1 or FL2 (N=24)

Each of the 24 students had learnt at least one other foreign language, typically German (19), followed by Italian (3), French (2), Latin (1) and Japanese (1). Only two of the participants had learnt a third foreign language: Spanish (1) and Portuguese (1) (Figure 4). Ten respondents had studied German as their first, nine as their second foreign language, however, when applying to university, they dropped it for the sake of English, which is the most frequently learnt foreign language in Hungary. According to a brand new study, it is chosen by 71% of secondary school students as their first foreign language, followed by German, chosen by 28%, and only 1% learn French (SZIE, 2019, p. 8). The same ratio was 50-50 percent twenty years ago (Csapó, 2001). This trend is supported by the findings of this small-scale study: about half of the participating students gave up German when they majored in a foreign language – typically English – at university.

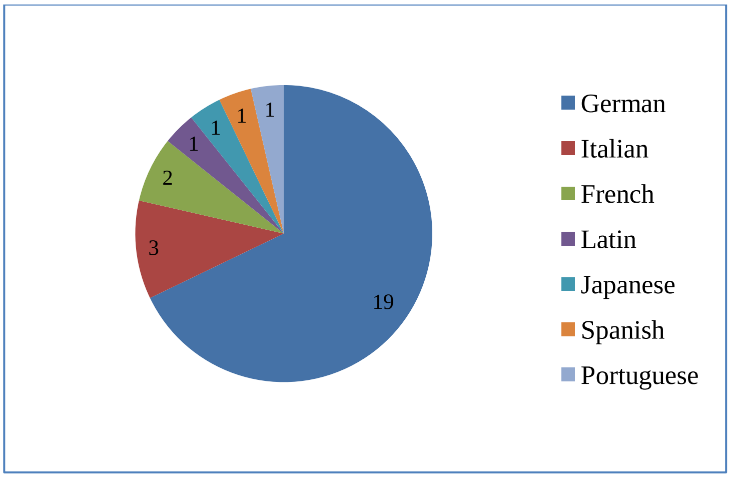


Figure 4
Other foreign languages learnt by the participants

As Figure 5 shows, 21 out of 24 participants learnt two foreign languages, including English, their major; two students learnt three languages, whereas one claimed to have studied four.

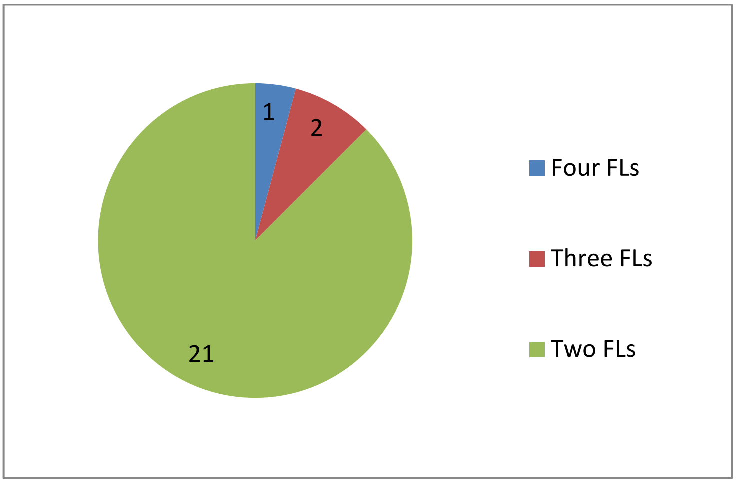


Figure 5
Number of foreign languages learnt (N=24)

Table 16 shows data on the number of years the 24 students devoted to the languages they chose to learn as a second or third foreign language. It is evident that the number of years particpants spent learning a third foreign language, as well as the number of the students doing so, are low.

Table 16
The number of years devoted to foreign language learning

Language	**Years / learner**												
	1	1,5	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
German	-	-	-	-	3	6	-	1	3	-	1	1	4
Italian	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
French	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.
Japanese	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Latin	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Portuguese	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spanish	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

The fifth question in the first part of the questionnaire addressed the strengths and weaknesses of the participants' English language competence (Figure 6). The four skills were listed, plus a few factors that may have a significant influence on their language education. Responses reflect that the participants perceive themselves really good at the two skills which are relevant if they want to become translators: the majority of the respondents marked reading and writing skills as their strengths. The fact that they are less good at listening, or they are not satisfied with their pronunciation, is not significant in this respect – even a person with hearing or speaking difficulties may be a highly qualified and excellent translator. On the other hand, low proficiency in reading comprehension and writing skills, poor grammar or vocabulary can be problematic: being familiar with the grammar and vocabulary of both languages (the source language and the target language) is a basic requirement. Lexical variation and density are the best predictors of lexical richness (Laufer & Nation, 1995; Nation, 2006), so poor or inadequate vocabulary can result in low quality translation.

The fact that the very same students, after admitting that they had average grammatical and vocabulary knowledge, consider themselves exceptionally good at translation in both directions seems controversial. It suggests that either their self-assessed proficiency is higher than it is, or they overestimate their written production (in this case translation), relying on their ideal L2 selves (Adolphs et al., 2018; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009).

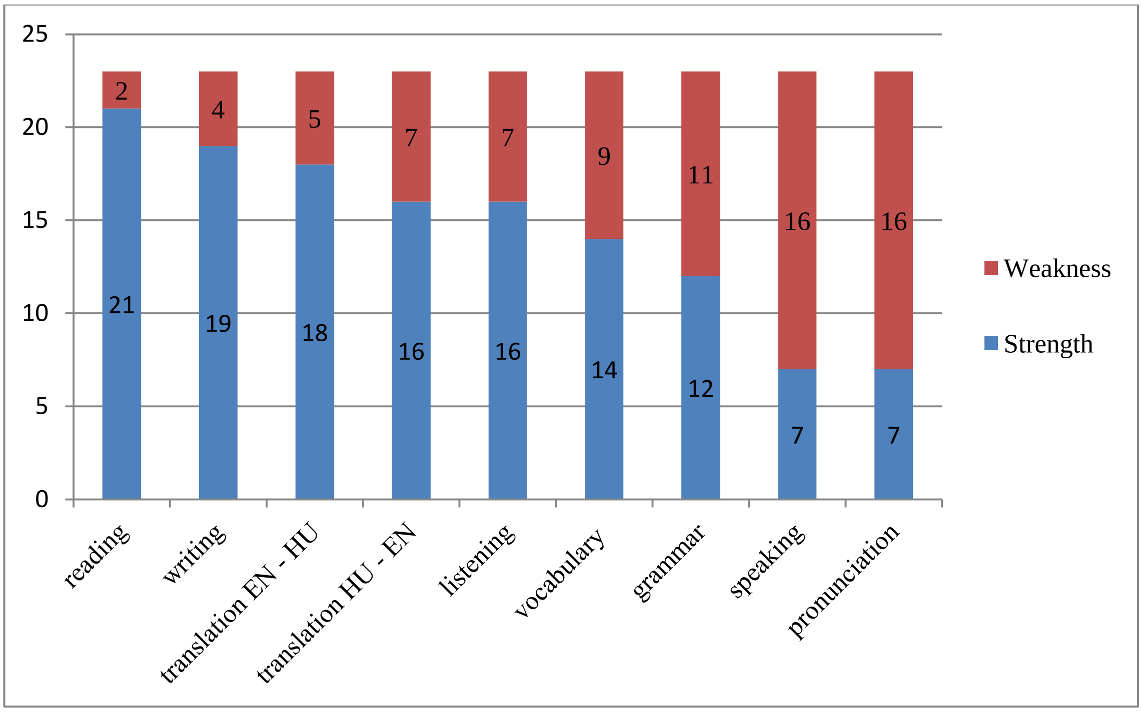


Figure 6
Students' self-perceived strengths and weaknesses (N=23)

Summarizing the findings about the participants' self-assessed language competences, we can state that the picture is diverse; studying in the same course or belonging to the same study group does not mean equal level of knowledge and skills. Figure 6 shows what different participants felt to be their strengths (blue) or weaknesses (red). This question was not answered by one student, so the respondents' number dropped to 23 from 24. 21 of the 23 claimed they were good at reading, which is basic, especially when one wants to become a literary translator. To write well is also important, and 19 respondents felt they were good at this skill. The figure also shows that they thought they had been better at translating from English to Hungarian than at translating to the opposite direction. Although most of the students estimated their English language proficiency to be at C1 or C2 level on the CEFR scale there were a few who admitted having poor grammar (11) or vocabulary (9); skills which have to be mastered if someone wants to become a translator. Research emphasizes that a student with this aim has to be linguistically well prepared (Doró, 2010, 2011), because the success of translation often depends on the translators' confidence in recognising the structures and layers of the foreign language they work with (Baker, 2011). Not being good at speaking or having pronuncaiton problem does not really matter in this case: thes qualitites do not really affects one's translation abilities.

B) Translation as a specialization

Six questions in the second part of the questionnaire focused on translation as a BA specialization: the reasons underlying the students' choice, the curriculum and the activities the students are required to do in the courses, as well as their future plans concerning translation. As one student gave up answering the questions after finishing the first part, the number of respondents dropped to 23, which, with the exceptions of one or two questions, remained the same throughout the questionnaire.

The most important question was why participants chose translation as their specialization (Table 17) and they were asked to list three reasons for their choice. Nearly 60% (14) of the respondents were planning to become translators, or at least hoped to have a job where translating texts was a requirement. Twenty found translation enjoyable or interesting. Other reasons were mentioned only once or twice, so they seemed to be less prominent to students.

Table 17
Reasons for choosing translation as a specialization (N=22)

Reasons	Number of students
I like / enjoy it. / I find it interesting / challenging / It is fun.	20
I would like / plan to be a translator. / I would like to do it in the future. / Future career plans. / I want to translate books (texts). / It offers a good job opportunity.	l4
I like / love English / I am good at English. / I like working with languages.	4
It is practical / useful.	3
Personal curiosity / hobby.	3
I found it more interesting than / not as boring as other specializations / minors.	3
Interest in translation techniques.	2
Writing is my strength. / I am good at writing.	1

When giving their answers, the students often repeated themselves, so the two or three reasons they gave most often counted as one:

S1: I love the English language. / I love working with languages.

S2: It seemed interesting. / It seemed challenging. / I find it interesting.

S3: Fun / challenge.

S4: I am interested in it. / It can be fun.

S5: I was curious. / I was interested.

S6: I am interested in it. / It does not bore me.

S7: Interest in the field / personal hobby factor.

Quite a few (17) participants chose this specialization for practical reasons; either because they had plans with translation concerning their future careers (14) or because they found it useful in general (3). Some of them described it as a possible hobby (3), or an activity they were simply interested in (20), which corresponds to what the interviewees mentioned in the earlier phase of the research: they had to take up a specialization, so they voted for something they found interesting, hoping it "will not be as boring as the other subjects".

The next question was aimed at the participants' experience or, as it turned out, the lack of experience in translation. The answers they gave clearly indicated that they were not familiar with the true nature of the activity: the most serious experience they had was doing translation in English classes, which usually meant translating sentences, paragraphs or short texts (Figure 7). Four students did some interpreting activities for school or informal (family, friendly) events, and four students did some "other" activities: one translated web articles as a hobby, one translated subtitles of TV shows for fun, one occasionally helped out in projects, and one did some translation at work.

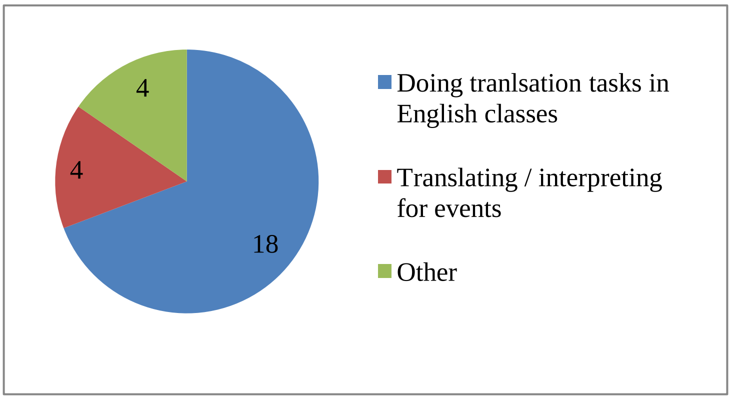


Figure 7
Students' previous experience in translation (N=21)

Next, they were asked to mark on a scale of 1 to 4 how easy they found translation (1 – very easy; 4 – very difficult) and also to explain their choice. The answers revealed that the majority (18) found translating from English into Hungarian (EN – HU) easier than translating in the other direction (Figure 8).

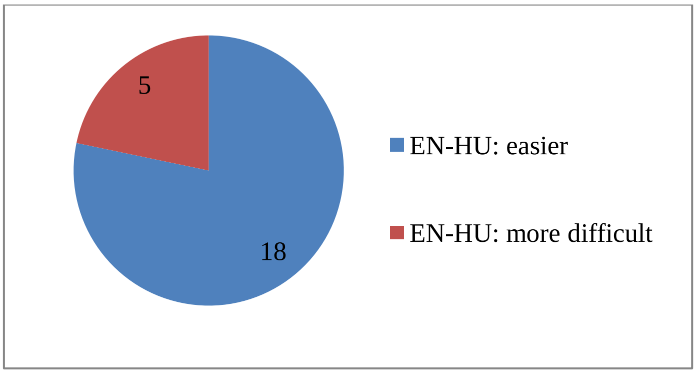


Figure 8
Perceived difficulty of E – H direction vs. H – E direction (N = 23)

When giving the reasons, the majority (15) of respondents referred to Hungarian being their mother tongue, e. g., “I use my mother tongue more confidently.” “It is easier to translate a text into your native language.” “It is easier for me to express myself in Hungarian”. Others mentioned the richness of vocabulary knowledge (4), and two respondents explained their choice by having “more experience in it” (Figure 9).

The five respondents who found translation from English to Hungarian more difficult explained their choices by the “nuances and differences which make the proper translation beyond reach”. Others typically attributed their difficulties to their inadequate vocabulary and grammar in the target (Hungarian) language: “My Hungarian grammar is not that good.” “Hungarian [grammatical] structures are more difficult for me.” “I can express myself better in English than in Hungarian.”

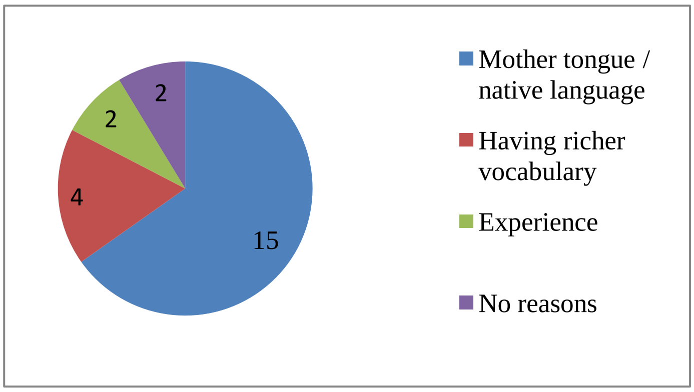


Figure 9
Reasons for perceiving translating the EN – HU direction easier (N=23)

As for how difficult the respondents found translation from English to Hungarian (EN – HU), the majority (78%) marked it easy or relatively easy, and only four students found it difficult and one very difficult (Figure 10). These findings correspond with what they claimed earlier (see Figure 5): they perceived translation from English into Hungarian as their strength.

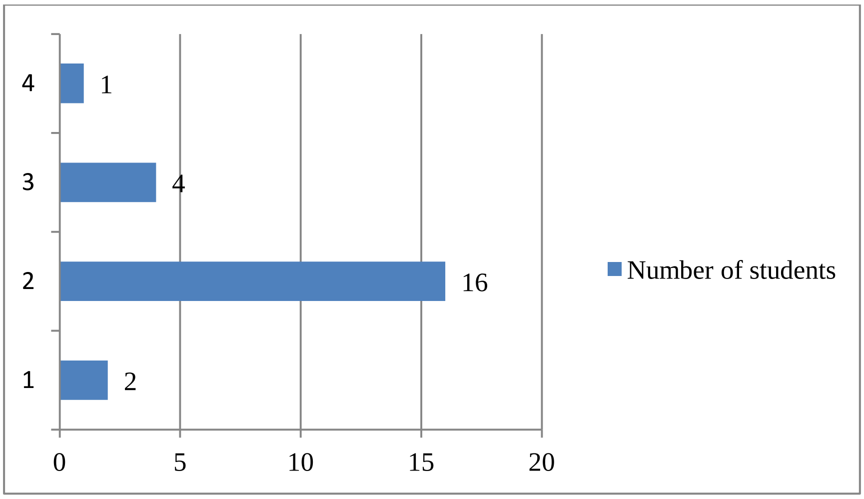


Figure 10
Perceived degree of difficulty of EN – HU direction (N=23)
Key: 1 = very easy; 4 = very difficult

Translation from Hungarian to English (HU – EN) (Figure 11), as over half of the students (14, which is 60%) claimed, was much more difficult than translation into their mother tongue. Only five out of 23 said that the other direction, i. e. translating from Hungarian to English was the easier task, and four stated there was no difference in degree of difficulty between the two directons, they both were easy for them.

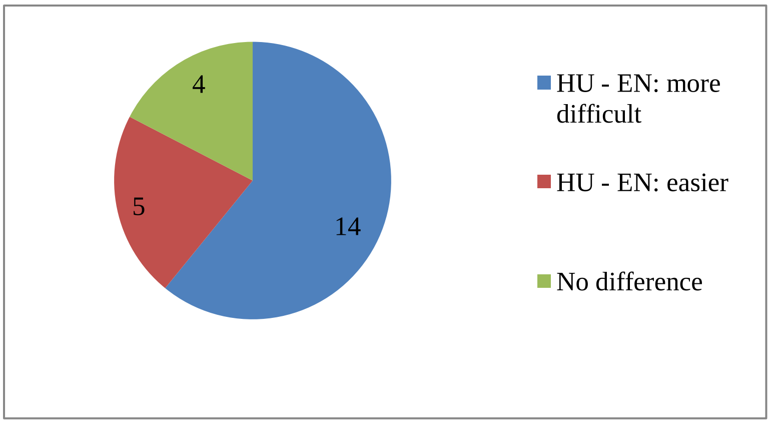


Figure 11
Perceived difficulty of HU – EN direction vs. EN – HU direction (N=23)

Their explanations were similar in nature to those they gave to the previous question. Out of the 14 who claimed that HU – EN direction was more difficult six pointed out that the target language, English, is their second language, thus, it is more difficult to use. Four students attributed their problems to their lack of experience, another four to insufficient knowledge of both grammar and vocabulary, and seven respondents mentioned equivalence and culture specific problems. One student complained about the low number of Hungarian – English translation classes, and one pointed out not being able to use the necessary strategies and produced word-for-word translations (Figure 12).

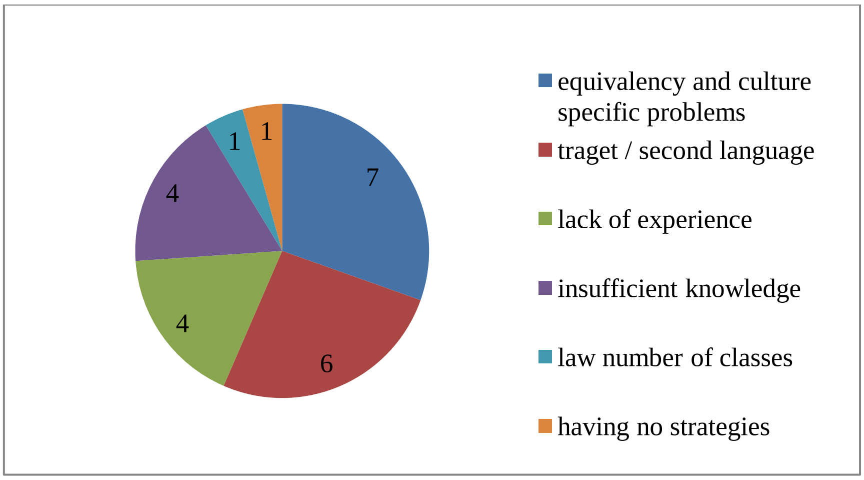


Figure 12
Reasons why HU – EN direction is more difficult (N=22)

Only two students found translation in this direction easy and three marked it relatively easy, giving vague, non-committal explanations: “I have been doing it for years.” “I got used to it.” “I cannot explain why, but I find it easy.” “If you know the correct word order and the suitable collocations all you have to do is to put them in the sentence.” Thirteen of the respondents defined this direction difficult, and one found it very difficult (Figure 13). The four students, who said there was no difference in degree of difficulty between the two directons, gave reasons, which did not tell us a lot: “I have been doing it for years” or “I got used to it” (for both directions). “It is not hard as Hungarisan is my mother tongue” (for E – H direction) and “It is not hard either because we have been reading so much in English (for H – E direction). There was one respondent, who marked both directions rather difficult, giving them both 3 on a scale of 4, reasoning that E – H direction was difficult because “my Hungarian grammar is not that good”, whereas the other direction (H – E) because having “trouble on focusing the meaning of certain phrases and words”.

Comparing what the participants claimed about their strengths and weaknesses (see Figure 5), there is a mismatch: while 16 students regarded translation from Hungarian into English their strength, in response to another question, 14 of the same respondents declared it difficult or very difficult. They were either inconsistent in their answers or they thought they were good at it but realized it was also difficult. As is evident both from the research literature (Baker, 2011; Kenny, 2009; Nida, 2012) and the responses, the degree of perceived difficulty greatly depends on the language one translates into (the target language): it is easier to translate into one's mother tongue than to a second (third, etc.) language. The level of knowledge (concerning anything that is related to translation – vocabulary, grammar, set phrases, etc.) was also listed as an important factor by the respondents, as well as the lack of experience. The ways the students formulated their reasons suggest that they are not familiar with the problems they have to overcome when translating, or even if they are familiar with them, they do not know what the different concepts (e.g., genre characteristics, register, addressing, equivalence at different levels, etc.) mean.

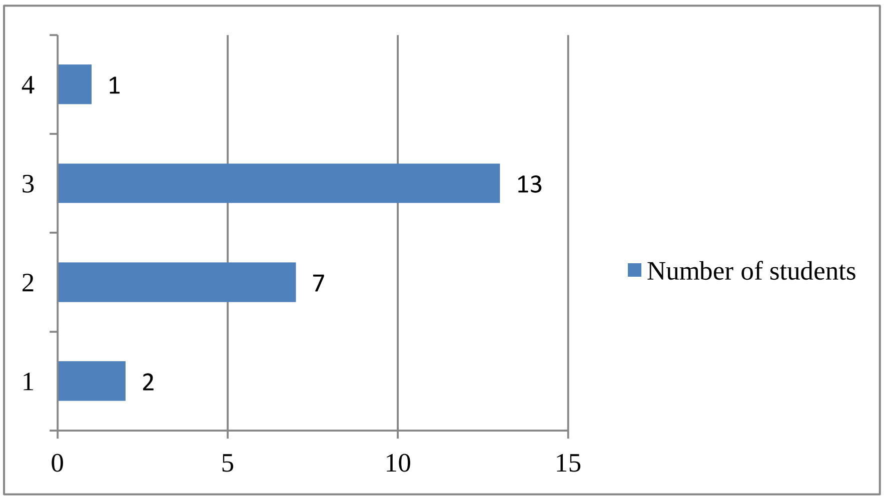


Figure 13
Degree of difficulty of translating from Hungarian into English (N = 23)
Key: 1 = the easiest; 4 = the most difficult

Question 9 aimed to explore how difficult different activities and problems were perceived when translating a text (Figure 14). The respondents were asked to mark the difficulty level on a scale of 1 to 4 again. Based on the findings of the previous research phases nine activities were listed, and those activities, tasks, and problems proved to be the most difficult ones, which could be characterized as "translation specific" activities, like "expressing cultural, social and professional differences", marked 1 by one, 2 by one, 3 by eleven and 4 by 10 respondents. It was closely followed by "preserving genre and register characteristics" (1 by two, 2 by eight, 3 by twelve and 4 by one student) or finding the equivalents for idioms or other set lexical phrases (1 by two, 2 by five, 3 by 13 and 4 by 3 students). These belong to the categories relevant literature defines as translation knowledge and country and cultural knowledge (Risku et al., 2010), or, in case of idioms, equivalence above word level (Baker, 2011).

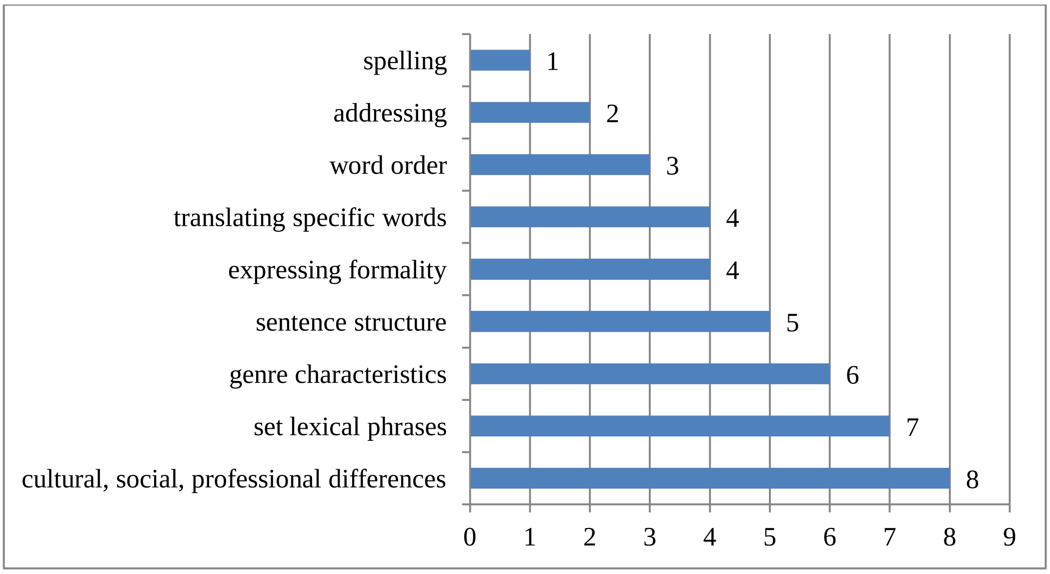


Figure 14
Degree of difficulty of translation tasks / problems (N=23)
Key: 1 = very easy, 8 = very difficult

Spelling was marked as the easiest task (1 by twelve, 2 by seven and 3 by four students). Word order (1 by seven, 2 by eleven and 3 by five students) or translating specific words (finding the equivalents at word level; 1 by two, 2 by 16 and 3 by four students) were marked as rather easy tasks, supposedly because they were frequent in the participants' FL classes throughout their language learning experience. There were surprising findings, as well. Addressing, which can be quite tricky in literary translations, was marked as the second easiest activity (1 by ten, 2 by seven and 3 by six students), whereas preserving formality was positioned on the border of "easy" and not so difficult (1 by three, 2 by 16 and 3 by 5 students). Sentence structure, which is set in English, so it is closely connected with word order, was marked as problematic (1 by two, 2 by 13, 3 by five and 4 by three students). It was in line with an earlier finding where grammar was marked as weakness by eleven students (Figure 6).

The last two questions in this part of the questionnaire inquired about the future plans of translation specialization students. First, they were asked if they wanted to continue their studies at a higher (MA) level. Thirteen of the 23 students had such plans, seven said no, and three were undecided (Figure 15).

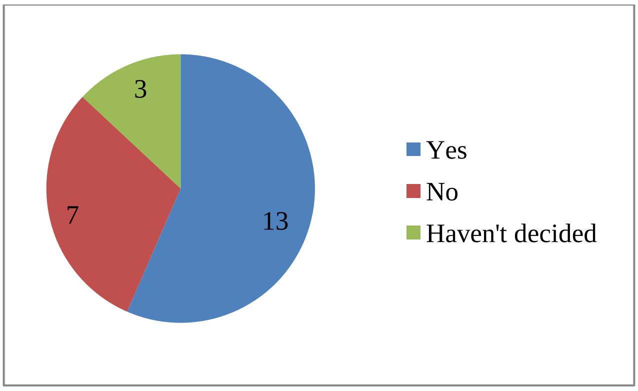


Figure 15
Plans concerning further studies at MA level (N=23)

Eight participants wanted to become professional translators. Two students simply enjoyed the activity, whereas two others wanted to improve their translation skills and knowledge. Seven of the remaining ten respondents had entirely different plans or did not want to move to another city which would have been the case if they had opted for continuing their studies, as University of Pécs does not offer an MA in translation studies.

When answering the question about the ways they thought they would be able to use their translation skills after graduation, over half of the respondents (14) stated that they wanted to use them as translators, or, at least, to make translation an essential part of their future work. The others wanted to continue it at hobby level mostly for fun (Figure 16).

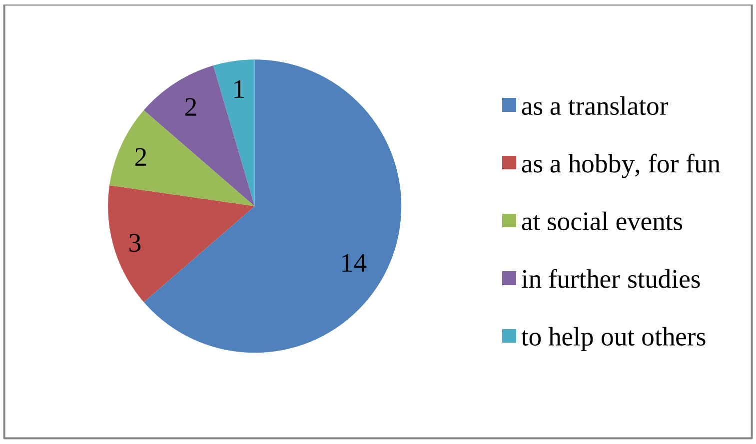


Figure 16
Plans for using the acquired translation skills after graduation (N = 22)

This section focused on four aspects: the respondents' reasons for choosing translation studies as a specialization at BA level, their previous experiences with translation, their attitudes towards the tasks and activities they were required to do in their different classes, and their future plans. The answers revealed that the majority (63%) of the participants chose translation as a specialization because they had plans with it in the future; they wanted to become professional translators, although they were inexperienced in the field. They had done translation tasks at school or different translation activities as their hobby for their own pleasure.

The participants perceived translating from English into Hungarian easier than translating in the other way, claiming that it was easier for them to express themselves in their mother tongue. The other direction was more difficult for them, in their view, partly because of their insufficient knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. As translation is about making choices and decisions at different levels (Baker, 2011; Klaudy, 1997; Wilss, 1998), there are other aspects which have to be taken into consideration: some features of the texts are rooted in the culture and the society of the speakers of the two languages. Dealing with genre characteristics, equivalence above word level, including set lexical phrases, and texts with cultural, social and professional references were perceived difficult for the majority of the participating students.

As for their plans for their future, 56% of the respondents want to continue studying translation at MA level, even if it means that they have to move to another city. The fact that over half of the students intend to invest in their special field of expertise indicates that they take their studies seriously.

C) The content of the courses

The third part of the questionnaire with its set of open-ended questions was more demanding for the participants than the previous two. Here, except for one question, they were required to give extended answers, which turned out to be quite laconic. The six questions were aimed to elicit information on the content of the courses, including the students' expectations, the number of classes provided in the program, the activities and tasks the respondents found useful or less useful for developing their translation competence.

Concerning their expectations (Figure 16), 50% of the students thought they would learn how to translate different types of texts (legal, political, business, literary), or how to become successful translators by practicing a lot. Also, almost half (45%) expected to learn useful skills, techniques and strategies, 18% wanted to expand their vocabulary, including specific words and expressions, 13% hoped to learn theory or do literary studies. Only one student thought that there would be an IT component in the curriculum, one student expected that translation studies would improve their style, and one respondent expected to learn a lot of grammar. Each student could list as many expectations as they wanted, but the typical answer contained only one or two. As figure 17 shows, the 22 respondents listed 31 expectations.

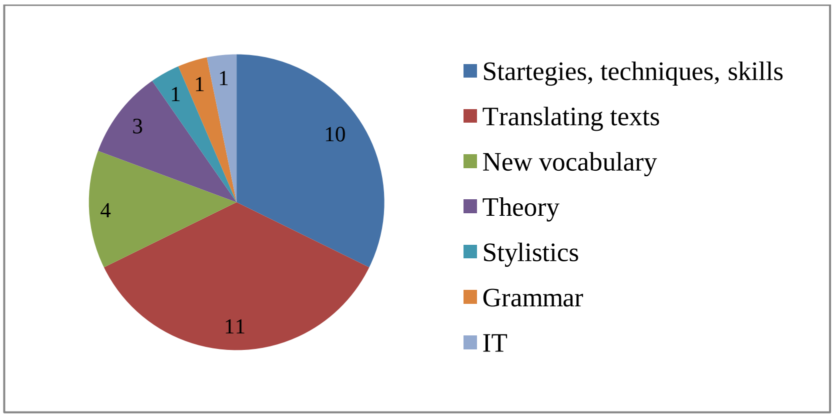


Figure 17
Students' expectations concerning course content (N=22)

When answering the question on how the curriculum met their expectations, half of the respondents said that "just as expected", or they "(almost) got what they wanted". Six students had mixed feelings about what they learnt, meaning that their expectations were only partly met, because they hoped to get more feedback, more meaningful tasks and also to have more classes. Although five students were not totally satisfied, stated without elaboration that they "learnt a lot of useful / practical things".

Twenty-two of the 23 respondents found the number of classes provided in the program enough to improve their translation skills; however, they would have liked to see them structured differently. They would include more practice, more time for discussion, more classes on strategies, techniques and cross-cultural topics. To get better chances to develop, they would like to have more frequent, better and more detailed feedback, and they would welcome more focus on their individual development. Only two students said that the program "is good as it is", and one opted for more tests.

In response to questions 15 and 16, the participants named the activities and tasks they found the most and least useful for developing their translation skills and they added their explanations (Table 18). Discussing translations, translation problems and mistakes, and doing translation tasks turned out to be the most useful activities, both stated by nine students. Concerning the translation tasks, the respondents referred to the texts, as well. Translating different genres, contemporary topics, special texts, longer pieces were regarded to be useful by five students, watching and translating TV shows by two, and home assignments by other two students. The other useful activities mentioned included reading in English, vocabulary tasks, learning about software, history of language and cultural studies. One student did not name any task or activity as ‘most useful’.

Table 18
Activities/tasks marked as ‘most useful’ for developing translation skills and the explanations (N=22)

Activity / task	**Number of students**	**Explanations**
translation tasks / practice	9	“practice makes us better”
discussing translation problems	9	“we can learn from each other’s mistakes”; “helps us to develop”
meeting different texts and genres	4	helps to understand text structures helps to learn special terminology
home assignments	2	“improve our translation skills”
watching tv shows	2	“I translate in my head.”
reading in English	2	improves vocabulary and grammar
history of language and cultural studies	1	“expands my knowledge”
expanding vocabulary	1	useful for translation in general
learning about software (MemoQ)	1	makes translation easier

The twelve activities / tasks the respondents found the least useful included: meaningless tasks (they did not specify them), texts with boring or irrelevant topics (sports, gastronomy and history), doing too easy translations, translating in class (instead of discussing home assignments), reading, comparing articles, and reading aloud one’s own translation. Translating with no or insufficient feedback also was mentioned as a negative component, although w know from literature that “even negative feedback can be useful, provided it is offered with support” (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 148). Seven students said there were no activities which would not be useful; they could learn from everything they did in their classes. Three respondents did not answer this question, hopefully because they also were satisfied with everything (Table 19).

Table 19
Activities/tasks marked as 'least useful' for developing translation skills and the explanations (N=20)

Activity / task	Noumber of students	Explanations
all activities / tasks are useful	7	"we can learn from everything"
meaningless tasks	2	demotivating
boring / irrelevant texts	3	
too easy translation tasks	2	"You cannot learn from them"
reading	2	"does not develop your skills"
comparing articles	1	meaningless
translating in-class	1	"discussing translations is more useful"
reading out one's translation	1	"the others might think it's my best"
translating with no or insufficient feedback	1	"does not improve our skills"
just talking about translation	1	"not as useful as translating"
not discussing a translation	1	"we don't know what we did wrong"
learning about the structure of the text	1	boring
home assignments	1	"It is better translating in-class"

The findings of the third part of the questionnaire are in accordance with the literature (Alderson, 2000; Alderson, Clapham, & Wall, 1995; Alderson, Figueras, & Kuijper, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2017) on giving students meaningful tasks and assignments, texts which are interesting for them, frequent and sufficient feedback and discussions which help solve potential translation problems and avoid the mistakes translation students are inclined to make. If we examine the listed activities and tasks along the motives, we can find examples for intrinsic motivation, when something, an interesting text or a reading task was found valuable by themselves; for mastery motivation in case of tasks students found enjoyment in and felt in control (watching tv shows in English and translating "in head"). However, the motivation behind the listed tasks was mostly instrumental: "practice makes us better", or "the more we practice, the better translators we will become", suggesting that anything they did should prepare them for the job.

D) Feedback and assessment

The last part of the questionnaire addressed feedback and assessment in translation studies classes. As has been shown, both play crucial roles in student development and in student motivation. Earlier findings and literature (Heitzmann, 2014; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003) implied that meaningful and frequent feedback can be conducive to students' development, so can a good grade. Insufficient feedback or a lack of feedback, on the other hand, can result in demotivation. Although feedback and assessment are traditionally regarded to be teachers' responsibilities, peer assessment, although used rarely, also has become part of the evaluation process.

The first question in this section was aimed at the frequency of different types of evaluation in TS classes. The students had to mark their answers on a five-point (0-4) Likert scale (0 – never; 4 the most frequently). As it turned out, most of the evaluation was still done by the teacher, but participants were also invited to express their opinion regarding the work of their fellow students (Table 20).

Table 20
Frequency of different types of evaluation in TS classes (N=23)

Evaluation	**Frequency**					
	0	1	2	3	4	Mean
by the teacher	0	0	0	2	21	3.91
by peers	5	6	6	6	0	1.56
by someone else	21	2	0	0	0	0.08

Key: 0 = never; 4 = the most frequently

Comparing the means of the findings it is not difficult to see that teacher evaluation happens most often (21 students marked so): nearly three times more often than student (peer) evaluation, and very rarely the translations are assessed by someone else; although I asked, the students who marked so did not clarify who this person was.

As a next step, the students were asked how useful they found the different types of evaluation concerning their development. Their answers were given on a five-point Likert scale (0 – not useful at all; 4 – the most useful) (Table 21).

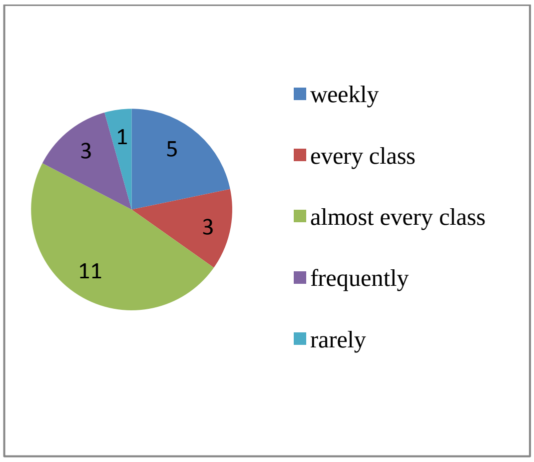
The mean scores concerning this question show that teacher evaluation is the most useful, which is also the most frequently applied type of evaluation. The relatively high mean of the usefulness of peer evaluation indicates that this kind of practice should get a more prominent role in the evaluation of student translations. Involving experienced translators, “who have proved their translation skills and reliability over time have all the knowledge and skills necessary for correcting and evaluating the work of others” (Robin, 2016, p. 46), even if only occasionally, might be a helpful technique. This would give new dimensions to the students’ mastery motivation, as well.

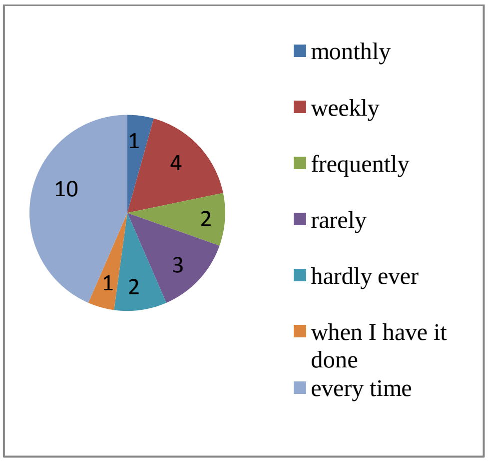
Table 21 *The usefulness of different types of evaluation in TS classes (N=23)*

Type of evaluation	**Number of students**					
	0	1	2	3	4	Mean
by the teacher	0	0	0	3	20	3.86
by peers	2	0	8	7	6	2.65
by someone else	16	0	4	3	0	0.73

Key: 0 = not useful at all; 4 = the most useful

The third question concerned the feedback students got on their progress (Figures 18-19). As the figures show, the participants claimed to get regular feedback on their in-class tasks (Figure 18); only one student claimed they got feedback rarely. The situation is a bit different with the feedback on home assignments (Figure 19), which is not that frequent. Although nearly half of the respondents (10) claimed they got feedback every time, the responses of the other students moved on a wide scale between hardly ever and frequently. They either do not get home assignment in every class or students get feedback at different frequency or they do not perceive what is meant by feedback the same way.





Figures 18-19
Frequency of feedback on work in class (N=23) and home assignments (N=22)

When answering the question how the feedback they got helped their development, the 23 participants gave a wide range of responses, a total of 14, most of them by multiple students:

- points out my weaknesses and mistakes so I can learn from them (6)
- helps me understand my mistakes, work on them avoid them in the future (6)
- offers solutions and answers (4)
- shows me what to improve (3)
- shows me ways to understand and correct my mistakes (2)
- helps a lot (in general) (2)
- I can improve my style (2)
- I learn how to do my translations better (2)
- other: boosts my experience (1), strengthens my self-consciousness (1) provides guiding points and comparison (1), makes me experienced to realize what I did wrong (1), helps my development (1) and answers my questions (1).

As we can see, feedback, especially when it is frequent and meaningful, can help learners in multiple ways and at various levels and they tend to be aware of the role feedback can play. Besides offering them practical guidance to become better at what they do, motivating feedback also helps them overcome difficulties they face as individuals, which most often cannot be expressed in the number and the types of their mistakes.

Motivation, as we overviewed in the literature, is the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning; as the driving force to sustain the learning process, it can make up for low language learning aptitude and learning conditions (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). The last few questions aimed to find out how all this worked in TS classes: what students found the most motivating and the most demotivating in their studies.

As Figure 20 shows, they listed several (nine) factors which they defined as motivating, but nothing boosted their motivation as much as meaningful, helpful, and frequent feedback. The other motivating factors were connected to course content (interesting, meaningful texts, in-class activities, assignments), to the learning environment, including the teacher and the other students (peers). The participants also liked to be appreciated, which shows the importance of the objective, righteous assessment of their work, and they, although very subtly, referred to the motivating force of autonomy (being able to make good choices, finding good solutions for translation problems and work on their mistakes). All this shows that different students are motivated in different ways. Some of them are driven by extrinsic motives, including other persons' attitudes (a motivated teacher) or value judgement (good feedback, good grades), some are by intrinsic ones (interest in the texts they translate, finding interesting solutions. Mastery motivation appears in the form of home assignments and also seeing and appreciating the progress they make.

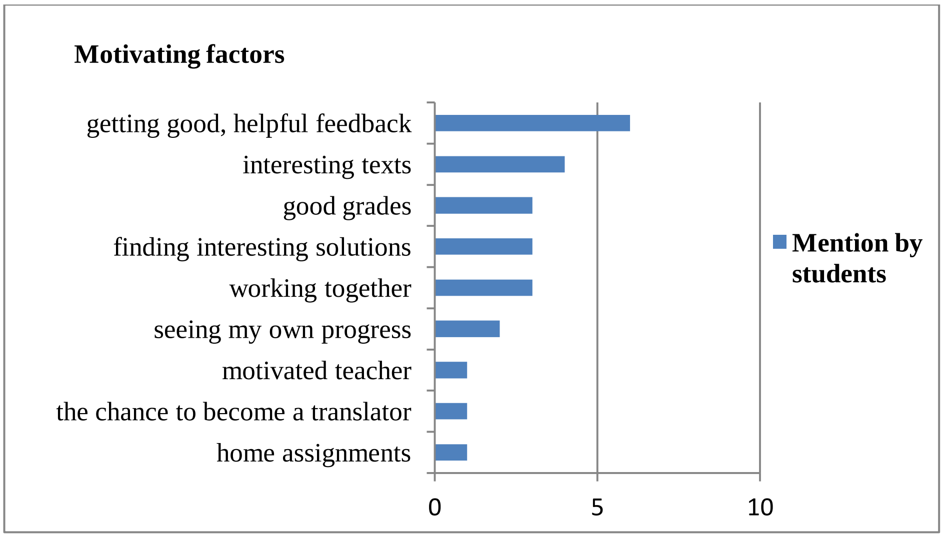


Figure 20
Motivating factors in TS classes (N=23)

The students' actual answers to the question what they found the most motivating in their classes, grouped according to types of motivation included:

- Intrinsic:
    - "Interesting materials."
    - "Translating texts that I am interested in."
    - "Texts."
    - "Interesting texts with unique problems."
- Extrinsic:
    - "Regular feedback." "Frequent feedback." "Getting feedback." "Meaningful feedback." "Helpful feedback."
    - "Sharing thoughts with each other."
    - "When the teacher is motivated."
    - "To be appreciated."
    - "A grade 5." "Good grades."

- Mastery:
    - "The peculiar solutions I can come up with."
    - "To see my own progress."
    - "The home assignments."
    - "When my translation is close to prefect."
- Instrumental:
    - "That I am practising for something I want to do in the future for a living."

The demotivating factors (Figure 21) were as many as the motivating ones: eight were listed, with boring and irrelevant texts topping the list (intrinsic motives), followed by things which earlier were defined as student responsibilities, including the quality of their translation assignments and the mistakes they made (mastery motives). Other demotivating factors were connected to the teacher (boring or demotivated person who could humiliate and judge students who gave wrong answers and translations without helpful explanation; extrinsic motives), to fellow (irritating, annoying) students and the lack of feedback (extrinsic motives). There were only three participants who found the classes motivating in every respect. One respondent disliked classes starting early in the morning, but did not specify what early meant.

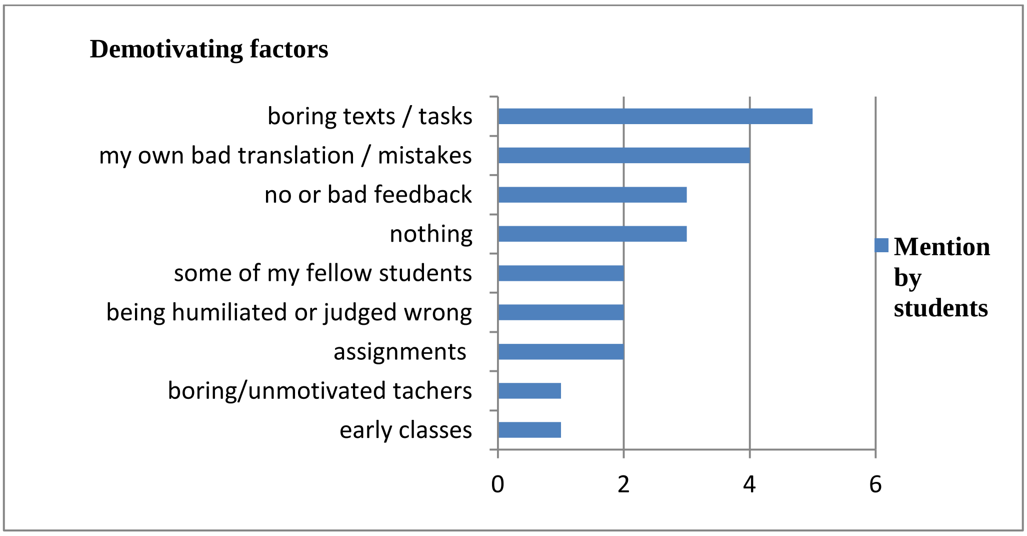


Figure 21
Demotivating factors in TS classes (N=23)

The students' actual answers to the questions what they found demotivating in their classes, grouped according to types of motivation included:

- Intrinsic:
    - “Translating texts I am not so much interested in / that are not relevant.”
    - “Boring and long texts.”
    - “When I have no interest in the topic.”
    - “When the teacher is boring.”
- Extrinsic:
    - “When there is no feedback at all.”
    - “When te feedback is not useful at all.”
    - “Tests.”
    - “Humiliation because of my mistakes.”
    - “When the tutor does not warn you that you do something completely wrong.”
    - “If you are told to be wrong, but there is no explanation.”
    - “Too many classmates.”
    - “Working with fellow students who have not passed the proficiency exam yet.”
    - “8 a.m. is too early for a class. It is very demotivating!
- Mastery
    - “When I cannot grasp what I should change to be better.”
    - “The stupid mistakes I make.”
    - “When I completely mistranslate something.”

In the next question, the students were asked if they had ever lost interest in translating. It was answered by seventeen students: twelve said, ‘Yes’ and five responded, ‘No”. The surfacing reasons for ‘Yes” could be grouped into four categories:

- quality of tasks and assignments (too long, too difficult, too frequent, boring, irrelevant) – five students;
- inappropriate feedback (infrequent, no opportunity to discuss problems and mistakes) – three students;
- translator as a profession (low prestige of the activity, low payment, difficult aspects of the job – translating 20 pages a day) – four students;
- students’ own performance and attitudes towards the activity (“I did not think it was worth it”) – five studens.

All these points reinforce how important it is to emphasize and build on those things which respondents defined as ‘motivating’, to include them in the curriculum and the syllabi and the assessment system, otherwise students can become demotivated, as it was documented in about half of participants’ answers, at least once. Although they could overcome the occasional loss of their interest, when demotivation turns into a tendency, it may result in a-motivation and complete refusal in the end (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Twenty-one of the 23 respondents would welcome changes in their TS classes, concerning:

- the organization and management of classes, including their structure (should start later, should be more time for evaluation) – five students;
- the number of practical classes (there should be more) – six students;
- the quality of texts (more genre-specific, more technical, more interesting, definitely shorter) – six students;
- the number of tests and assignments (there should be less home assignments and more in-class assignments) – one student;
- the feedback (should be more frequent, more detailed) – two students;
- the assessment (getting grades based on in-class work *and* home assignments) – one student;
- the methodology of instruction (teachers should give handouts, offer more visuals) – two students;
- the terms of application and acceptance to program (“Only those people should be accepted who want to learn translation”) – one student;
- the learning environment (more motivating, more challenging, more interesting) – one student;
- translation as a profession (more information about the job itself and about career opportunities) – two students.

3.7.6 Summary

The 5-part questionnaire included 26 questions on motivation and some interrelated aspects, including language background, translation skills, evaluation, feedback, materials, procedures, etc., each aimed at four different aspects of learning English and translation as a specialization program. The first part examined the respondents' language competence. The answers showed that the participants, although they belonged to the same study groups, claimed to be at different levels (between B2 and C2) concerning their English proficiency. The reason for it seems to be twofold: although they were offered the CEFR scale to define their English language proficiency level, based on their language use, some of them were overconfident and put themselves well above their actual level. The other reason can be attributed to the fact that there was a significant difference between the numbers of years the individual respondents devoted to studying English before entering university (ranging from 3 to 13). It must be noted that quite a few of them learnt English as a second foreign language at secondary school; which partly could explain why the picture the questionnaire revealed is diverse.

The second part of the questionnaire included six questions on the motives of choosing translation as a specialization, what experience respondents had in the field and how difficult they found translation. The answers clearly show that most of them chose this program because they wanted to become professional translators, although they had hardly any knowledge of the profession and only very little experience concerning the activity.

The questions of the third part aimed to elicit participants' evaluation of the course and program content. The students could express their opinion on how their expectations were met, what they found motivating and demotivating, useful or not very helpful in their classes. The answers revealed mixed views and experiences; on average, 50% of the participants were satisfied in every respect with what they learnt. Their list of what they missed or found demotivating can be useful information for improving the curriculum of the translation program, the content of the syllabi, and the way courses are delivered and the program is implemented.

The fourth part of the questionnaire included questions on learner autonomy, to which the next part of the dissertation is devoted. The fifth and last part addressed feedback and assessment in translation studies classes, with a special focus on their effect on student performance. As expected, both were crucial concerning motivation: if they were positive or critical, but helpful, they were found to be overwhelmingly motivating, whereas negative feedback impacted learning in unfavorable ways and its demotivating effect also was documented.

The questionnaire was a good choice to elicit data on motivation: the questions fulfilled their goals, although the simplicity and the superficiality of the answers seemed to be annoying in some cases. There were examples for the so called social desirability bias: some respondents had a fairly good guess about what the desirable answer is and they will give that, even if it is not true (Dörnyei, 2010a). Overall, the findings, despite the low number of respondents (nearly everyone in the programme) and the identified caveats, can contribute to make translation training better.

3.8 Conclusions

As the findings show, motivation is a complex, many-faceted phenomenon, which, at the same time, plays a crucial role in second language acquisition, including second language for special purposes, in this case – translation. To examine it, I applied three, closely related ways that proved to be beneficial. The data obtained from the compositions was supported by the interview data, which, at the same time, offered a great deal of new information concerning the background and the language competence of the respondents, and other things that underlie their choice to join the translator program. The findings from the qualitative inquiries and the emerging questions provided a solid basis for creating a questionnaire on student motivation and autonomy, which, as it involved a bigger sample of respondents, helped identify factors that play key roles in translator training.

Although the research involved only a relatively small group of participants, it can be regarded as representative for the BA translation program at the University of Pécs, even if it is easy to identify its shortcomings. However, the investigation pointed out several components which should be taken into consideration when examining motivation to study translation. It highlighted those ones, which motivate students to achieve better results in what they do, and also those aspects and patterns which have to be changed in the curriculum, in the courses and in the ways they are taught. The students' answers underlined the importance of the level of L1 and L2 proficiency, the course content, the way students' work is assessed and what feedback they are given. It also turned out that there are more important motivating forces than one's family background.

The study underlined that translation studies is a neglected field when we examine motivation. Although most of the parameters and components discussed in the works on L2 motivation can be applied to translation studies, there are quite a few elements which are completely overlooked in research, and which should be part of translator training programs, which are, at least at BA level, mostly chosen for intrinsic motives. The enrolling students are interested in a discipline they are not always ready for linguistically and hardly know anything about. Unfortunately, the study plan of BA level translation specialization (3.2, Table 9) does not fill in the gaps with elements, which could enhance mastery and instrumental motivation. There is not any among the relatively many practical courses which would teach students the competences described in the EMT model (EMT, 2009) of translator competences (except linguistic and technological competences), offered for adaptation for translator training institutions in Europe (Eszenyi, 2016; I. Horváth, 2016).

Part II
Chapter 4
Autonomy in language teaching and learning

"All genuinely successful learning is in the end autonomous."
(Little, 1994, p. 4)

4.1 Introduction

Interest in the role of autonomy in language teaching and learning has increased considerably since the turn of the 20th century. In terms of quantity, the literature published since 2000 exceeds the literature published in the 25 – 30 years prior to the date (Benson, 2006; 2008; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Esch, 2009; Everhard, 2016; Gao & Lamb, 2011; Holec, 2008; Ramos, 2006). The idea of autonomy in language learning is often framed as a learner-centered focus. As a result, most theorists of autonomy in learning are concerned with learners' active participation in the day-to-day process of their learning, focusing on their ability and willingness to seek out and to make choices independently. This participation is seen as being both essential to the development of personal autonomy and beneficial to the learning process itself (Benson, 2007; 2008; Littlewood, 1996).

The theory and practice of autonomy in language learning was first developed systematically in the 1970s in the context of Council of Europe's Modern Language Project, and since the early 1980s, autonomy has become an increasingly important concept in foreign language education (Benson, 2007). Since its introduction into the field of language education, it has been moving across time and space (Lamb & Murray, 2018, p. 1).

"To be autonomous meand acting in accord with one's reflective considerations… autonomus actions are those that can be self-endorsed and for which one takes responsibility" (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 51). The first section on autonomy (4.2) aims to give an overview on learner automy, which in simple words means the sence of volition and choice in one's foreign language studies.

4.2 Learner autonomy

"It depends on the students themselves."

(M. Lamb, 2004, p. 1)

4.2.1 Definitions of learner autonomy

The history of autonomy research in language education started with Holec's report in 1981, where he gave a robust definition of learner autonomy. Most of the later definitions have been based on or referred to what he stated then (See Table 22).

Table 22
Definitions of learner autonomy

Theorist	Year	Definition	Keywords
Holec	(1981, p. 3)	"the ability to take charge of one's own language learning"	*ability*; taking charge of
Dickinson	(1987, p. 11)	"the complete responsibility for one's learning, carried out without the involvement of a teacher or pedagogic materials; the situation in which the learners are totally responsible for all the decisions concerned"	responsibility
Allwright	(1990, p. 12)	"… a constantly changing but at any time optimal state of equilibrium between maximal self-development and human interdependence"	self -development
Candy	(1991, p. 6)	"self directed learning"	self-directed
Little	(1991, p. 4)	"a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action"; in common usage: "a significant measure of independence from the control of others"	*capacity*; decision making; independent action
Dickinson	(1992, p. 330)	"An attitude towards learning in which the learner is prepared to take, or does take, responsibility for his own learning"	attitude; taking responsibility

Littlewood	(1996, p. 428)	"an independent capacity to make and carry out choices which govern our actions; this capacity depends on two main components: ability and willingness"	*capacity*; making choices; carrying out choices; *ability*; willingness
Breen and Mann	(1997, p. 134)	"autonomy is not an ability that has to be learnt, but a way of being that has to be discovered or rediscovered"	(not an) *ability*; a way of being
Macaro	(1997)	"an ability which is learnt through learning how to make decisions about the self as well as being allowed to make those decisions"	*ability*; make decisions
Harrison	(2000, p. 312)	"self-managed learning" or "learner managed learning"	self-managed, learner-managed
Little	(2000, p. 69)	"the development and exercise of a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action; assuming responsibility for determining the purpose, content, rhythm and method of learning, monitoring its progress and evaluating its outcomes"	*capacity* for detachment; decision making; independent action; responsibility for determining sg
Benson	(2007, p. 733)	"… learners' active participation in the day-to-day process of their learning"	active *participation* in
Benson	(2009, p. 18)	"a composite of abilities, attitudes and dispositions"	*ability*
Esch	(2009, p. 33)	"the capacity to exercise critical thinking about learning"	*capacity*; critical thinking
Benson	(2011, p. 16)	"language learner autonomy is …a specific form of personal autonomy within the field"	personal autonomy
Tassinari	(2012, p. 28)	"the metacapacity of the learner to take control of their learning process to different extents and ways according to the learning situation."	(meta)*capacity*; take control
Everhard	(2016, p. 558)	"a way of being and a sense of self achieved through acquiring the ability to… make decisions about one's own learning"	*ability* to make decisions

The definitions in Table 22 show a remarkable degree of consensus with Holec's (1981) idea that learner autonomy involves learners taking control over their own learning. In recent works this definition is often linked to the philosophical idea of personal autonomy (Benson, 2011; Breen & Mann, 1997), referring to people struggling for greater control over their life.

If we look at the keywords in Table 22, we can see that the different definitions really revolve around the same ideas, even if labeled differently. Most researchers call it either ability or capacity to make choices and decisions, to take responsibility for determining something, e.g., one's objectives, progress, method and techniques of learning, the content of learning, the pace and rhythm of learning and the evaluation of the learning process (Everhard, 2016; Macaro, 1997). Pemberton, Li, Or & Pierson (1996) list various terms which are mostly used synonymously with autonomy in literature (self-instruction, distance learning, individualized instruction, flexible learning, self-access learning, self-direction). The definition has been constantly refined; authors who have returned to it from time to time added some extra feature to it (Benson, 2007; 2009, 2011; Little, 1991; 2000).

Littlewood (1996), when examining the word *capacity,* breaks it down into two main components of ability and willingness: an ability to make independent choices and the willingness to exercise these choices. We can speak about autonomy only in the case when both components are present. *Ability* and *willingness* can themselves be divided into two components: in the case of ability, to possess *knowledge* which helps you make choices and *skills* to carry out the choices. Willingness depends on having both the *motivation* and the *confidence* to take responsibility for the choices to be made. Littlewood calls it the "anatomy" of autonomy (Littlewood, 1996, p. 427), and as it is quite evident, the listed components echo the keywords of definitions by the different scholars (see Table 14).

In formal educational contexts, learner autonomy means reflective participation in planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating learning in the whole learning process. However, its scope is always restricted by what learners can do in the language they study, which means that it develops together with the learners' knowledge as a target language user. Concerning this development, Little (2009) distinguishes three guiding principles: (1) learner involvement, (2) learner reflection, and (3) appropriate target language use. Benson (2011) also concentrates on the underlying principles of autonomous language learning and the different approaches to fostering learner autonomy, emphasizing that language learners naturally tend to take control of their learning. Learners, who lack autonomy are capable of developing it, and autonomous language learning is more effective than non-autonomous language learning.

As Littlewood (1996) analyzed the meaning of autonomy, he distinguished different levels, putting low-level choices that control specific operations at the bottom of hierarchy, and high-level choices, which are responsible for controlling the overall activity at the top. According to this model, autonomous language learning could be divided into phases, depending on what learners are able and willing to do. Their progression can be manipulated so that learners gradually increase the scope of their independent choices and become totally autonomous in the end.

Some researchers emphasize that language learning is not limited to the formal conditions we usually call classroom environment; it can take place at any time and in any place, implying that willingness to use their language skills outside the classroom can be crucial in terms of the learners' second language development (Hyland, 2004). Out-of-class learning, according to Benson (2001), is mostly self-instruction, where learners themselves plan to improve their target language knowledge and search out the resources they need, developing a learning process which is not only autonomous, but, at the same time, highly purposeful and enjoyable. It can be assumed that a heightened level of self-determination will increase motivation to learn both in and out of classroom, often resulting in learning activities that happen beyond any formal course requirements or beyond directions given by an instructor (M. Lamb, 2004). A "self-managing learner" is an autonomous learner, the "one who is self-aware, capable of exercising choice in relation to needs, of taking an active self-directing role in furthering his or her own learning and development" (Harrison, 2000, p. 315). The ultimate manifestation of self-directed learning requires no teacher at all, it describes a situation in which the learner is responsible for everything, "in full autonomy there is no need of a teacher or an institution" (L. Dickinson, 1987). This means that the "teacher" has to refocus his or her teaching, direct it at supporting the development of learner autonomy (T. Lamb, 2008).

4.2.2 Models of learner autonomy

Several attempts have been made to define learner autonomy, so we can only agree with Nunan (1997): "autonomy is not an absolute concept" (p. 193). It has different levels, as "most learners do not come into the learning situation with the knowledge and skills to determine content and learning processes which will enable them to reach their objectives in learning another language" (p. 201).

Nunan describes learner training and autonomy in a nine-step program, as a continuum "from total dependence on the teacher to autonomy" (Nunan, 2003, p. 196), which can be done by including a series of steps into the educational process. These steps are:

(1) Make instruction goals clear to learners;
(2) Allow learners create their own goals;
(3) Encourage learners to use their L2 outside the classroom;
(4) Raise awareness of learning processes;
(5) Have learners identify their own preferred styles and strategies;
(6) Encourage learner choice;
(7) Allow learners generate their own tasks;
(8) Encourage learners to become teachers;
(9) Encourage learners to become researchers.

Some of the steps overlap; this is particularly true for steps 4 – 9, which focus on learning processes, and can be introduced along steps 1 – 3 which are more content oriented.

Concerning autonomous learner behavior, Nunan reduced the nine steps to five degrees or levels: (1) awareness, (2) involvement, (3) intervention, (4) creation and (5) transcendence (See Table 23).

Table 23
Nunan's degrees of autonomous learner behavior (Nunan, 1997, p. 200)

Degree / level	**Learner action**	**Content**	**Process**
1	Awareness	Learners are made aware of the pedagogical goals and content of the material they are using.	Learners identify strategy implications of pedagogical tasks and identify their own preferred learning styles / strategies.
2	Involvement	Learners are involved in selecting their own goals from a range of alternatives.	Learners make choices among a range of options.
3	Intervention	Learners are involved in modifying and adapting the goals and content of the learning programme.	Learners modify / adapt tasks.
4	Creation	Learners create their own goals and objectives.	Learners create their own goals.
5	Transcendence	Learners go beyond the classroom.	Learners become teachers and researchers.

As Table 23 shows, there is a long path to cover between “awareness” and “transcendence”, and there are phases, especially at the beginning, where learners need the guidance of their teachers, and an encouraging, autonomy supporting classroom environment. The greater degree is achieved, the more autonomous the students become.

Littlewood (1999) proposed a distinction between two levels of autonomy, which he referred to as “self-regulation” (p. 75). The first level, *proactive autonomy* regulates the direction of activity and the activity, as well. Here, the keywords are action words, implying that learners are “able to take care of their own learning, determine their objectives, select methods and techniques and evaluate what they have acquired” (Holec, 1981, p.3). The second level, *reactive* autonomy regulates the activity once the direction has been set. It may be a preliminary phase before the first goal or any goal in its own right: a kind of autonomy which, once a direction has been stated, helps learners to organize their resources in order to reach their goal. This form of autonomy works similarly to or interacts with motivation: it stimulates learners to learn, practice, collect information, or prepare for papers and tests on their own initiative, without being pushed. This model is mirrored in Flannery’s (1994) distinction between cooperative learning strategies (group-oriented form of reactive autonomy) and collaborative working strategies (group-oriented form of proactive autonomy) (p. 76).

Tassinari’s dynamic model of autonomy (Tassinari, 2012 pp. 24-28); (Figure 22), is a tool designed to support self-assessment and evaluation of learning competences, entailing various dimensions and components, allowing learners to focus on their own needs and goals:

(1) cognitive and metacognitive component: cognitive and metacognitive knowledge, awareness, learners’ beliefs);

(2) action-oriented component: skills, learning behaviors, decisions);

(3) affective and motivational component: feelings, emotions, willingness, motivation;

(4) social component: learning and negotiating with partners, advisors, tutors.

The model itself was developed on the basis of Holec (1981), Dickinson (1987), Little (1991), Littlewood (1996; 1999) and Benson’s (2001) definitions of learner autonomy, described in Table 22, referring to learner autonomy as a complex construct.

The components of the dynamic model are spheres of competences, skills and actions expressed by verbs, which focus on the action- and process oriented character: structuring knowledge, dealing with learners’ feelings, self-motivation myself, planning, choosing materials and methods, completing tasks, monitoring, evaluating, co-operating and managing their own learning.

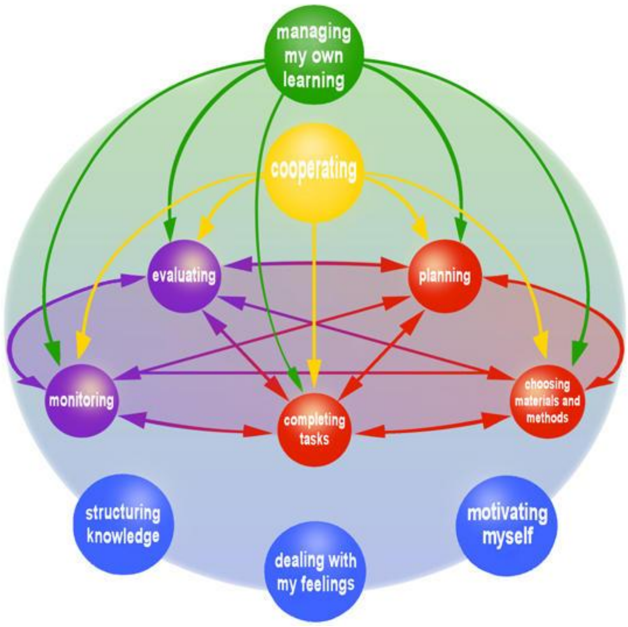


Figure 22
Tassinari's dynamic model of learner autonomy (Tassinari, 2012, p. 29)

Tassinari's model is both structurally and functionally dynamic: structurally, because all components are related to each other, and functionally, because learners can decide to enter the model from any component and move freely from one component to another. Each component of the model entails a set of descriptors, formulated as "can-do" statements, which serve for the orientation of learners' self-evaluation process, which is an important element of autonomous behavior.

The model has been tested and validated with experts in different workshops, including Université Nancy 2, France and the Freie Universität Berlin, Germany, and is currently used at the Centre for Independent Language Learning at the Freie Universität Berlin for language advising (Tassinari, 2012, p. 24).

4.2.3 Learner-centered syllabus

While curricula in language teaching are concerned with making general statements about language learning, learning purpose and experience, and contain banks of learning items and suggestions about how these might be used in class, syllabi are more localized. They deal with what actually happens at classroom level, as teachers and learners apply a given curriculum to their own situation, focusing on selection and grading of content (Candlin, 1984; Nunan, 1988).

Learner- centeredness and learner autonomy can be represented in the curriculum and in the syllabus, as well. The learner-centered curriculum “is a collaborative effort between teachers and learners, since learners are closely involved in the decision-making process regarding the content of the curriculum and how it is taught” (Nunan, 1988, p. 2). This kind of involvement increases the learners’ interest and motivation. It is also an effective way of developing the learners’ learning skills by fostering a reflective attitude toward the learning process (Candlin, 1984).

Flutter researched the ‘student perspective’ for more than two decades, and spoke about students as “stakeholders whose opinions and ideas are sought and often acted upon” (Flutter, 2006, p. 187). She also emphasized the link between student participation and effective learning.

Fielding offered a four-level typology of learner involvement in designing classroom processes: (1) students as data source; (2) students as active respondents; (3) students as co-researchers; and (4) students as researchers. If student voice is taken into consideration it fosters not only their awareness and interest in what they learn, but their autonomous behavior, as well.

“Capturing student voice” (Ahmadi & Hasani, 2018, p. 1) can be projected into syllabus development in advantageous ways, where students appear as decision makers, bringing about critical changes to the syllabus. In the realm of student voice initiatives, the question of how to share power with students is the most challenging one. However, negotiating with students and finding the right balance may result in more interesting classes, greater student involvement and they help students take responsibility and control over their own learning. Little (1995, p. 175) suggested that true negotiation in pedagogical dialogues demands a symmetrical autonomy, that is “the development of autonomy in learners presupposes the development of autonomy in teachers”.

4.2.4 Relationship between motivation and learner autonomy

Motivation has traditionally been described as an individual difference variable which plays a crucial role in the success of learning. However, in recent research it has been acknowledged that motivation is a basic characteristic in autonomous learning (Benson, 2007; Gao & Lamb, 2011), and several researchers argue that motivation, autonomy and identity are interrelated (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; M. Lamb, 2011; Murray, 2011; Murray, Gao, & Lamb, 2011; Reinders & Lázaro, 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2017; Sade, 2011).

In language classrooms promoting autonomous learning processes, students are encouraged to develop and express their identities through the language they are learning. This identity perspective on motivation suggests close connections between motivation and autonomy, particularly what Little (2007) refers to as language learner autonomy. By enabling students to speak as themselves in the target language, to negotiate, to struggle, to participate, to share ideas and to evaluate them, we create an environment which promotes autonomy (Ushioda, 2011a). Ehrman (1996) and Sade (2011) also argue that self-efficacy leads to motivation, and, ultimately, to autonomous learning. Those, who investigate the complexity of SLA systems based on Larsen-Freeman's theory (1997) also emphasize that motivation, identity and autonomy are interconnected.

A three-year study by Murray (2011) investigated the experiences of students enrolled in a self-directed language course. According to the findings, this course provided students with autonomy, as it needed "willingness, freedom, energy, and time to move around, try new identities and explore new relations" (p. 84). It also supported students' exploration of learning opportunities by offering instruction in strategies and activities, and by encouraging them to experiment. From the viewpoint of motivation, the most important thing was that the self-directed learning processes facilitated the learners' L2 selves, which is discussed as a new motivational construct in recent research (see Adolphs et al., 2018; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009).

Based on these trends and findings in the literature we can conclude that classroom practices that promote language learner autonomy are likely to contribute to learners' identities and motivation by enabling them to speak as themselves in the target language. Those learners, who employ their capacity for autonomy by making conscious decisions and choices regarding their learning, enhance their motivation, as well. At the same time, we must not forget that "it is largely the teachers' responsibility to motivate students" (Csizér & Kormos, 2009). It is their task to try to generate positive student attitudes toward L2 learning. Dörnyei (2001) defined five groups of facets which help teachers to achieve this goal:

(1) Enhancing the learners' language-related values and attitudes;
(2) Increasing the learners' expectancy of success;
(3) Increasing the learners' goal-orientedness;
(4) Making the teaching materials relevant for learners;
(5) Creating realistic learner beliefs.

All these will result in what researchers call a student-centered classroom environment, which can be motivating, and may direct students to become autonomous in their in-class and out-of-class language activities, as well.

So far only learner autonomy was discussed; in the next section our focus is on teachers and teacher autonomy.

4.3 Teacher autonomy

"Teachers reflect on their role and find ways to change it."
(Thavenius, 1999, p. 160)

4.3.1 Definitions of teacher autonomy

The concept of teacher autonomy is of fairly recent interest but it has been around for as long as learner autonomy has been studied (Ramos, 2006; Smith & Erdoğan, 2008). Although the early developments in the field began in self-access learning, this quickly shifted to research and practice in classroom contexts, introducing a new focus on the teacher and the construct of teacher autonomy (Hoyle & John, 1995; T. Lamb, 2017).

It is important to state that learner autonomy, especially when the learning process takes place in the classroom, is bound to the teachers' own learning, their teaching experiences and also their beliefs about autonomy. The development of learner autonomy depends on the development of teacher autonomy, according to Little (2000). To be able to arrive at this finding, he examined the learning process as a "dialogue" between the learner and the teacher in formal (classroom) contexts, emphasizing the importance of the shift in the role of the teacher (Little, 1995). In such contexts, teachers and learners become co-producers of language lessons, where the teacher's task is to bring learners to the point where they start to exercise equal responsibility for the choices to be made. Learner autonomy and teacher autonomy become interdependent: the promotion of learner autonomy depends on the promotion of teacher autonomy. Finch (2001) also claimed that teachers can develop learner autonomy only in the case they themselves are autonomous and act as facilitators of learner autonomy.

Being the "product" of the 1990s, the idea of teacher autonomy has had a relatively short history (T. Lamb, 2008). However, it remained a problematic, even opaque concept for a long time, mainly because it is difficult to define independently of learner autonomy and the classroom context, and also because it is hard to examine from an empirical perspective (Benson, 2006; Usma Wilches, 2007).

Table 24
Definitions of teacher autonomy

Theorist	**Year, p.**	**Definition**	**Keywords**
Hoyle and John	(1995, p. 92)	"a teacher's freedom to construct a personal pedagogy which entails balance between personality, training, experience and the requirements of the specific educational context"	freedom, personal
Little	(1995, p. 179)	"having a strong sense of personality, exercising via continuous reflection and the cognitive control of the teaching process, exploring the freedom that this confers"	personality, reflection, control, freedom
Thavenius	(1999, p. 160)	"the teacher's ability and willingness to help learners to take responsibility for their own learning; an autonomous teacher is the one who reflects on the teacher's role and who can change it, who is independent enough to let his or her learners become independent"	ability, willingness, taking responsibility, reflect on, independent
Lamb, T.	(2000, p. 17)	"critical reflection, proposing a progressive professional development"	critical, reflection
Little	(2000, p. 45)	the ability "to exploit their professional skills autonomously, applying to their teaching reflective and self managing processes"	ability, reflective, self managing
McGrath	(2000, p. 100)	"self directed professional development" and "freedom from control by others"	self-directed, freedom
Lawson	(2004, p. 3)	willingness "to pass control over the learning process to those engaged in"	control over
Raya, Lamb and Vieira	(2007, p. 1)	"the competence to develop as a self-determined, socially responsible and critically aware participant in (and beyond) educational environments"	competence, self-determined, responsible, critically aware

Smith and Erdoğan	(2008, p. 97)	“the ability to develop appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes for oneself as a teacher, in cooperation with others”	ability to develop, cooperation
Benson	(2011, p. 17)	“the ability to help learners make decisions about their learning without making those decisions for them”	ability to help make decisions

As research findings show, teacher autonomy has several dimensions (Table 24) and is influenced by ideas relating to learner autonomy. It can be described as: (1) a capacity of self-directed professional action or development; (2) freedom from control by others with a general aim to promote learner autonomy (Smith & Erdoğan, 2008). The first one refers to the extent to which teachers have the capacity to improve their own teaching through their own efforts, whereas the second one concerns the freedom to be able to teach in the way one wants to teach as the manifestation of autonomy from another angle. In another conceptualization, the autonomous teacher is “willing to pass control over the learning process to those engaged in, so that learning becomes a collaborative effort, rather than the imposition of knowledge from above” (Lawson, 2004, p. 3). Other authors, when debating teacher autonomy, speak about *work autonomy* (maintaining control over activities and theoretical knowledge); *professional autonomy* (grounded in ideals we reject or claim our own); *engaged autonomy* (autonomy is not equal with isolation); *responsible autonomy* (facilitating workplace independence in accordance with state requirements); *regulated autonomy* (teachers' autonomy exists in a vacuum of limited scope); *occupational autonomy* (one's own determination with the destination set in stone) (Parker, 2015, pp. 92-93); all referring to the degree of autonomy exercised by or granted to the teacher.

Speaking about multiple voices, Sinclair (2008, p. 245), distinguished the aspects of teacher autonomy from a slightly different angle, describing them as (1) control of teaching and teaching context, when the teacher appears as a manager, and (2) control of own professional development with the teacher as a reflective practitioner. La Ganza (2008, p. 71) coined an interrelational construct with for dimensions: (1) autonomy in relations to the teacher's own internal dialectics with teachers, mentors, or significant others; (2) autonomy in relation to learners; (3) autonomy in relation to those who could make decisions influencing the teacher's freedom in the institution where he or she is teaching; (4) autonomy in relation to those who could make decisions influencing the teacher's freedom in the institutions and the society at large. This model suggests that the teacher's perceptions of autonomy are affected by interrelational dynamics.

The broadening interest in teacher autonomy involved new areas of practice, especially in pre-service teacher education and in in-service teacher development (Benson, 2011). What really matters in this respect is the teacher's ability to help learners make decisions about their learning without making those decisions for them. There is a clear link between the two types of autonomy (La Ganza, 2008; T. Lamb, 2008; Reinders & Lewis, 2008), which prompted Raya, Lamb & Vieira (2007) to come up with a common definition for the two concepts (see Table 16), emphasizing the self-determined, socially responsible and critically aware nature of both participants: learners and teachers.

Teacher autonomy is important for more than one reason. It plays a crucial role in the development of teacher professionalism, it has a motivating effect, and, according to research, it results in improving standards (Parker, 2015). MacBeath (2012, p. 91) wrote about creating "opportunities for children to learn for themselves, in contexts other than school" and "freeing teachers to teach in new ways and to learn together with their students" in and beyond their own classrooms. They must be given professional autonomy, the chance to "take responsibility for the knowledge they organize, produce, mediate and translate into practice" (MacBeath, 2012, p. 104). On the one hand, it is important for their development as professionals, on the other hand, it can mark the starting point for solving current school problems.

4.4. Autonomy in the classroom: the interdependence of learner and teacher autonomy

"The educational context, with the classroom at its center,
is viewed as a complex system."
(Van Lier, 1996, p. 148)

In addition to learner and teacher autonomy, a third expression appeared in research on them: classroom autonomy, which refers to a place where the "seeds of autonomous learning already exist" (Finch, 2001, p. 8) and presumes a degree of autonomy of both participants. Classroom autonomy has been the prime focus of research in language education for many years (T. Lamb & Murray, 2018), where the teacher's main role is to encourage their students' autonomous classroom behavior. Nunan (1997) also regarded the language classroom to be the place for promoting learners to move towards autonomy, which is a slow process, as learners in formal contexts do not easily accept responsibility for what they do. It is the teacher's task to provide them with appropriate tools and opportunities to practice (Little, 1995). The role of teachers, as Dickinson (1992, p. 2) pointed out, is enormous concerning the ways they can promote greater learner independence. The most important ones are: (1) encouraging learners to become more independent; (2) convincing learners that they are capable of greater independence in learning; (3) giving learners opportunities to practice their independence, (4) helping learners to develop learning techniques that equip them with more independence; (5) helping learners to become more aware of language as a system; (6) sharing with learners what teachers know so that they have a greater awareness of what to expect from the language learning process.

The keyword of classroom autonomy concerns the changing role of the participants, which is, in case of learners, manifests itself in acquiring the ability to take charge for one's own learning (Finch, 2001; Holec, 1981). The success of empowering learners to become actively involved in their learning largely depends on the teachers' ability to redefine roles, to become aware of their task which has two functions in this new context: (1) management function and (2) instructional function (Finch, 2001, p. 13). In this view, the teacher becomes a skilled manager of human beings (the learners); a helper, who is warm and loving; accepts and cares about the learner and about his problems, described by Dickinson as a person "who is willing to spend time helping, who is approving, supportive, encouraging and friendly, and regards the learner as equal. As a result, the learner feels free to approach him and can talk freely and easily with him in a warm and relaxed atmosphere" (Dickinson, 1987, p. 122).

4.5 Autonomy in translation

"It is time to offer translators tools, not rules."
(Robinson,1991, xvi)

The attempt to bring the real world into the classroom is the common feature of those new pedagogical initiatives in which teachers function as facilitators, guiding learners in the completion of real-world tasks (Baer & Koby, 2003, viii). Influenced by these trends in foreign language instruction, researchers called for a more process-oriented, learner-centered approach in translator training (Gile, 2009; Kiraly, 1995).

Throughout the 1990s, the greatest problem was what Kiraly (1995, p. 5) called a "pedagogical gap" in translation skill instruction reflected in a "lack of clear objectives, curricular materials and teaching methods", creating a classroom environment which did not promote autonomous learning. This situation could be the result of what was discussed in a previous chapter: the majority of translator teachers did not have any pedagogical training; they often came from a range of different sectors in the world of industry (Gile, 2009; Gouadec, 2007) and they had to pick up formal pedagogical training while doing the job (Baer & Koby, 2003, viii). It had not been recognized until the 2010s that formal training was the most effective way to teach skills and test abilities to train reliable professionals (Gile, 2009; 2010; Koskinen, 2010). The most intriguing question was how the existing programs could help students to learn to translate. The answer to this question was provided by the last 25 years, when there was a shift in language education, and the instructors in translation study programs were offered a variety of new teaching methodologies. This period was the birth of the learner-centered, autonomous learning environment, in which teachers, giving up the "old school" methodology started to act as facilitators (Baer & Koby, 2003).

As it is proven by the listed definitions by the experts of the field, we cannot speak about autonomy without the learners' active participation in the day-to-day process of their learning, in which the most important element is their ability and willingness to make choices independently (Benson, 2007; 2008b; 2011; Littlewood, 1996). What translation involves is making choices and decisions all the time. Klaudy (1997, p. 21), examining the character of the activity, emphasized the immense scale of choices translators face.

> The result of this activity – the corpus (text) created in the target language – is the result of numberless choices and decisions... When comparing the different translations of the same text, we always find identical and different solutions, suggesting that the subjective decisions of the translator have an objective base.

Baker (2006), emphasizing that translation is a highly complex activity, also discussed a myriad of different potential translation problems students of translation may be confronted with. In this sense, text production can be seen as a problem-solving activity. Baker (2011) and Kenny (2009) discussed translation problems arising from the lack of equivalence at different levels (word level, above word level). Baker (2011) also examined grammatical equivalence, textual equivalence, pragmatic equivalence, and issues beyond equivalence: ethics and morality, which all represent difficulties, or at least challenges a translator has to fight. Venuti, similarly to Klaudy (1997), wrote about personal preferences and the choices a translator has to make, which can result in words even the translator "hates" or ones "that sound wrong" to him (Venuti, 2013, p. 33).

Wilss (1998, p. 57) argued that decision-making processes, which are particularly complex in translation, are “inextricably connected with problem-solving activities. To solve a problem, any human being must possess declarative (knowing what) and procedural knowledge (knowing how)”. This kind of knowledge can be acquired best in an autonomous learning environment, where the role of the teacher is to encourage learners to learn how to apply strategies which help them arrive at the best solution in every individual case (Baer & Koby, 2003).

Ushioda (1996) and Heitzmann (2014) definitely argued that autonomous language learners are by definition motivated learners, and the motivating role of the autonomous teacher is also indisputable (Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner, 2001; Nikolov, 1999; 2000). We cannot neglect the importance of the classroom atmosphere, either, as it definitely helps the learners achieve their goals (Dörnyei, 1994; 2007; Nikolov, 2000). A successful learning environment is “student centered and promotes learner autonomy… supports collaborative learning and meets the effective needs of students” (Christison & Murray, 2014, p. 42). The teaching process itself is always based on a curriculum, which, similarly to the teaching environment, should focus on students’ needs. According to Christison and Murray (2014, p. 189), the negotiated curriculum is “the most all-embracing manifestation of a learner-centered curriculum”, letting the teacher negotiate with students on materials, content, methodology, even evaluation. However, it expects the teacher to have curriculum design skills and negotiating skills and it expects learners to be aware of their own learning needs and desires.

Promoting autonomy, however, is not simply a matter of teaching strategies; it can take place both inside and outside the classroom (Szőcs, 2016). In the case of translation, it is an activity most often confined to solitary rooms, often without the physical presence of the teacher. Once the task is given, and the translator faces the first problem, a sensible choice has to be made, followed by a decision, often with the help of a tool (dictionary, encyclopaedia, corpus, etc.). Without having the necessary skills and strategies (leaned in class or autonomously), and without institutional constraints the choices and decisions could not be made (Benson, 2007).

As has been discussed, learner autonomy depends on teacher autonomy (La Ganza, 2008; Raya et al., 2007); therefore, the role of the teacher is crucial in this respect. Dörnyei lists the “ingredients” of an autonomy-supporting teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001a; Dörnyei, 2001b; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998), including increased learner involvement in organizing the learning process, based on the curriculum.

4.6 Study 2: Learner autonomy in Translation Studies BA classes

Learner autonomy involves learners taking control over their own learning (Holec, 1981). Translation is definitely an autonomous activity, as translators, when working, have to make their own choices and solve their translation problems alone (Baker, 2011;Wilss, 1998). This is a kind of reality translation students also have to learn about and adjust to. The fourth part of the student questionnaire (see Appendix B) investigated how the BA specialization program supported the autonomous learning environment and how autonomous the students were.

4.6.1 Research questions

In order to examine the autonomous behavior of the target group I focused on four research questions:

1) How autonomous are BA students specializing in translation?
2) How does the BA specialization program support learner autonomy?
3) How do syllabi integrate and support autonomy and motivation in TS classes?
4) How does teacher and learner autonomy affect student motivation?

4.6.2 Participants

The participants of this part of the research project were the same 23 second- and third-year BA students who filled in the other four parts of the student questionnaire discussed in section YY. They all majored in English and studied in the translation specialization program. As their answers in the questionnaire revealed nearly 50% of respondents, eleven of 23 want to become professional translators. This means that they would work in a field where autonomy is both essential and motivational.

4.6.3 Data collection instruments and procedures

To find the answers to my research questions I included ten questions on autonomy in the student questionnaire: six were open-ended, where the participants had to give reasons for their answers. Three of the other four questions used sets of Likert-scale items and one was a ranking task. Similar to the other parts of the questionnaire, these were completed in-class. In order to highlight the relationships between what students said in their responses and what the courses involved, I examined what reference the course syllabi included on autonomy.

4.6.3 Results and discussion of questionnaire data

To find out how the participants preferred working in their translation studies classes, they were offered four choices: (1) on my own, (2) in pairs, (3) in groups, (4) directed by the teacher (Figure 23). In addition to making their choice, they were asked to explain their answers. Ten respondents said that they liked and needed their teachers' guidance, mainly because of the immediate help and feedback they could get this way:

- It is easier this way. (2)
- He/she can correct me and give feedback immediately. (2)
- They can give me professional opinion about my translation mistakes. (1)
- They help me identify particular problems. (1)
- They know more about translating than I do. (1)

By pointing out their mistakes and drawing their attention to particular problems, students felt that the teachers helped them to cope with their translation tasks better.

- They can guide me when I am lost. (1)
- We can learn the most from them. (1)
- They encourage us to share our thoughts. (1)

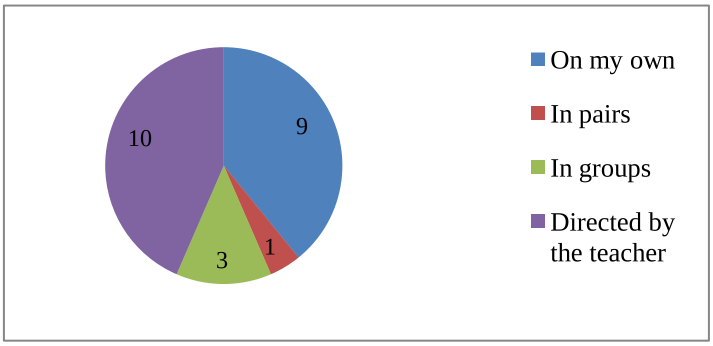


Figure 23

Students' preferences of work in translation classes (N=23)

The answers indicate that these eleven students are not ready to make their autonomous decisions concerning translation tasks.

Nine students liked doing translation tasks on their own for a range of different reasons:

- It is a one-man job / I cannot work with others. (2)
- I cannot concentrate/work with others around me. (2)
- I can make my own decisions. (1)
- I am not a team-player. (1)
- I can allocate as much time as I need. (1)
- I am like that. (1)
- It is easier to translate on my own. (1)

Althoug only one student claimed to be able to make his own decisions, eight other students preferred working alone, a finding, which suggests that they were able to do problem solving and make choices concerning methods and tools without teacher guidance, on their own.

Three participants liked working in a group because of getting peer-feedback on the spot, the opportunity to learn from each-other's errors and also because of the opportunity to share the task, thus making their work more effective. Only one participant preferred pair work, because "two people guaranteed two times more good ideas."

To reveal patterns in their problem-solving strategies, the participants were offered eight different options to choose from (Table 25). They were asked to give their answers on a 5-point Likert scale (0 = never; 4 = generally).

Table 25
Translation students' problem solving strategies (N=23)

	Problem solving strategy	**Distribution of scores**					**Means**
		0	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	
1.	I ask one of my teachers.	1	13	3	5	1	1.65
2.	I ask another student.	6	5	8	3	1	1.48
3.	I ask a professional translator.	19	2	0	2	0	0.35
4.	I try to find the best equivalent in a printed dictionary.	4	2	4	6	7	2.43
5.	I use online tools (Google, dictionaries)	0	0	0	5	18	3.78
6.	I consult a corpus.	10	4	3	4	2	1.30
7.	I simply omit the word/expression.	7	7	7	2	0	1.17
7.	I simply omit the word/expression.	7	7	7	2	0	1.17
8.	I use my own words to give back the essence	1	3	7	7	5	2.52

According to data in Table 25, the most frequently applied strategy to solve a translation problem is using online tools, including Google searches: 18 of the 23 respondents circled 4, which marked the highest frequency. It is in full accordance with what the students had said in the interviews discussed in section 3.1: “Google is our best friend.”

What respondents claimed about consulting a corpus contradicts what their fellow students had said in the interviews: they had heard about corpora, but they hardly ever used any. However, there is another possibility: those students who claimed they used corpora are the exceptions rather than the rule.

The most frequently used strategies – using online tools (3.78) and dictionaries (2.43) – assume a certain degree of autonomy. In contrast, asking a teacher (1.65) or a fellow student (1.48) indicate that students apply for help by using social strategies; these indicate a lack of autonomous behavior.

The next question aimed at the translation instruments students used when they did home assignments (Table 26). To mark the frequency of using a given tool they were asked to number options on a Likert scale from 0 (never) to 4 (generally). If we look at the mean scores we can see that online tools and Google were used most often. The fact that the participating 23 students gave only eleven examples for the tools they allegedly used in homework tasks suggests that their use is occasional at the best. (Eight students gave no examples at all; five gave only one, the linguee.)

Table 26
Translation tools students use when they do home assignments (N=23)

Translation tool	**Mean**	**Example(s)**
printed bilingual dictionaries	1.30	Kiss László’s dictionaries
printed monolingual dictionaries	1.43	Oxford English Dictionary
online tools	6.91	online dictionaries: linguee, babla, Sztaki, glosbe, dicitionary.com, magyar-angol szótár
Google	5.69	translator; using a searchword
a software	1.43	MemoQ
a corpus	1.43	

As a next step, students were asked about the usefulness of typical classroom activities and home assignments. They could give their answers by circling the options that fitted them most (0 – not useful at all; 4 – the most useful). Table 27 shows the distribution of their answers.

Overall, shorter assignments were found to be much more useful than longer ones. The latter as typical home assignments require not only more time, but also a higher degree of autonomy, including decision making concerning every aspects of the work.

Table 27
Usefulness of classroom and home assignments (N=23)

	Activity / assignment	**Distribution of answers**					**Mean**
		0	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	
1.	A longer home assignement	2	7	6	4	4	2.04
2.	Several shorter pieces throughout the course	0	0	2	4	17	3.65
3.	Analyzing translations with teachers	0	0	5	13	5	3.0
4.	Analyzing peer translations	1	3	3	11	5	2.69
5.	Comparing translation strategies	0	0	5	8	10	3.21

Collective classroom activities such as analyzing translations with teachers, comparing translation strategies or analyzing peer translations were found more useful by the participants than home assignments, which, compared to the typical classroom tasks, assume individual work and autonomous decision making about what tools to use or how much time to allocate to the given task. They also have to make choices about translation problems such as equivalence at word level and above word level, grammatical equivalence, textual equivalence, pragmatic equivalence, and issues that are beyond equivalence: ethics and morality, which all represent difficulties even for an experienced translator (Baker, 2011; Venuti, 2013).

Another important aspect concerns the fact that classroom work usually involves working with teacher guidance, which was found useful in an earlier question (Figure 23), first of all, because of the immediate help and feedback students can get on their work. Among the activities offered in the list the respondents did not mark any as completely useless.

The students were also asked about the reasons for marking one task or activity more useful than others. Doing several shorter pieces throughout the course, marked by 17 respondents as the most useful of all, was ranked so because:

- it provided them regular practice; (4)
- students could follow their progress / improvement; (2)
- more tasks offered greater variety of texts and topics; (2)

- students could immediately see their strengths and weaknesses; (2)
- they could discuss their choices and correct their mistakes in class, guided by the teacher; (2)
- they could get frequent feedback; (1)
- it was fast to do. (1)

Home assignments involving longer texts, typically to be submitted at the end of the term were deemed to be the least useful tasks, because they were time consuming (9), there was no opportunity to discuss the choices in class (2), and although the students' mistakes were marked, they typically did not get detailed feedback on their work (2). This task was marked very useful by four students only, mainly because they "could focus better when working alone".

The five participants who opted for analyzing peer translations as the most useful activity said that this task offered them great opportunities to see not only their own, but also others' mistakes, and they could learn from them. Being engaged in this task they could see how others managed to solve a problem they were not able to cope with.

Comparing translation strategies and techniques was found to be most useful by five respondents, who said seeing and discussing different ways of problem solving helped them a lot with their assignments. When explaining their choice to mark analyzing translation with a professional translator as "most useful" the general idea was that students, when doing this, "could learn from the best".

When asked how they used the translation skills they learnt out of classroom, the participants' typical answers involved:

- translating short texts for family, friends (6);
- translating for pleasure (3);
- helping siblings or friends with their homework (3);
- while reading a book in English checking the translator's work (1).

Four of the respondents did not give any answer, presumably because they did not practice theit skills out of classroom. Three wrote something, but that did not answer the question.

Summarizing students' choices, we can state that the majority prefers working with other people, including teachers, fellow students, and, if possible, professionals. Out of the classroom, they do not use the skills they learnt in class. If they do, it is for instance helping siblings doing their homework, or translating short texts for friends or family. These answers imply that a safe working environment is more important for them than autonomy.

Students preferred preparing for exams on their own: 22 of the 23 respondents chose this option as fitting them the most. None of them claimed to rely on a tutor, and only one participant liked learning for tests together with fellow students.

The respondents seem to benefit from the evaluation they receive for their exam tasks in the most different ways (Figure 24). In eleven cases, this final feedback pushed them towards autonomous decisions: it helped them identify their own strengths and weaknesses and motivated them to work on them. Six students used the assessment they got to improve their skills. Two others claimed they learned to correct their mistakes and seeing their results they could compare their personal achievements. Two students said the evaluation helped them to see their progress, whereas two other respondents claimed that they did not benefit from it because the evaluation is typically expressed in grades only, without offering any comment or explanation, and according to one student, he did not check the mistakes he had made in the test.

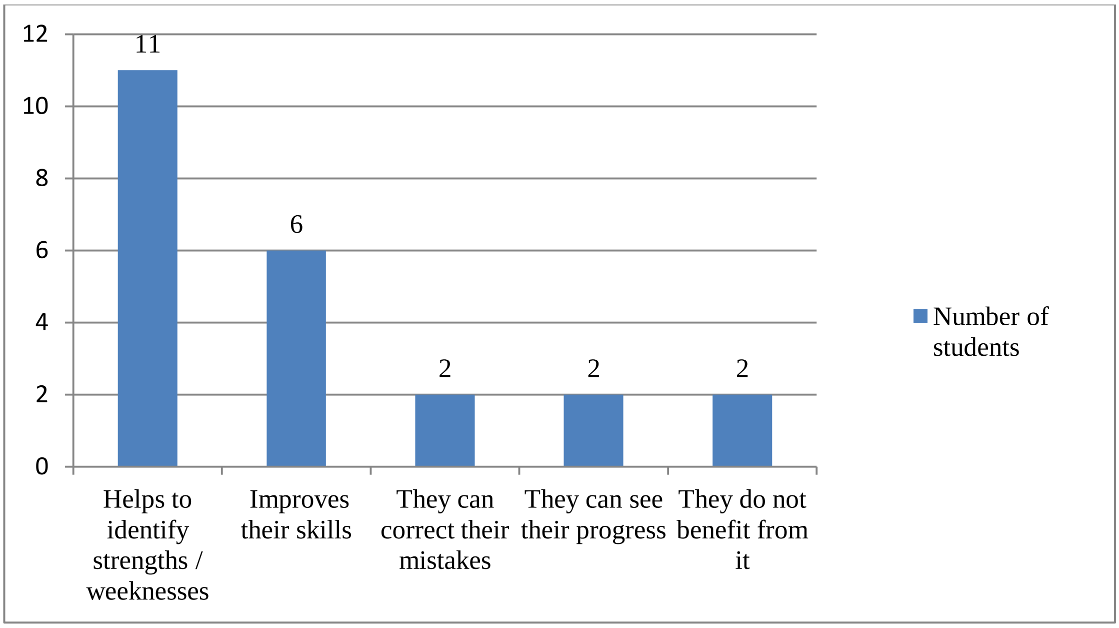


Figure 24
Perceived benefits of assessment of exam tests (N=23)

The aim of the next question was to find out what helped students become more autonomous in their translation studies. Autonomy cannot be discussed without the learners' active participation in the day-to-day process of their learning (Benson, 2007; 2008; 2011;

Littlewood, 1996), and the fact they could define what would help them indicates they are ready to take steps to become more autonomous in what they do. The question was answered by 19 respondents; five of them claimed that doing more translation tasks would definitely help their autonomous behavior. The other answers included being more experienced (2); guided correction of their mistakes (2); learning (2); more reading (2); more home assignments (1); more background knowledge (1); richer vocabulary (1); working together with professional translators (1); knowing what degree of “free translation” was acceptable (1); doing an MA program in translation (1), and one respondents did not know. The diversity of the answers imply that the respondents were aware of the complex nature of autonomous behavior, and it already assumes a degree of autonomy that they could identify their needs. The teacher plays a key role in creating a learner centered environment and is “ready to meet the effective needs of students” (Christison & Murray, 2014, p. 142).

Previous research on English majors also found that learners’ autonomous beliefs did not always result in autonomous behavior (Édes, 2008; Szőcs, 2016). Assuming there were mismatches between students’ thoughts and the extent to which they manifest various aspects of autonomous behavior nine closed items on a four-point Likert scale asked them how responsible they thought they should be for doing translation activities on their own. (1: not responsible, 2: a little responsible, 3: responsible to some extent, 4: mainly responsible), and to how often they acted autonomously (1: never, 2: sometimes, 3: often, 4: in general).

Respondents felt the most responsible for identifying their own strengths and weaknesses (3.73) and the least responsible for evaluating their own learning process (2.43) and offering opinions about what to learn in the classroom (2.56) (Table 28). As data show, when asked to what extent they practiced autonomy concerning the related statements, students answered that they were the most autonomous in becoming more self-directed in doing translations (3.26), which contradicts to what they believed about their behavior (3.08), claiming they were more autonomous concerning this aspect than they thought they were. Identifying their own strengths and weaknesses, which topped the list of their perceived responsibilities (3.73), came only third when they defined the extent to which they claimed to practice this (3.04). The table also shows considerable differences between the means of the examined behaviors (how responsible they thought they were and to what extent they really were responsible; 3.19 and 2.58).

Table 28
Students' beliefs and claims about their responsibilities concerning TS classes (N=23)

How responsible they perceived themselves			**To what extent they acted autonomously**	
Means	**SD**	**Statement**	**Means**	**SD**
3.43	.728	identifying my own strengths and weaknesses	3.00	.905
3.52	.790	setting my own learning goals	2.87	.968
3.22	.795	deciding what to learn outside the classroom	2.96	.878
2.83	.778	evaluating my own learning process	2.09	.733
3.22	.850	stimulating my own interest in translation studies	2.52	.846
3.09	.900	learning from my peers, not just from the teachers	2.65	.885
3.13	.757	becoming more self-directed in doing translations	2.91	.793
3.30	.876	facing difficulties in translations on my own rather than waiting for solutions from my teachers	3.04	.928
2.57	.896	offering opinions about what to learn in classroom	1.78	.671
3.13		Total	2.58	

Comparing the means of the extent to which students believed it was their responsibility to act autonomously (3.13) and the extent to which they claimed to act autonomously (2.58) revealed a mismatch in favor of beliefs. The same can be said about the spread of the answers: the SD values for the same statements show considerable differences in most cases. This result implies that students' autonomous behavior lagged behind their perceived responsibilities.

4.6.4 Teacher and learner autonomy in the syllabi

As research has shown, autonomy in the classroom presumes a degree of autonomy of both parties involved: the teachers and the learners (L. Dickinson, 1992; Finch, 2001; Holec, 1981, 2008; T. Lamb & Murray, 2018; MacBeath, 2012; Nunan, 1997; Parker, 2015). If teachers are not autonomous, they will not be able to create autonomous learning environments and, more importantly, will not be able to foster learner autonomy. To explore this area in my research, I studied twelve course syllabi designed and applied by four teachers during the academic between 2016 and 2018 (Table 29). The syllabi appear here according to the sequence they are expected to be taken by students.

Table 29
Course syllabi for Translation Studies, 2016 – 2018

	Name of the course	**Type**	**Number of tutors**	**Term**	**Credit**
1	Introduction to translation studies	lecture	1	3	2
2	Text linguistics and stylistcs	lecture	1	3	3
3	English-Hungarian translation skills I	seminar	1	3	3
4	Language and style	seminar	1	3	3
5	Hungarian-English translation skills I	seminar	1	4	3
6	English-Hungarian translation skills II	seminar	1	4	3
7	Translating political and legal texts	seminar	1	5	3
8	Hungarian-English translation skills II	seminar	1	5	3
9	Translating texts in the social sciences	seminar	1	5	3
10	Translating economic and financial texts (E-H)	seminar	1	6	3
11	Translating IT texts	seminar	1	6	3
12	Translating literary texts	seminar	1	6	3

The structure of the syllabi was very similar, although they contained differences, too. Each had a heading with the name of the course, the name of the tutor with contact information and the semester, followed by the main parts:

- Course requirement
- Aim / Goal of the course
- Course plan / Course calendar
- Assessment / Grading policy
- Readings / Literature
- Recommended readings / Suggested sources / Additional literature
- (Learning outcomes)

Syllabi 1 and 3 were written by the same tutor (T1), so they practically contained the same elements with different contents. After declaring the aim of the course they followed the same steps in the "Course plan" section, giving the dates and topics of the weekly lectures. While syllabus 1 focused on theory and concepts that make up the dynamic interdisciplinary field of translation studies, syllabus 3 offered an overview on different aspects of style with a reading task for different styles for each class, suggesting that the lecture contained practical elements. The students in this class also had home assignments (translation, analyses), had to complete reading quizzes, do research on selected topics and were expected to document everything in a folder to be handed in for evaluation at the end of the course. The course closed with a final test based on selected readings and a glossary. It did not say anything about the assessment, so the students did not know what to expect in this respect (unless they were told by the tutor). Syllabus 1 offered a similar overview of classes, however, it did not expect the students do practical tasks. It also offered a detailed assessment policy, where final grades were calculated in the written examination as follows: 0-49% = 1; 50-59% = 2; 60-75% = 3; 76-89% = 4; 90-100% = 5. Syllabus 2, written by another tutor (T2), was not as detailed as syllabi 1 and 3; it just contained a list of topics and another list of suggested readings. Concerning assessment and grading, it contained only one sentence: "The course concludes with a written test."

Syllabi 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 were designed to offer the students ample practice to improve their translation skills by translating and proofreading advanced texts taken from major English and American daily and weekly papers, magazines. 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 were written by the same tutor (T3), so they followed the same structure again. The "Course calendar" part of these seminar syllabi defined the length of the texts students had to translate every week, which were of roughly 2000 characters in case En-Hu and Hu-En translation skills, as well as in the legal and political texts seminar. The course ended with a final translation assignment of about 2000 characters. The requirements and grading, expressed in percent, also were uniform in these five syllabi:

- The weekly translations were accounted for – 25%
- Participation in classroom discussions were – 25%
- End-of-term translation assignment weighed – 50%.

The syllabus for "Translating economic and final texts" (10) was designed by T1. The weekly translation assignment in this case was 200-300. As these were home assignments, the students were offered the opportunity to choose the translation tools themselves, however, they could not negotiate on the text or the topic. The students also were required to compile a glossary of financial and economic terms. Compared to the two syllabi om theoretical classes (1, 3) by T1, this one was less detailed and did not say anything about assessment and grading.

The syllabi on texts in the social sciences, IT and literary texts (syllabi 9, 11, 12) were designed by a forth tutor (T4), who also taught the classes, so they followed a uniform pattern again, but they contained tasks which were not part of any other syllabus. In each class the students had weekly assignments and were required to present their version of the weekly translating task in groups, focusing on problematic issues, reveled by the group, and they also had to proofread each other's translations. These syllabi did not contain a section on weekly topics or readings; it promised to send the materials via Neptun (the electronic administration system at Hungarian universities), and the students were required to send back their assignments in the same way. The assessment and grading policy contained a detailed description of the format requirements, strict instructions concerning deadlines. The grading was different in the three classes. Syllabus 9 on texts in social sciences stated that "Marking and correction of the translations will be based on the requirements and rules of correction of the complex translation exam." In case of IT translations (11) the syllabus said that two assignments had to be handed in in hard copy (these tasks are designated during the semester). The third assignment was the correction of one of these translations. The grade was based on these three assignments (75 per cent) and the presentation (25 per cent). Syllabus 12 on literary translations offered another grading policy again, in which the grade was based on the translation tasks, a final translation individually assigned and a presentation of a translation task. Table 30 aims to show how similar and how different the syllabi by four tutors on 12 courses were.

Except meeting the basic formal requirements, all syllabi gave the students opportunity to make their voice heard concerning the translations they made: in the classroom they either were offered to take turns to project their translations each week, or the teachers chose a translation to discuss. The students were invited to make comments on the given translation, compare their own choices to what was discussed, and suggest alternative solutions and improvements. In literary translation classes the routine included interpreting the text, analyzing the problems the translators and proofreaders faced during work, discussing terminology, the concept and context of the text, style, intention etc., and rework the translation. This practice helped develop their critical thinking and fostered their autonomous behavior.

Table 30
Similarities and differences between the examined syllabi

		Features							
Course number	**Tutor**	**Heading**	**Aim**	**Course plan**	**Course calendar**	**Class activity**	**Assessment, grading**	**Readings**	**Learning outcomes**
1	T1	√	√	√			√	√	√
2	T2	√	√	√				√	
3	T1	√	√	√			√	√	
4	T3	√	√		√			√	
5	T3	√	√		√		√	√	
6	T3	√	√		√		√	√	
7	T3	√	√		√		√	√	
8	T3	√	√		√		√	√	
9	T4	√	√			√	√	√	
10	T1	√	√	√				√	
11	T4	√	√			√	√	√	
12	T4	√	√			√	√	√	

By doing weekly translations the students were offered enough practice to learn to work on their own, to learn to make autonomous decisions concerning the length of the time they wanted to devote to fulfilling their tasks, the tools and background materials they wanted to use and their choices they had to make when translation problems arose. The practice described in the syllabi, together with discussing the end product of students' efforts in class theoretically offered what literature calls a motivating, student-centered learning environment, which fosters student and translator autonomy (Benson, 2006; Little, Ridley, & Ushioda, 2003; Nunan, 1997).

It is also obvious that the syllabi offered a fair evaluation of student work; with the exception of syllabi 3 and 7 they knew in advance that the weekly assignments and participate in classroom would also be assessed, which, if they took them seriously, could represent significant motivating force to show their best competence in the end-of-the term translation assignment.

The last part in each practice-oriented syllabus included a list of suggested sources to use. The word *suggested* implies that the students could make their own choices concerning sources and background material, thus fostering autonomy.

The course syllabi on texts in the social sciences (9), IT (11) and literary translations (12), parallel with individual work, offered an option to work in groups; the students could decide which form they preferred to prepare their assignments. In case of teamwork, one team member translated the text; then they sent it to the other members for proofreading, then during the class the students interpreted the source text and analyzed the problems the translators and proofreaders faced during preparing their work. This method promoted not only autonomy, but also cooperation by putting emphasis on important elements (time management, keeping deadlines, using different channels of communication, etc.). This was a good example for teacher autonomy: while the teachers worked along mutually agreed guidelines, they could adopt new forms or activities if they wanted to; breaking the typical pattern could result in more motivating activities.

The syllabi for theoretical courses (1, 2, 3), where the students got new knowledge in the frames of lectures were designed along stricter guidelines. Here the instructor strictly defined what students had to read for each class, but also offered a shorter list of optional readings.

Only syllabus 1 (Introduction to translation studies) defined the learning outcomes, promising that on completion of the course, students will be able to

- discuss essential themes in translation theory;
- apply basic translation theory to explain aspects of translation practice, and
- critically observe the relationship between translation and culture.

It is an important feature, because knowing what they are expected to achieve, the students are able to create the ideal L2 selves they want to become by the end of the course. While learning new things, they are given the opportunity to adapt to it, which, according to research, enhances their L2 motivation (Adolphs et al., 2018; Dörnyei, 2020; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009).

The negative side of the syllabi by the same tutors (except T4) is the complete uniformity of the design. Although they meet the basic expectation, which says that a syllabus is a statement of content which is used as the basis for planning courses and the basic task of the syllabus designer is to select and grade this content (Nunan, 1988), knowing in advance that students will follow the same routine in each class of a given tutor can result in a boring, monotonous system, even if the texts are different. It is clear that designing a syllabus is easier in this way, but it is also dangerous, as it may suggest that the teacher is not motivated enough to offer new ideas, new methods, and demotivated teachers never show good examples, and do not promote the motivating classroom environment (Little et al., 2003).

4.7 Summary

As has been discussed in previous chapters, the BA students at the University of Pécs can choose to take on the translation specialization program in the second year of their studies, after passing the proficiency exam. It means that up to this point they are preoccupied with studying a range of course and developing their four skills (reading, listening, writing, grammar and vocabulary) with the help and guidance of their teachers.

The respondents to the questionnaire were at the very beginning of studying their chosen special area – translation – which, if one wants to do it successfully, demands a great deal of autonomy, starting with identifying one's strengths and weaknesses, goal setting, choice making concerning tools, words, ways of expression etc. At the beginning of their studies, they were quite dependent on their teachers' guidance. However, their answers suggest that they were on the path of becoming autonomous both in their beliefs and in their practices. Although their responses revealed a mismatch between their beliefs and their autonomous behavior, a comparison of their answers (4.6.3, Table 28) to Nunan's five-level model of autonomy (Nunan, 1997; see 4.2.2, Table 23) indicates that many of them have reached the first two levels (awareness and involvement): eight of the 23 respondents felt to be able to identify their strengths and weaknesses, face difficulties rather than waiting for solutions from teachers and set their own learning goals. Seven students said they could decide what to learn out of class. We can find examples for students who are already close to the third (intervention) and fourth level of creation. Three of the 23 participants felt they could evaluate their own leraning process, and three that they were able to stimulate their own interest in TS. These rare examples are not only able to choose their goals from a list of alternatives, but they are able to set their own definite goals and work independently in order to achieve them. However, as their number shows, these students belong to the minority; the most, 15 out of 23 are still teacher dependent and just have started to learn how to become autonomous.

The syllabi suggest that the respondents learn in student-centered learning environments, where they are offered the freedom of choice and in the form of class discussions they have ample opportunities to make their voices heard. How autonomous they will become by the end of the course, which level of Nunan's model they will reach… "It depends on the students themselves" (M. Lamb, 2004, p. 1).

Part III

Chapter 5

Assessment in Translation Studies BA classes

"The assessment of any learning should be linked directly
to the objectives or intended outcomes."
(Kelly, 2005, p. 132)

5.1 Introduction

When designing an instrument, one of the crucial steps is the definition of the construct, which has to include a clearly described definition of what a test designer intends to include in a given skill or ability, what the name of the construct is, and what knowledge and behavior are operationalized, that is what the elements that formulate the given construct are, and how they can be captured and measured by a rubric (Fulcher, 2014).

Based on Angelelli's (2009, p. 31) definition of a measurable construct, translation competence comprises:

(1) linguistic competence in its narrowest sense, including grammatical competence, control of vocabulary, morphology and syntax;

(2) textual competence, the ability to string ideas together, including cohesive competence, the ability of using linguistic devices to connect ideas, and the ability to organize the text appropriately;

(3) pragmatic competence, which can be divided into illocutionary competence which is used to perform functions (e. g., addressing, apologizing, complaining), and sociolinguistic competence (knowledge of linguistic variations, and cultural references, figures of speech and registers);

(4) strategic competence, including the ways a translator approaches a translation task and instrumental-professional competence.

All these reflect what was discussed in the previous chapters, that translation is a multi-dimensional and complex phenomenon, which may explain why there have been few attempts to validly and reliably measure translation competence (Angelelli, 2009; Eyckmans, Anckaert, & Segers, 2009; Williams, 2009). It involves discourse and grammatical competence in two languages, the source language and the target language, also knowledge, a variety of skills, both analytical and strategic, as well as attitudes, therefor developing reliable tests raises a whole series of questions (Angelelli, 2009; Cohen, 1994). What aspects of translation competence should be assessed? What is the purpose of assessment? How will the assessment instruments be developed and validated? Should the test be a norm-referenced or a criterion-referenced one? How will the candidates' translations be scored? How will the results be used? How will the results impact test takers and score users?

Some of the most important interacting factors a researcher needs to consider when looking at a translation are listed by House (2015, p 2) as follows:

- the structural characteristics, the expressive potential and the constraints of the two languages involved;
- the extra-linguistic world which is interpreted in different ways by the speakers of source language (SL) and target language (TL);
- the source text with its linguistic, stylistic and aesthetic features belonging to the lingua-cultural community;
- the linguistic, stylistic and aesthetic features of the TL community;
- the TL norms internalized by the translator;
- intertextuality of the text in TL culture;
- traditions, principles, ideologies and history of TL community,
- the translational "brief" given to the translator by the person or institution commissioning the translation;
- the translator's workplace conditions;
- the translators' knowledge, expertise, attitudes;
- the translation receptors' knowledge, expertise and attitudes.

Although translation quality, which is hugely affected by the listed factors has long been the focus not only of academic, but also industrial attention, and the relevance of translation quality assessment (TQA) is stronger than ever, there are still no "generally accepted objective criteria for evaluating the quality of translations" (Williams, 2009, p. 3). Most researchers, even if they take different approaches of assessment agree that reliability and validity are essential when it comes to testing quality (Eyckmans, Anckaert, & Segers, 2009; Eyckmans & Anckaert, 2017).

Reliability, in practical terms, means the consistency or reproducibility of test scores (Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1996). However, it is not just about test scores but also about different factors which impact reliability: (1) variation in test administration settings,

(2) variations in test rubrics, (3) variations in test input, (4) variation in expected response and (5) variation in the relationship between input and response types (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). From the viewpoint of the present paper, one of the most important areas that may affect reliability is the manner in which the test-takers' responses are scored. Ideally, assessors give their scores based on fixed and objective criteria; each instance of scoring by a grader should be similar to other instances of scoring by the same grader, a quality known as intra-rater reliability. Inter-rater reliability, on the other hand, means that the same test, graded by different graders using the same scoring criteria should yield similar results (Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Any consultation among graders threatens inter-rater reliability. Graders can pull each other one way or another, arriving at a consensus in the end. The means of all the scores are often used as the final score. For the sake of reliability, however, each scoring should be done independently of the others, ensuring the integrity of grading criteria, intra-rater and inter-rater reliability (Angelelli, 2009; Eyckmans et *al*., 2009).

Validity in general refers to the appropriateness of a test or any of its components. A test is said to be valid to the extent that it measures what it is supposed to measure (Alderson, Clapham, & Wall, 1995; Henning, 1987), however, "it is not possible for a test to be valid without first being reliable" (Henning, 1987, p. 90).

There are several kinds of validity. The first distinction should be made between empirical and non-empirical validity (Henning, 1987, p. 93), or internal and external validity (Alderson et al., 1995, p. 172). Empirical or internal validity involves criterion related validities, the non-emprical or external validity involves face or content validity and response validity. Content or face validity is concerned with whether or not the content of the test is representative and comprehensive for the test to be a valid measure of what it is supposed to measure (Henning, 1987, p. 94). Alderson at al. (1995, pp. 172-173) make a distinction between face validity and content validity: the first one refers to the "surface credibility or public acceptability of the test" (p. 172), whereas the second one to the "representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content" (p. 173). Response validity describes the extent to which test-takers responded as expected by the test developers (Alderson et al., 1995; Henning, 1987).

Empirical, criterion-related validity, referred to by Alderson at al. (1995) as external validity includes concurrent validity and predictive validity. Concurrent validity measures how well a new test compares to a well-established test. It also can refer to testing two groups at the same time (concurrently). Concurrent validity is closely related to predictive validity, which requires comparing test scores to a subsequent targeted behavior (e.g. entrance exam scores to successive annual grades), meaning that the external measures will be gathered some time after the test has been given (J. C. Alderson et al., 1995). Predictive validation is common with proficiency tests, which predict how well the test-taker will perform in the future.

Construct validity is empirical in nature, because it involves data gathering, however, it does not have any particular validity coefficient associated with it. The aim of construct validation is to prove that the constructs being measured are valid (Henning, 1987), or, according to the explanation provided by Alderson and al. (1995, p. 183), "is measuring how well test performance can be interpreted as a meaningful measure of some characteristics or quality".

Most researchers and translation tutors would agree that translation evaluation lacks a general framework (Colina, 2008; 2008; Garant, 2009), although in recent years it has become "an up and coming topic within the field of translation studies" (Garant, 2009, p. 5). Translation products are most often assessed holistically or analytically, based on rating scales. A rating scale, also referred to as scoring rubric is defined as

> …a scale for the description of language proficiency consisting of series of constructed levels against which a learner's performance is judged… Typically such scales range from zero mastery to an end-point representing the well-educated native speaker. The levels or brands are characterized in terms of what subjects can do with the language and their mastery of linguistic features (such as vocabulary, fluency, syntax, cohesion)… Raters and judges are normally trained in the use of scales so as to ensure the measure's reliability (Davies et al., 1999, pp. 153-154).

There are different types of rating scales for scoring tests. A traditional distinction is between holistic and analytic scales. The classic definition of holistic assessment in the context of writing assessment is

> any procedure which stops short of enumerating linguistic, rhetorical, or informational features of a piece of writing. Some holistic procedures may specify a number of particular features and even require that each feature be scored separately, but the reader is never required to stop and count or tally incidents of feature (Cooper, 1977, p. 4).

When using a holistic approach, the assessor reads the translated text and scores it on the basis of a global impression, and decides how it reads in the target language, how true the content is to the original. Optimally, the assessors are provided detailed instructions:

> As you grade, you will underline anything in the translation that 'does not sound right', in line with holistic method, without giving specific information about the

> nature of the error or applying any kind of scoring parameter. At the end, you will supply a grade between N1–N2 (two end points of scoring), which you feel corresponds to the impression you obtained from the translation as a whole" (Eyckmans et al., 2009, p. 91).

This is highly subjective in nature: personal opinions, feelings or tastes influence the interpretation, so the assessment of the same translation may result in diverging scores from different assessors (Eyckmans, Anckaert, & Segers, 2016a; Garant, 2009). In Garant's (2009, p. 10) understanding, the term 'holistic' refers "to a systematic way in which the teacher arrives at an overall impression of the text as opposed to relying on a discrete points-based scale". Instructors approaching assessment at discourse level break down the text to paragraph level for better results. The emphasis is on the content, not on the mistakes, assuming that focusing on errors can be counterproductive, whereas rewarding good performance, focusing on what test-takers can do may result in a translated text which feels, reads, makes sense like a text written in the target language, and is true to the original.

Table 21
Waddington's scale for holistic assessment (Waddington, 2001, p. 315)

Level	**Accuracy of transfer of ST* content**	**Quality of expression in TL****	**Degree of task completion**	**Mark**
5	Complete transfer of ST information; only minor revision needed to reach professional standard.	Almost all the translation reads like a piece originally written in TL. There may be minor lexical, grammatical or spelling errors.	Successful	9 / 10
4	Almost complete transfer; there may be one or two insignificant inaccuracies; requires certain amount of revision to reach professional standard.	Large sections read like a piece originally written in TL. There are a number of lexical, grammatical or spelling errors.	Almost completely successful	7 / 8
3	Transfer of the general idea(s) but with a number of lapses in accuracy; needs considerable revision to reach professional standard.	Certain parts read like a piece originally written in TL, but others read like translation. There are a considerable number of lexical, grammatical or spelling errors.	Adequate	5 / 6
2	Transfer undermined by serious inaccuracies; thorough revision required to reach professional standard.	Almost the entire text reads like a translation; there are continual lexical, grammatical or spelling errors.	Inadequate	3 / 4
1	Totally inadequate transfer of ST content; the translation is not worth revising.	The candidate reveals a total lack of ability to express himself adequately in TL.	Totally inadequate	1 / 2

*ST: source text; **TL: target language

Waddington (2001) designed a 5-level assessment scale which conceptualizes translation competence as a whole, at the same time it requires the assessor to consider three aspects of the translator's performance. For each level, there are two possible marks, offering the assessor the freedom to distinguish between candidates within five levels (Table 21). This scale treats the translated text holistically, and even if it uses descriptors for the different levels, the possibility to consider three different aspects of performance still let the assessor rely on his or her personal interpretation, thus making the assessment rather subjective.

Analytical evaluation instruments, on the other hand, are based on the number of errors (sometimes good decisions), which are often categorized according to importance and nature (Conde, 2013).

Researchers, who are aware of the fact that measuring translation quality is a subjective process, as it relies on human judgment, propose to base the assessment on analytical grids which, in their opinion, represent objective evaluation criteria (Orlando, 2011). Their proposal is supported by scholars who believe that there is no universally accepted evaluation model in the world of translation, see e.g., Pym (2014). The grids traditionally consist of a detailed taxonomy of different kinds of inaccuracies in grammar, text cohesion, word choice, etc.

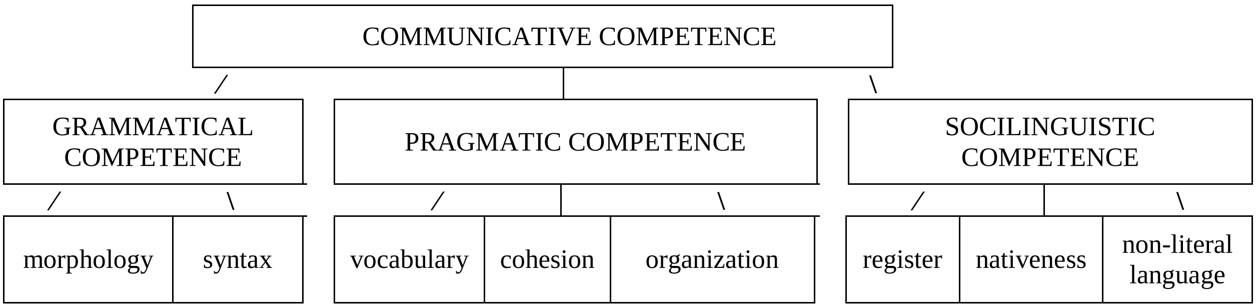
However, the analytical approach does not adequately reduce the subjectivity of evaluation, mainly because of disagreements between raters on the weighing of translation mistakes (Eyckmans et al., 2009; Eyckmans, Anckaert, & Segers, 2016), and there is a negative bias: raters look for errors rather than strengths in the text. The instructions for the analytical graders are also different:

> The analytical method entails that the translation be marked according to the evaluation grid provided. This method implies that the corrector underlines every error and provides information in the margin (or in the word in the proofing area) as to the nature of the error (e.g. 'CT' for content errors or misinterpretations, 'GR' for grammatical errors, etc.). Finally, a number of points will be deducted from a total of X points for each error found, e. g. –2/CT error; –0,5/GR mistake, etc. (Eyckmans et al., 2009, p. 91).

When discussing analytical scales of assessment, first we have to look at the model of communicative competence devised by Bachman and Palmer (1982, p. 451), in Table 32, which provided the basis for their classic analytical scale, and most of the other analytical scales devised later.

Table 32

The model of communicative competence by Bachman and Palmer (1982, p. 451)



Their operationalized assessment instrument (Tables 33, 34, 35) consisted of three separate scales for each of the main traits of linguistic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence, clearly, highlighting what to measure. Analytic scales of this type require the rater to pay attention to specific features of the trait; their basic aim is to find out what the candidates know and how they can perform demonstrating the tested competence.

The usefulness of a scale is always based on the careful and detailed definition of both linguistic and functional terms of the points included (Fulcher, 2014). Bachman and Palmer's scales seem to meet this requirement almost in every respect, however, what counts as "extensive", "large", "small" or "limited" vocabulary, or what the difference between "extensive" and "large" or "small" and "limited" mean, is undefined.

Table 33

The Bachman and Palmer scale of sociolinguistic competence (1982, pp. 456-457)

<table>
<tr><th>Main trait rating</th><th>Distinction of formulaic</th><th>Register substantive</th><th>Nativeness</th><th>Cultural references</th></tr>
<tr><td>4</td><td rowspan="2">control of both formal and informal registers</td><td>control of both formal and informal registers</td><td>no non-native but grammatical structures</td><td>full control</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td>evidence of two registers, and control of formal and informal</td><td>rare non-native but grammatical structures</td><td rowspan="2">some control</td></tr>
<tr><td>2</td><td>evidence of two registers, and control of formal and informal</td><td>evidence of two registers</td><td rowspan="3">frequent non-native but grammatical structures or impossible to judge because of interference from other factors</td></tr>
<tr><td>1</td><td>evidence of two registers</td><td rowspan="2">evidence of only one register</td><td rowspan="2">no control</td></tr>
<tr><td>0</td><td>evidence of only one register</td></tr>
</table>

Table 34
The Bachman and Palmer scale of linguistic competence (1982, pp. 456-457)

Main trait rating	**Range**	**Accuracy**
6	complete range of morphologic and syntactic structures	no errors not acceptable of a native speaker
5	large, but not complete range of morphologic and syntactic structures	control of most structures used with few error types;
4		control of some structure used, but with many error types;
3	limited range of both morphologic and syntactic structures, but with some systematic evidence;	
2		control of few or no structures; errors of all or most possible types frequent
1	no systematic evidence of morphologic and syntactic structures	
0		

Table 35
The Bachman and Palmer scale of pragmatic competence (1982, pp. 456-457)

Main trait rating	**Vocabulary**	**Cohesion**	**Organization**
4	extensive vocabulary	excellent cohesion using a variety of appropriate devices	excellent ability to organize consciously
3	large vocabulary	good cohesion, including subordination	moderate ability to organize consciously
2	moderate vocabulary	moderate cohesion, including coordination	
1	small vocabulary	very little cohesion; relationship between structures not adequately marked	Natural organization only (i. e. not consciously imposed) or poor ability to organize consciously
0	limited vocabulary (a few words and formulate phrases)	language completely disjointed	

The use of analytical grids is nowadays widespread in the field of translation assessment (Martínez, 2014), where scoring is based on fixed criteria (see Table 36). As it has been pointed out, he main aim of using such grids is to move away from the potential subjectivity of holistic assessment to a replicable system based on the identification of errors. However, decisions on weighing the errors also involve subjective judgement, and as research has shown, pointing out the wrong solutions, focusing on errors is not necessarily the best way to assess a translation product (Garant, 2009; Phelan, 2017).

Table 36
An analytical grid used by the NAATI for product-oriented evaluation (Orlando, 2011, p. 302)*

Criteria	Grades	Descriptors
Overall comprehension of source text (misinterpretations with more or less effect on accuracy)	0 2 4 6 8 10 12	0-2: Inadequate grasp of information; major misinterpretations with very significant effect on accuracy;
		4: Information misunderstood; misinterpretations with significant effect on accuracy;
		6: Adequate level of understanding; some misinterpretations with some effect on accuracy;
		8: Adequate level of understanding; some misinterpretations with little effect on accuracy;
		10: Good understanding of the text, its register and its nuances; only slight misinterpretations with a very slight effect on accuracy;
		12: Very good understanding of the text, its register and nuances;
Overall translation accuracy (mistranslations with more or less effect on accuracy)	0 2 4 6 8 10 12	0-2: False transfer of information; major mistranslations with great effect on accuracy;
		4: Some mistranslations with significant effect on accuracy;
		6: Adequate command of the text despite some mistranslations or changes in emphasis;
		8: Adequate command of the text despite a few mistranslations or changes in emphasis;
		10: Good command and transfer of the text with only one or two mistranslations or changes with a very slight effect on accuracy;
		12: Very good command and transfer of the text;
Omissions / Insertions (with more or less effect on accuracy)	0 2 4 6 8	0: Major omissions / insertions or large number of omissions / insertions with very significant effect on accuracy;
		2: Several omissions / insertions with significant effect on accuracy;
		4: Some omissions / insertions with moderate effect on accuracy;
		6: Few omissions / insertions with little effect on accuracy;
		8: No unjustified omissions / insertions;
Terminology / Word choices (affecting more or less the localized meaning)	0 2 4 6 8	0: Incorrect choices made with very significant impact on meaning;
		2: Inadequate choices made with significant impact on meaning;
		4: Inadequate choices made with some impact on meaning;
		6: Good choices made; minor amendments required;
		8: Very good choices; no changes required;

Grammatical choices / Syntactic choices (producing more or less distortion to the meaning)	0 2 4 6 8	0: Incorrect choices made with very significant impact on meaning; 2: Inadequate choices made with significant impact on meaning; 4: Inadequate choices made with some impact on meaning; 6: Good choices made; minor amendments required; 8: Very good choices; no changes required;
Spelling errors	0 2 4 6	0: Multiple errors / serious errors with very significant effect on readability; 2: Numerous errors with significant effect on readability; 4: Minor / few errors with very little effect on readability; 6: No errors;
Punctuation errors	0 1 2 3	0: Multiple errors; 1: Some errors; 2: An error / a few errors, 3: No errors;
Formatting errors	0 1 2 3	0: Multiple errors; 1: Some errors; 2: An error / a few errors, 3: No errors;
TOTAL (60 points)		

*The National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters in Australia

This assessment tool is similar to Bachman and Palmer's scale as it uses detailed descriptors, although the error counting feature of analytical grids is much more pronounced in it. The candidate's final grade is calculated by adding up the awarded points: the higher the sum, the better the grade.

The analytic scale proposed by Eykmans et al (2009, p. 92) is quite different (Table 37). It is based on very strict error counting. Each error is "punished" with a negative score, which will add up, and in the end will be deducted from the total of X points.

Table 37
Eykmans, Anckaert and Segers' analytical grid (Eyckmans et al., 2009, p. 92)

Criteria	**Descriptors**	**Grades**
Meaning or Sense	Any deterioration of the denotative sense: erroneous information, nonsense, important omissions	− 1
Misinterpretation	The student misinterprets what the source text says: information is presented in a positive light whereas it is negative in the source text, confusion between the person who acts and the one who undergoes the action	− 2
Vocabulary	Unsuited lexical choice, use of non-idiomatic collocations	− 1
Calque	Cases of a literal translation of structures, rendering the text "un-TL"	− 1
Register	Translation that is too (in)formal or simplistic and not corresponding to the nature of the text or extract	− 0.5
Style	Awkward tone, repetition, unsuited assonances	− 0.5
Grammar	Grammatical errors in TT (e. g., wrong agreement of the past participle, gender confusion, wrong agreement of adjective and noun) + faulty comprehension of the grammar of the original text (e.g., a past event rendered by a present tense,…), provided that these errors do not modify the in-depth meaning of the text	− 0.5
Omission	See sense/ meaning	− 1
Addition	Addition of information that is absent from the source text (stylistic additions are excluded from this category	− 1
Spelling	Spelling errors, provided they do not modify the meaning of the text	− 0.5
Punctuation	Omission or faulty use of punctuation. Caution: the omission of a comma leading to an interpretation that is different from the source text, is regarded as an error of meaning or sense	− 0.5

The need for more empirical research on translation assessment has repeatedly been expressed during the past decades. Attempting to "free evaluation of construct-irrelevant variables" (Eyckmans & Anckaert, 2017, p. 43) that characterize both holistic and analytical scoring, some scholars have taken up new directions, and instead of criterion-referenced translation tests started to develop norm-referenced ones (Eyckmans et al., 2009). The norm-referenced approach in translation assessment consists mainly of transferring the item concept of standard language testing practice to the field of translation assessment. The first attempt to assess translation competence by sample-based (norm-referenced) methodology was the Calibration of Dichotomous Items (CDI) method developed by Eyckmans et al. (2009). A few years later the Preselected Items Evaluation (PIE) was introduced (Kockaert & Segers, 2017;

Van Egdom et al., 2019). Both methods were developed to reduce the problem of subjectivity in assessments. The PIE method (Kockaert & Segers, 2017) is an adapted, practical, pragmatic version of CDI method (Eyckmans et al., 2009; 2016; Eyckmans & Anckaert, 2017). They are both calibration methods, since they are based on the practice of calibrating segments of translation, which allows the construction of standardized test of translation. Also, they are both dichotomous, as they make a distinction between correct and incorrect solutions; however, they do not distinguish between levels of error (Dastyar, 2019, Kockaert & Segers, 2017).

With the CDI method, the translations are scored on the basis of the test-takers' performance on a pre-selected set of translated segments called 'calibrated items' or items for short. Every element of the text that contributes to the measurement of differences in translation ability between test-takers acquires the status of an item (Eyckmans & Anckaert, 2017). In contrast to the criterion-referenced approach, the CDI method uses a pre-test procedure to decide which text segments demonstrate discriminating power. In this procedure, the segments are determined on the basis of performance of a representative group of translation trainees.

In the PIE method translations are also scored on the basis of test-takers' performance on a set of translated segments, but these segments are preselected by the translation grader by calculating item difficulty values (p value) and item discrimination indices (d index) (Eyckmans & Anckaert, 2017; Van Egdom et al., 2019). Item difficulty is the percentage of test takers who answer the item correctly. To get the item difficulty, the number of candidates answering the item correctly is divided by the total number of candidates answering the item. To measure the discrimination value of the preselected items, the number of candidates with high scores referring to a particular item are compared with number of candidates with low scores who answered the same item correctly.

The d index is the X number of candidates in the top group who answered the item correctly minus the X number of candidates in the bottom group who answered the same item correctly. The items which have too high or too low p values or weak discriminating power may be removed from the list of pre-selected items and replaced by other items (Eyckmans et al., 2009; 2016; Eyckmans & Anckaert, 2017; Kockaert & Segers, 2017). As in the CDI method, "the correct and erroneous solutions are determined" (Kockaert & Segers, 2017, p. 151). The pre-selected items can relate to different error types: vocabulary, grammar, spelling, style, etc. To establish the test score, only items with good discriminating power (>.3; (Eyckmans & Anckaert, 2017, p. 44) are considered. Although both CDI and PIE seem to be effective and objective methods, they have a drawback: they are labor-intensive, especially CDI, causing a growing concern over using this method in translation training contexts (Dastyar, 2019). PIE, which, according to its developers "ensures objectivity, cross-candidate transparency and equality in scoring" (Kockaert & Segers, 2017. p. 152) seems to be more feasible.

However, its implementation raises an important question: What do assessors do when a test-taker proposes an incorrect solution for an item, which was not preselected? In such a case, the authors suggest checking the performance of all the candidates who took the given test. If there is only one candidate who proposes a wrong solution for the not preselected item, this item should not be included in the translation test. If the item has a good item difficulty and discrimination index, then it may be included in the translation test.

Segers and Kockaert compared their PIE method to the other three most frequently used methods: the holistic method, the analytical method and the CDI method (Table 38). As data in the table shows, the holistic evaluator considers the translation as a whole and bases the judgment on an overall impression. This method is fast but subjective and the value judgments of different evaluators on the same translation can vary to a large extent. What one evaluator considers a good and creative translation can be seen as unacceptable by another (Eyckmans et *al*., 2009; 2016), indicating that the inter-rater reliability in holistic assessment tends to be low.

Table 38

Evaluation methods: overall comparison (Kockaert & Segers, 2017, p. 153)

	Holistic	**Analytical**	**CDI**	**PIE**
Number of items	Exhaustive	Exhaustive	Docimologically relevant items	Translation brief relevant items
Evaluation	Global	Grids/Criteria	Grids/Criteria	Grids/Criteria
Dichotomous	-	-	√	√
Calibration	-	-	√	√
Acceptance of alternatives	expected / unexpected	expected / unexpected	expected / unexpected	expected / unexpected
Inter-rater reliability	-	-	√	√
Criterion referenced				+
Norm referenced			+	

The analytical method, as it includes descriptors that make scoring easier, is regarded to be more reliable and valid than holistic methods: the evaluator uses a matrix which consist of a number of error types and a number of error levels (Kockaert & Segers, 2017). Preparing an analytical scale to assess a test of translation competence requires more time than preparing an assessment scale using the holistic method, but the translator will have a better understanding of what is correct and what is wrong in the translation. However, this method is no guarantee for objectivity, as different evaluators do not always agree with each other: the same error can be a minor one for one evaluator and a serious one mistake for another (Eyckmans et *al*., 2009; 2016).

As far as issues of reliability and validity related to these methods are concerned, empirical data suggests that CDI is more reliable than PIE in assessing translation competence (Eyckmans & Anckaert, 2017, p. 50). However, according to other research, it is the PIE method which serves reliability better in the context of translation evaluation (Kockaert & Segers, 2017, p. 160; Dastyar, 2019, p. 45). A comparison of the two methods shows their basic similarities and the difference in their item selection processes (Table 39).

Table 39
CDI versus PIE (Kockaert & Segers, 2017, p. 155)

CDI	**PIE**
Same value judgment among evaluators	Same value judgment among evaluators
Reliable and less subjective	Reliable and less subjective
Reinforces its potential as assessment method for a more reliable and valid certification of translation competence	Reinforces its potential as assessment method for a more reliable and valid certification of translation competence
Items selected on the basis of docimological criteria	Items selected on the basis of translation brief criteria; Option: Translation brief relevant items reselected on the basis of docimological criteria

According to the developers' beliefs (Kockaert & Segers, 2017), the PIE method is more practical than CDI, and it offers the ultimate advantage of reliability in the context of translation assessment: each test-taker is assessed on the same items, which have been pre-selected based on their p-values and d-indices. It is committed to a binary logic: an answer is either correct or it is not; there is no weighting of errors in the evaluation process. Theoretically, it guarantees inter-rater and intra-rater reliability, and it is time efficient.

However, it also has weaknesses: it allows subjective influences both in selection and assessment phases, and it does not account for the text as a whole (Van Egdom et al., 2019).

5.2 Translation assessment in translation training programs in Hungary

When assessing translations, several factors have to be taken into consideration, according to Dróth (2011), who listed the most important ones. The first one is the assessment situation, including the frames of assessment (MA level in higher education, language school / agency, translator exam, etc.), the translator and the assessor. The most integrated system of criteria is used in the evaluation system of language exams. Another important factor concerns the aim of assessment, which usually is the assessment of performance and competence. Concerning translations, (Hönig, 1998) distinguishes therapeutic assessment (focusing on the student and student competence in the training process) and diagnostic assessment (with focus on the hypothetic response of the translation user at the end of the training process or at the workplace and also finding strengths and weaknesses to tailor teaching needs) (See also Klaudy, 2005). The third element is the subject of assessment, which, from the viewpoint of translator training, is the translation competence, including the five sub-competences identified by Kockaert and Segers (2017) as (1) translation competence, (2) linguistic competence (source and target language), (3) cultural competence (source and target language), (4) research competence, and (5) technical competence.

Translation assessment aims at those elements of translation competence which are relevant in the given assessment situation and correspond with the aim of assessment (Dróth, 2011). The emphasis is always on the quality of the translation: adequacy with target language norms, and usability of the translated text in the target language. Knowledge of idioms and culture-related expressions, adequate knowledge and use of terminology and good management of traditional and IT tools also have an accentuated role in evaluation.

When writing about the assessment methods in Hungarian translator training institutions, Dróth (2011; 2017), in line with international research, also mentioned holistic and analytic methods and discussed their advantages and drawbacks, most of all their subjective nature. To overcome the problem of subjectivity, she suggested mixing the two methods, emphasizing that there was no guarantee that it will strengthen the validity and the reliability of assessment. Another solution could be using descriptors, which is common practice in language examinations (see CEFR, 2001), although the first descriptors for mediation appeared only in the most recent CEFR Companion Volume (2018), offering ideas to assess translations at institutions training translators.

In her study Dróth (2011) compared the assessment criteria of nine Hungarian translator training institutions, all of them at universities. At the Training Center for Translators and Interpreters at the Faculty of Humanities, ELTE University, Budapest, the certificate can be earned by preparing a "print ready" translation from the source language into Hungarian. Grade 5 (excellent) is awarded when the translation can be published without editing and grade 1 (fail) when the translation is not fit for editing. On a scale (Dróth, 2011, p. 19; Klaudy, 2005), the grade is

(5) *excellent*, if the translation gives back the full content of the source text, the target language text contains no mistakes, so the translation can be published without editing

(4) *good*, if the translation gives back the full content of the source text, but the target language text contains minor (word level) editing in the target language

(3) *satisfactory*, if the translation in one or two cases is different from the content of the source language text, and the target language text needs editing at word and sentence level

(2) *pass*, if the translation in more than three cases is different from the content of the source language text, and the target language text substantial needs correction at word and sentence level, Hungarian language use, punctuation, spelling, but it is still worth editing

(1) *fail*, if the translation in more than three cases is different from the content of the source language text, and the target language text substantial and the target language text contains so many mistakes at word and sentence level, Hungarian language use, punctuation, spelling, that it is not worth editing – it is simpler to re-translate the source text.

The above descriptors are characteristic for holistic assessment (can be published without or with editing / is not worth editing), which contains at least three analytic elements, related to the content of the source text, the quality of the target language text and the level of error. Its reliability is ensured by a detailed translation and assessment guide (Klaudy, 2005).

The Faculty of Economics and Social Sciences, Szent István University, Gödöllő, similarly to the assessment system used at ELTE, uses a four-level analytic scale targeted at

(1) content, (2) style, (3) grammar; (4) marketability and special skills. The levels are weighed differently. The assessment includes a holistic element: the reviewer's short evaluation. The reliability of the assessment is ensured by hiring internal and external reviewers and using a detailed evaluation guide.

The Centre for Agricultural Sciences at the University of Debrecen applies a simple assessment system, which evaluates the following components: (1) mediating information, (2) dictionary use, (3) special language use, (4) clarity, style, (5) emphasis shift. The averages of the scores given for each component are used as the final score. This structure is very permissive, which promotes the subjectivity of the evaluation.

The Faculty of Social Sciences at the University of Debrecen also offers a translator training program. Their assessment criteria include two main ones: (1) special requirements (terminology, word choice, register, genre expectations); (2) general features (the aim of the translation and its readers, the type of the text and its genre characteristics, Hungarian style, Hungarian spelling, formal criteria, etc).

At the Foreign Language Institute, Universityof Szeged the assessment is aimed at (1) content / text equivalence, (2) cohesion / coherence; (3) register /style; (4) word choice / terminology; (5) formal expectations; (6) accuracy and (7) genre characteristics.

The Corvinus University of Budapest borrowed the assessment sheet of University of Westminster, London (Table 40).

Table 40
Assessment sheet used at the University of Westminster and the Corvinus University (Dróth, 2011, p. 24)

Translation component	**Aspects of assessment**	**Maximum score**
Overall impression	Coherence and cohesion; Text structure	2
Introduction	Background information; Reasoning of text choice; Genre description	2
Translation	Text choice; Accuracy; Proper vocabulary and terminology use; Comprehensibility; Style / register; Grammar; Spelling and punctuation	10
Analysis	Problem sensibility; Problem solving ability; Information and source management; The degree of correctness and comprehensibility of explanations; Identification of mistakes and ambiguity in the source language text	4
Glossary	Terminology choice; Use of sources	2
Total points		**20**

The Faculty of Medicine at the University of Szeged also trains professional translators. The exam translations are evaluated by a seven-level scale, including: (1) general impressions (0,1,2,3); (2) information transfer (0,1,2,3,4); (3) style (0,1,2,3); (4) terminology / genre / text type (0,1,2,3,4); (5) language accuracy / syntax / morphology (0,1,2,3,4); (6) spelling, punctuation and formal requirements (0,1,2,3); (7) translation diary (0,1,2,3). Each scale is weighed differently, as it is shown by the scores in brackets. The markers keep a so called evaluation diary (the name of the marker, the name of the test-taker, the target language title of the translation, the number of grammar and spelling mistakes, style/word choice, number and type of omissions, negative and positive elements, questions / remarks / suggestions), which might include holistic elements.

The evaluation of translations at the Budapest University of Technology and Economics is also based on assessment scales with descriptors, which could not be interpreted without the error list they use. This list includes the fields of assessment, the errors together with their weighting and scoring (Table 41).

Table 41
The error list of the Budapest University of Technology and Economics (simplified; based on Dróth, 2011, p. 25)

Field of assessment	**Type of error / mistake**	**Point**	**Number of errors**
Spelling	punctuation (E1)	0,5	
	minor error (E2)	0,5	
	major error (E3)	1	
Grammar	verb forms	1-2	
	tenses	1-2	
	articles	1-2	
	adjectives	1-2	
	word order	1-2	
	sentence structure	1-2	
Translation transactions	major mistranslation	5	
	mistranslation	3	
	coherence	2	
	omission / expansion	1-3	
	target culture	2	
	non-existing word	1-2	
	word overuse	1-2	
	wrong word choice	1-2	
	terminology	1-2	
	lexical phrase / collocation	1-2	
Style	register	1-2	
	catachresis	1-2	
	unclear wording	1-2	

The final grades are calculated with the help of descriptors, according to which a translation is

(5) *excellent*, when the number of the collected points is not higher than 4, regardless the types of the mistakes they were given for;

(4) *good*, when the number of the collected points is between 5 and 7;

(3) *satisfactory*, when the number of the collected points is between 8 and 10;

(2) *pass*, when the number of the collected points is between 11 and 13;

(1) *fail* in case of several major mistranslations or when the number of the collected points is higher than 14. (Dróth, 2011, p. 26)

This detailed and twofold assessment system (the analytic grade with the error list and the use of descriptors) should guarantee the reliability of the evaluation, however, it contains redundant elements (overlaps), and does not evaluate the information content of the text. These features reduce the reliability of the assessment, as it does not include the most important segment of translations: the message the translated texts carry. The other problem with this scale is its pronounced error-centeredness. The emphasis is on the committed errors; the good choices remain unobserved and unmarked.

At the Kodolányi János University of Applied Sciences the assessment involves the language of the translations (style, register); text accuracy, coherence, terminology and language use. (Dróth, 2011, p. 27.)

Dróth (2011) compared the most frequently used assessment criteria at Hungarian universities. As is shown in Table 42, there are important differences between the listed translation training institutions in this respect, indicating the absence of a common and sensible assessment tool, which would help to achieve the objectivity of the evaluation, resulting in a stronger intra- and inter-rater reliability.

Table 42
The ten most frequently used assessment criteria at the examined Hungarian translator training institutions (based on Dróth, 2011, p. 27)

	Criteria	**Number of occurrence**
1.	Language use (spelling, punctuation)	8
2.	Terminology	7
3.	Equivalency at word level	7
4.	Style / register	7
5.	Coherence	6
6.	Equivalency at sentence level	5
7.	Genre characteristics	5

8.	Paragraphing, formal criteria	5
9.	Cohesion	4
10.	Nominal/verbal, linear/non-linear, word-to-word/ free translation	3

If we compare these criteria listed in Tabée 42 to the descriptors listed under the title *Translating a written text in writing* in the new CEFR Companion Volume (2018, p. 114) (see Table 43), which states that "professional translators are usually operating at a level well above C2" we will see that this scale does not address translation competence or any typical translation activities. (C2 in this case is the middle level of a scale of five levels for literary translation produced in the PETRA project, a network for education and training literary translators.) It specifies the languages involved, providing a functional description of the language ability necessary to reproduce a source text in another language. The key concepts of the scale include: (1) comprehensibility of translation; (2) the extent to which the original formulations and structure influence the translation; and (3) capturing nuances in the original text (CEFR, 2018, p. 113).

Table 43
CEFR descriptors for B2, C1 and C2 levels for task "Translating a written text in writing" (CEFR, 2018, p. 114)

Level	**Descriptor**
C2	Can translate into (Language B) technical material outside his/her field of specialisation written in (Language A), provided subject matter accuracy is checked by a specialist in the field concerned.
C1	Can translate into (Language B) abstract texts on social, academic and professional subjects in his/her field written in (Language A), successfully conveying evaluative aspects and arguments, including many of the implications associated with them, though some expression may be over-influenced by the original.
B2	Can produce clearly organised translations from (Language A) into (Language B) that reflect normal language usage but may be over-influenced by the order, paragraphing, punctuation and particular formulations of the original.

After the comparison, it becomes evident that the ten most frequent assessment criteria applied at the above discussed Hungarian translator training institutions (maybe in other wording) are in line with the CEFR descriptors. However, there are also differences; the most significant one is that the CEFR scale aims to assess what a test-taker CAN do, whereas the others focus on errors. Also, those criteria do not form a common system, so the evaluation of the same translation by different assessors can show considerable differences depending on at which institution the assessment was done.

5.3 Translation assessment at the Institute of English Studies at the University of Pécs

Assessment in translation, as in all of the fields, is implemented for a number of purposes. Examples include screening applicants for entry into a study program; providing feedback to students during their studies, testing knowledge and skills during and at the end of a course, certifying professional-level competence, etc. In a university program, all syllabi include a part on how students earn grades, what kind of assignments they have to write, how the results of their achievement test are weighted in their assessment. The final assignment is a written exam, which has to be taken after fulfilling the requirements of the translator training specialization program (BA level, 50 credits). It consists of two tasks. The first one is the translation of a text on a topic from the social sciences from English (L2) into Hungarian (L1) (c. 2000 n) and the second one is the translation of a business text from Hungarian (L1) into English (L2) (c. 2000 n). The total time allowed is 6 hours; students decide how much time they spend on the tasks.

The exam is conducted in an IT lab, where the students are given the source texts in an electronic format, and the completed translations are to be saved and submitted also in an electronic (Word) format. Students are allowed to use dictionaries and any internet sources.

Test-takers are instructed to meet the formal requirements of the test (surname and first name, translation HU – EN and translation EN – HU at the top of the page; the translated texts have to be saved under the same name); if they do not, their translations will fail without being assessed. When creating the target language texts, students are asked to use 1.5 line spacing, and Times New Roman size 12 font. The translation should not take up more than one page. The assessment process is simple. Errors are divided into two groups: major mistakes (H) and minor mistakes (h). The evaluation sheet contains a detailed description of both types and follows the criteria defined and used at ELTE University (Dróth, 2011, p. 19; Klaudy, 2005), in which major errors include:

(1) Comprehension error: mistranslation, illegible word-to-word translation, indecision (including more than one solution), omission, insertion, adding information which is not included in the source text, the violation of text cohesion and coherence, any arbitrary change in the logical order of the source text;

(2) Major grammar error: conjugational, tense, word order, syntax errors, use of improper prepositions in phrasal verbs;
(3) Inappropriate terminology: the apparent absence of special vocabulary, the misuse of terminology;
(4) Major punctuation and spelling errors, e. g. in geographical names or proper nouns, the improper use of uppercase and lowercase; ignoring the error messages and the spell check function of MS Word;
(5) Uneducated language use, the apparent lack of practice in written communication.

Minor error:
(1) An error that does not impair the overall meaning of the text and can be corrected at word level;
(2) A minor grammar error which does not influence understanding;
(3) A minor, usually spelling or punctuation mistake which does not change the meaning at sentence level.

The type of the error (H / h) is marked by the evaluator in the proofing section. The final grades are calculated by counting and weighting the errors. If the number of minor errors is higher than six, that counts as a major error.

In case of translations from English to Hungarian the grade is:

5 (excellent):	1 major and maximum 6 minor errors
4 (good):	2 major and maximum 6 minor errors;
3 (satisfactory):	3 major and maximum 6 minor errors;
2 (pass):	4 major and maximum 6 minor errors;
1 (fail):	5 or more major errors.

In case of translations from Hungarian into English the grade is:

5 (excellent):	1 major and maximum 6 minor errors;
4 (good):	2 major and maximum 6 minor errors;
3 (satisfactory):	3 major and maximum 6 minor errors;
2 (pass):	4 major and maximum 6 minor errors;
1 (fail):	5 or more major errors.

Both tasks are assessed by two teacher-evaluators, who mark the translations following the guidelines. The mean of the two grades is the final grade. In case of one grade difference, the test taker gets the higher one. In case any of the two tasks is 1 (fail) by both evaluators, the final grade is 1 (fail), but only the unsuccessful part of the test has to be taken again.

As is apparent, the assessment here is based on counting errors, and, although the types of errors are defined, the scale leaves room for subjective judgement in thes assessment. What is judged as a major error by one marker may be judged as a minor one by the other one, or it may be overlooked. Descriptors such as “uneducated language use” or the “apparent lack of practice in written communication” are opaque, difficult to grab. All this suggests that even the most detailed assessment scales can fail in fulfilling their aims if the descriptors or components included reduce not only inter-rater, but also intra-rater reliability.

Assuming that the scale described above (“the old UP scale”) did not meet important reliability requirements, an empirical study was conducted with focus on the reliability issues of translation assessment.

5.4 Study 3: An inquiry into how the ‘old’ UP scale of assessment worked

This part of the dissertation discusses the preliminary study that was conducted in order to find out how the assessment scale described in the previous section (5.3) was applied in authentic situations, when it was used to assess exam translations. The other aim of this study was to examine how consistently the raters used this evaluation instrument and how the final grades were calculated.

5.4.1 Research questions

In this study I focused on two important aspects of assessment: inter-rater reliability and rater consistency. In addition to these, I also wanted to inquire into what the raters thought about the instrument they used. Accordingly, four research questions were formulated:

(1) How does the rating scale perform in terms of inter-rater reliability?

(2) How consistent are the raters in their assessment?

(3) How do the raters evaluate the assessment system they apply to assess translation students’ work?

(4) What modifications would they recommend for making it more appropriate for assessing the quality of translation and students’ translation competence?

5.4.2 Participants

The participants of this study were 16 BA translation specialization students and their four teachers who assessed their translations. In addition to them, the head of the translation program was also involved. As both students and teachers were promised anonymity, I will refer to the students as test takers: TT1, TT2, etc., to the teacher-raters as Rater 1, Rater 2, etc. All students in the graduating group took the qualifying exam; thus, the rate of participation was 100% and the 16 test-takers formed a full sample of students specializing in translation studies.

5.4.3 Data collection instruments and procedures

In order to answer the first two research questions, data was collected in the form of test scores given to 16 students for their two translations in their final exam by four raters using the evaluation sheet described in section 5.3. The database comprised a total of 32 translations: 16 translations from English to Hungarian and 16 translations from Hungarian to English collected in electronic format in the fall semester of 2017. The source text in the first case was a 355-word-long (2,105 characters) text from the field of social sciences about a well-known literary reviewer of the late 19th century; in the second case it was a 271-word (2,050 characters) business text about a country assessment by the International Monetary Fund.

To examine the reliability of the scale in use I compared the assessment of the 16 exam translations from English into Hungarian, and also from Hungarian into English. The translations in both cases were assessed by two raters, who worked independently form one another. All the errors, marked by the raters, were counted manually. First, I compared the two raters' evaluations of each translation; then, I looked at how consistently the same rater treated the errors in the sixteen translations. The differences in their assessment, including the errors and the grades, are organized and presented in Tables 45 to 55. The inter-rater reliability of the raters' judgments was also calculated. To do this, I used SPSS concentrating on three important coefficients of internal consistency and reliablitity: Cronbach's alpha, Intra-class Correlation Coefficient (ICC) and Krippendorff's alpha (Table 44).

Table 44
Three basic coefficients of measuring statistical data

Measurement of	**Coefficient**	**Acceptable value**	**Reference**
scale reliability	Cronbach's alpha	$\alpha \geq 0.75$	(Crocker & Algina, 2006, p. 142)
internal consistency	Intra-class Correlation Coefficient (ICC)	$\alpha \geq 0.75$	(Shrout & Fleiss, 1979, p. 426)
interrater reliability	Krippendorff's alpha	$\alpha \geq 0.80$	(Krippendorff, 2004, p. 241)

In order to answer the third and fourth research questions, in December 2019 and January 2020 I conducted semi-structured interviews with the four raters and the head of the program. Although I had a set of questions prepared beforehand (See Appendix D), I let the interviewees divert me by the ideas they brought in during the interviews, in three cases in face-to-face situations, when the interviews were recorded then transcribed; in one case the answers were written up by the respondent and sent in an email. The length of the oral interviews was between 20 and 65 minutes, depending on the verbosity of the respondents.

The interview with the head of the program, also in January 2020, was less structured. He had never acted as an assessor of students' translations, however, as a teacher and practising translator he offered to give his overall opinion of the program, the assessment scale and also some ideas on how to make it better. As he did not like the idea of recording him, I took hand-written notes of what he said.

5.4.4 Results and discussion: the translations

As the 32 translations included the raters' grades and the number of the identified errors it was not difficult to construct tables with the raw scores and the grades given by two raters for 16 TT's two translations, and to include the final grades – the mean of the two grades given by the two raters individually (Tables 45, 55).

The assessment tool was the scale – or rather a list of errors – described in the previous section (5.3), comprising major (H) and minor (h) errors. Table 35 shows how many of each error type the individual test-takers (TT) made and after counting and adding up these errors what grade they got for their translations. Those students, who failed, because both raters gave them a grade 1 (fail) for the same component (HU-EN or EN-HU), could re-sit the exam. Re-sit results are shown in brackets in Tables 45 and 55.

To answer RQ1 ‘How does the rating scale work in terms of inter-rater reliability”, first I examined the 16 HU-EN, then the 16 EN-HU translations. I compared the numbers of the identified errors, both major and minor, and also the grades by the two raters. To provide further evidence, I identified examples where the raters, following the same scale, judged the mistakes differently.

A) English – Hungarian translations: inter-rater reliability

Table 45
Raw scores (H; h) and grades given by two raters for 16 test-takers' EN-HU translation tests

Test-taker (TT)	EN-HU Rater 1			Rater 2		
	H	**h**	**Grade**	**H**	**h**	**Grade**
TT1	2	11	3	1	9	4
TT2	4	11	1, (3)	7	16	1, (3)4
TT3	3	2	3	11	8	1
TT4	2	2	4	2	6	4
TT5	1	4	5	2	5	4
TT6	0	8	5	0	9	5
TT7	0	5	5	6	8	1
TT8	4	6	2	3	7	2
TT9	8	7	1, (2)	6	14	1, (1)
TT10	1	6	5	4	6	2
TT11	7	8	1, (2)	6	9	1, (2)
TT12	4	2	2	4	8	1
TT13	3	6	3	2	11	3
TT14	3	5	3	3	12	2
TT15	3	3	3	2	8	3
TT16	3	4	3	6	6	1
Total	**49**	**90**		**65**	**142**	
Mean	**3.00**	**5.63**	**3.06**	**4.06**	**8.88**	**2.25**
SD	**2.191**	**2.872**	**1.436**	**2.792**	**3.030**	**1.390**

To analyze the data, and to compute the most important coefficients of measurement (see Table 44) I used SPSS. As the grades were calculated by the raters by counting and adding up the numbers of errors at two levels (major/minor errors; H/h), I wanted to see the level of agreement between the two raters concerning errors. Although the huge difference between the total number of identified errors can be seen immediately (49 vs. 65 in case of major H; 90 vs. 142 in case of minor errors h), I looked for statistical proof. First, I identified the frequencies of the different scores (number of identified errors) by the two raters.

Table 46 shows the frequency of major errors (H) identified by each rater in the Hungarian – English translations assessed.

Table 46
The SPSS frequency statistics for inter-rater reliability in the judgment of major errors in EN-HU translations (N=16)

Frequency of major errors (H) in EN-HU translations				
	Rater 1		**Rater 2**	
Number of Hs	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
0	2	12.5	1	6.3
1	2	12.5	1	6.3
2	2	12.5	4	25
3	5	31.3	2	12.5
4	3	18.8	2	12.5
6	0	0	4	25
7	1	6.3	1	6.3
8	1	6.3	0	0
11	0	0	1	6.3
Mean	**3,00**		**4,06**	
SD	**2,191**		**2,792**	

The highest number of major errors identified by Rater 1 in one text (TT9) was eight, whereas by Rater 2, also in one test (TT3), was eleven. Standard deviation (SD) expresses by how much the members of a group differ from the mean value for the group. In the case of Rater 1 the SD was 2.191, whereas in the case of Rater 2 it was 2.792, both are much higher than 1.0, indicating very high variation. The difference between the two means (3.0; 4.06) was also large, which, concerning major errors indicated considerable disagreement between the two raters. The Cronbach's alpha, the measure of internal consistency of scale reliability (also calculated in SPSS) was 0.541, much lower than the acceptable $\alpha \geq 0.75$ (Crocker & Algina, 2006, p.142). The Intra-class Correlation Coefficient (ICC), another important measure of internal consistency of scale reliability and the degree of agreement between two (or more) raters with the minimum acceptable value of 0.75 (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979, p. 426) was 0.522, indicating poor reliability. Krippendorff's alpha, which is regarded to be the most general agreement measure was 0.4536, compared to the required $\alpha \geq 0.80$ or the lowest conceivable $\alpha \geq 667$ limit (Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007; Krippendorff, 2004, p. 241). These numbers indicated that there was slight agreement between the two raters' judgements concerning major errors in the 16 texts they scored.

Table 47
The SPSS frequency statistics for inter-rater reliability in the judgment of minor errors (h) in 16 EN-HU translations (N=16)

Frequency of minor errors (h) in EN-HU translations				
	Rater 1		**Rater 2**	
Number of 'h's	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
2	3	18.8	0	0
3	1	6.3	0	0
4	2	12.5	0	0
5	2	12.5	1	6.3
6	3	18.8	3	18.8
7	1	6.3	1	6.3
8	2	12.5	4	25
9	0	0	3	18.8
11	2	12.5	1	6.3
12	0	0	1	6.3
14	0	0	1	6.3
16	0	0	1	6.3
Mean	5.63		8.88	
SD	2.872		3.030	

The disagreement in measuring the errors was even more obvious in the case of minor errors (Table 47). The statistics showed that the range of the number of minor errors per translation was between 2 and 11 by Rater 1, whereas between 5 and 16 by Rater 2. The high SD indices (2.872 and 3.030) indicated a large spread of identified errors by both raters. The reliability statistics of 0.724 Cronbach's alpha was very close to the unacceptable value (< 0.70). The ICC value was 0.529, the Krippendorff's alpha 0.1718, indicating a low agreement between the two raters' scores.

It is also interesting to look up a few examples where the raters judged the mistakes differently (Table 48). Although they followed the same scale, there were no translations in which the two types of errors were assessed in the same way: an error coded as an 'H' for one rater, was 'h' or no error for the other. For example, in the case of TT7, Rater 1 identified zero major (H) and five minor (h) errors resulting in a grade 5 (excellent), whereas Rater 2 marked six major (H) and eight minor (h) errors, resulting in a grade 1 (fail).

Table 48
Translations from English into Hungarian (EN – HU): Examples for differences in R1's and R2's coding of errors

Source text (EN)	**Translation (HU)**	**Rater 1**	**Rater 2**
after enjoying	miután élvezte	H	correct
---	valóban	H	correct
Herne wrote	melyben írta	H	h
cultural critic	kultúrakritikus	h	correct
They are new to me.	Én még sosem találkoztam velük.	H	correct
The events occurred in this way.	Így történt mindez.	h	correct
he sent the poet a letter	válaszolt a levelére	correct	H
the play relocated	előadást áthelyezték	h	correct
was far-fetched, to say the least	kósza ötletnek is alig volt mondható	H	correct
actor and playwright	drámaíró-színész	correct	h
to date	a mai napig	correct	H
for mentoring	mentorálásáról	h	correct
the most authoritative	legiránymutatóbb	correct	h
latest book	verseskötet	h	correct
review	elbírálja azt	h	correct
a copy of your poems	az ön verseskötetének egy példánya	correct	h
epitomized	tömören összefoglalták	correct	H
epitomized	szimbolizálták	h	correct
by a Mr. Childs	Mr. Childs nevű úrnál	correct	H
would review the book	kiadja a könyvet	H	correct

The final analysis in this part compared the grades given by the two raters (see Table 45). In case of translations from English into Hungarian, only eight of the sixteen students (TTs 2, 4, 6, 8, 9, 11, 13, 15; 50%) were given the same grade by the two raters. In the most extreme case (TT7) Rater 1 assessed the translation a grade 5 (excellent), whereas Rater 2 failed the same translation.

Table 49 shows the frequency of the grades given by the raters for the same translations (EN-HU) and their most important statistical characteristics. The means differ largely: 3.06 vs. 2.25; the difference between them is 0.81, nearly one grade, and if we look at the individual grades, we can also see considerable disagreements between the two raters.

Standard deviation (SD) in case of Rater 1 was 1.43, whereas in case of Rater 2 1.39; both indicating a relatively high variation.

Table 49

The SPSS frequency statistics for inter-rater reliability of the grades given by the two raters for EN-HU translations (N=16)

Grade frequency, Means, Standard Deviation (SD)				
	Rater 1		**Rater 2**	
Grade	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	3	18.8	7	43.8
2	2	12.5	3	18.8
3	6	37.5	2	12.5
4	1	6.3	3	18.8
5	4	25	1	6.3
Total	16	100	16	100
Mean	3.06		2.25	
SD	1.436		1.390	

The Cronbach's Alpha was 0.717: barely higher than the acceptable 0.70. The Intra-class Correlation Coefficient was 0.659, definitely higher than in the case of error identification, however, as it was still below 0.75, indicating just moderate reliability. The 0.4605 Krippendorff alpha also remained well below the "still conceivable limit" of 0.667 (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 241). All this is expressed in the final grades, as well: Rater 1 failed three students 18.8%), Rater 2 seven (43.8%), indicating the highest disagreement between the grades.

B) Translations from Hungarian into English

Translating from Hungarian into English, according to the data presented in Part I, 3.7.5 is more difficult for the students than into the mother tongue. This finding was partly confirmed by the means of the grades of exam translations, 3.06 by Rater 1 and 2.25 by Rater 2 in case of EN-HU translations, and 2.56 by Rater 3 and 2.75 by Rater 4 in case of HU-EN translations (Table 50).

Table 50
Raw scores and grades given by two raters for 16 test-takers' HU-EN translation test (N=16)

	HU-EN					
Test-taker (TT)	**Rater 3**			**Rater 4**		
	H	**h**	**Grade**	**H**	**h**	**Grade**
TT1	4	5	2	4	21	1
TT2	4	5	2	1	14	3
TT3	1	8	4	1	6	5
TT4	4	8	2	2	13	2
TT5	2	6	4	1	5	5
TT6	1	2	5	1	7	4
TT7	0	6	5	0	8	5
TT8	6	13	1	1	24	2
TT9	11	7	1	3	21	1
TT10	5	5	2	3	11	3
TT11	8	7	1	8	18	1
TT12	5	6	2	2	16	2
TT13	13	8	1(1)	9	19	1(1)
TT14	3	11	2	0	19	3
TT15	0	3	5	0	12	4
TT16	5	3	2	3	16	2
Mean	4.50	6.44	2.56	2.44	14.38	2.75
SD	3.688	2.851	1.504	2.658	5.852	1.483
Total	72	91	2.56	39	230	2.75

To examine the degree of agreement between the two raters concerning the translations from Hungarian into English, I repeated the steps I had followed with the translations from English into Hungarian. The frequency statistics (Table 51) here confirmed that the differences in identifying the major errors, compared to the other direction, were not as large between the two assessors.

Although there was a considerable difference between the means of the identified major errors (4.50; 2.44), the 0.858 Cronbach's alpha, being higher than 0.70, and the 0.774 ICC indicated much better reliability in this respect. However, the Krippendorff alpha with its law value, 0.5686, much lower than the acceptable 0.80, still indicated poor inter-rater reliability.

Table 51
The SPSS frequency statistics for inter-rater reliability in the judgment of major errors (H) in HU–EN translations (N=16)

	Frequency of major errors (H) in HU-EN translations			
	Rater 3		**Rater 4**	
Number of 'H's	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
0	2	12.5	3	18.8
1	2	12.5	5	31.3
2	1	6.3	2	12.5
3	1	6.3	3	18.8
4	3	18.8	1	6.3
5	3	18.8	0	0
6	1	6.3	0	0
8	1	6.3	1	6.3
9	0	0	1	6.3
11	1	6.3	0	0
13	1	6.3	0	0
Mean	4.50		2.44	
SD	3.688		2.658	

Table 52 presents the judgment of minor errors by the two raters, showing huge difference in means (6.44 vs. 14.38), and also in SD values (2.851 vs. 5.852) which predicted poor reliability indices again. The prediction was confirmed by the statistics: the 0.546 Cronbach's alpha (>0.70: unacceptable reliability), a similarly very low, 0.266 ICC and an extremely low, –0.2170 Krippendorff's alpha, indicating a very low level of agreement between the two raters. How the same instrument could work so differently concerning error identification and error coding could be the topic of another research. Think aloud protocol could offer evidence on how the raters made their decisions, but such qualitative data were not collected. However, this level of disagreement raises questions about the raters' responsible use of the rating scale.

Table 52
The frequency statistics for inter-rater reliability concerning minor errors (h) in HU–EN translations (N=16)

Frequency of minor errors (h) in HU-EN translations				
	Rater 3		Rater 4	
Number of 'h's	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
2	1	6.3	0	0
3	2	12.5	0	0
4	0	0	0	0
5	3	18.8	1	6.3
6	3	18.8	1	6.3
7	2	12.5	1	6.3
8	3	18.8	1	6.3
11	1	6.3	1	6.3
12	0	0	1	6.3
13	1	6.3	1	6.3
14	0	0	1	6.3
16	0	0	2	12.5
18	0	0	1	6.3
19	0	0	2	12.5
21	0	0	2	12.5
24	0	0	1	6.3
Mean	6.44		14.38	
SD	2.851		5.852	

The controversial coding is confirmed by the list included in Table 53, which contains examples for differences in R3 and R4's coding of errors in the 16 translations. Among the twenty items in the list there are seven cases, when the same translation was judged as a major error by one rater, and as a correct translation by the other.

Table 53
Translations from Hungarian into English (HU-EN): Examples for differences in R1 and R2's coding of errors

Source text (HU)	**Translation (EN)**	**Rater 3**	**Rater 4**
országértékelés	national account	h	H
fejezte be	ended	correct	h
nagyarányú lehívása	large scale calling	H	correct
nagyarányú lehívása	the high rate of absorption	H	correct
nagyarányú lehívása	large scale call off	H	correct

elemzés készítői	conductors of the analysis	H	h
hitelezése	the lending of	correct	H
ország	nation	correct	h
tovább zsugorodott	shrunk further	H (tense)	correct
bekövetkezett	occurred	H	correct
intézkedések	arrangements	H	h
erőteljesen	heartily	H	h
állami szektor	national sector	h	H
arány	ratio	correct	H
elemzés készítői	evaluators	correct	h
horgonyozottnak tűnnek	seem fixed	h	correct
legfrissebb	newest	correct	h
pozitívumként jelenik meg	lists as positive	H	h
hitelezése	supply of credit	correct	h
mérséklődhet	can moderate	H	correct

The agreement in calculating the final grades (Table 54), despite the huge differences in identifying the different types (levels) of errors turned out to be good. There is only a slight difference between the means (2.56 vs. 2.75), showing that R4 was the more permisseive rater. The SD values also show similar spread.

Table 54
The SPSS frequency statistics for inter-rater reliability of the grades given by the two raters for HU-EN translations (N=16)

Grade frequency, Means, Standard Deviation (SD)				
	Rater 3		Rater 4	
Grade	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	4	25.0	4	25.0
2	7	43.8	4	25.0
3	0	0	3	18.8
4	2	12.5	2	12.5
5	3	18.8	3	18.8
Total	16	100	16	100
Mean	2.56		2.75	
SD	1.504		1.483	

Both the 0.933 Cronbach's alpha, which, being close to 1, expressed high similarity of scores and the 0.933 ICC indicated good reliability concerning the grades. As the frequencies in

Table 54 show, the two raters differed only on gardes 2 and 3: Rater 3 was stricter than Rater 4. The Krippendorff's alpha with its 0.8377 indicated a much better inter-rater reliability than in the case of major and minor errors.

The final grades were calculated by rounding the means of the four grades given by the two pairs of raters for the two (EN-HU; HU-EN) translations. Those students, who failed by the two raters in any of the two components failed the exam, as well as those who could not meet the requirements of grade 2 in the re-sit test (its grades are shown in brackets in Table 55). Although each scoring had to be done independently of the others, when calculating the final grades, the raters can pull each other one way or another, arriving at a consensus, and in the case of extreme disagreement between the raters a third assessor can be included (Angelelli, 2009; Eyckmans et *al*., 2009).

Table 55 *Grades given by the raters for the two components and the final grades*

	EN-HU		HU-EN		
Test-takers	**R 1**	**R2**	**R3**	**R4**	**Final grade**
TT1	3	4	2	1	2
TT2	1 (3)	1 (3)	2	3	1 (3)
TT3	3	1	4	5	4
TT4	4	4	2	2	4
TT5	5	4	4	5	5
TT6	5	5	5	4	5
TT7	5	1	5	5	5
TT8	2	2	1	2	2
TT9	1(2)	1(1)	1	1	1
TT10	5	2	2	3	3
TT11	1(2)	1(2)	1	1	1
TT12	2	1	2	2	2
TT13	3	3	1(1)	1(1)	1
TT14	3	2	2	3	3
TT15	3	3	5	4	4
TT16	3	1	2	2	2
Mean	3.06	2.25	2.56	2.75	2.81
SD	1.436	1.390	1.504	1.483	

The findings of the analysis, illustrated in Tables 45 – 55, indicate extremely low inter-rater reliability, which can be attributed to the poorly designed assessment tool, or, to another possibility, the inconsistent work of the evaluators, or a combination of both. As is was detailed in Section 5.3, the scale in use is an analytical scale, which is based on identifying and listing the errors at levels, categorized here as major errors (H) and minor errors (h). The grades the students get in the end of the exam is the rounded mean of four grades, given by two pairs of raters for each component (EN-HU and HU-EN translations).

There is another factor, which should be mentioned: the nature of the error based assessment, which, from the students' perspective, is extremely demotivating; whereas from the raters' point of view, concentrating on and counting errors reveals only what candidates cannot do, while what they can, may remain unnoticed. Also, the raters, when focusing on error counting and categorizing, that is distinguishing the levels of errors, can arrive at completely, often contradictory, even conflicting categorizations. The reasons must be in the nature of the scale, which, as it has been already established, leaves room for subjective judgments in assessment (Angelelli, 2009; Eyckmans et *al*., 2009).

C) Rater's consistency in the coding of errors

RQ2 inquired about how consistent the raters were in their assessment. To be able to answer this question, I compared the translations focusing on the error coding patterns of the individual raters. The findings showed that the consistency of error coding and grading by the four raters in the 32 translations was also low: several identical translations were scored differently by the same rater in translations from English into Hungarian (Table 56).

Table 56
Translations from English into Hungarian (EN – HU): Examples for inconsistent error coding by the same rater

The translated item	**The occurrence of the item in the 16 translations**	**Rater's judgment (H, h, correct)**	
szerepelt	9	H	-
		h	in 5 translations
		correct	in 4 translations
kultúrakritikus	7	H	in 1 translation
		h	-
		correct	in 6 translations
amerikai irodalom dékánja	3	H	in 2 translations
		h	-
		correct	in 1 translation
másolat	5	H	in 2 translations
		h	-
		correct	in 3 translations
példány	5	H	in 1 translation
		h	in 1 translation
		correct	in 3 translations

Table 57

Translations from Hungarian into English (HU – EN): Examples for inconsistent error coding by the same rater

The translated item	The occurrence of the item in the 16 translations	Rater's judgment (H, h, correct)	
so far	5	H h correct	- in 1 translation in 4 translations
goal	5	H h correct	- in 2 translations in 3 translation
fiscal relaxation	4	H h correct	- in 2 translations in 2 translations
arrangements	3	H h correct	in 2 translations in 1 translation -
moderate	2	H h correct	in 1 translation in 1 translation -

The listed examples and results irrefutably show that validity and reliability are essential features of an assessment tool. If they are low, the tool will not fulfill its aim, and, even if the raters can get to any kind of agreement, it will hinder fair grading.

5.4.5 Results and discussion: the teacher-rater interviews

This section aims to answer research questions 3 and 4. RQ3 focused on how the raters evaluated the assessment system they applied to assess translation students' work. How did they explain the low inter-rater reliability of the tool they had been using for years? What was behind their own inconsistency in the coding of errors? RQ4 aimed to find out what modifications the raters would recommend for making the tool more appropriate for assessing the quality of translations and students' translation competence. I hoped to find the answers in the interviews I conducted with 4 raters and the head of the Translation Studies BA programme, as well as for

A) Interview with the head of the translation program

The head of the translation program was well acquainted with the assessment scale, although he had never acted as a marker of translation examinations. He described himself as a linguist *and* a self- taught translator with considerable experience in the field. He earned a translator's certificate at ELTE University, otherwise he would not have been able to work for companies as a translator. As a practicing translator, he relied on what he learnt by himself. Concerning translation assessment, he emphasized he most often acted “as a judge in case of controversial grading”, he agreed to answer my questions about the assessment policy applied at the translation specialization program at the University of Pécs.

Q1 What does a teacher have to take into consideration when assessing students’ translation performance?

Although he gave a long, elaborated answer, it was relatively easy to identify the surfacing factors:

- the students’ preliminary studies and their English proficiency level;
- the teachers, including their qualifications;
- the course and the course requirements;
- the assignments;
- the different forms of assessment applied by the teachers.

Q2 How would you describe the translation students’ target language (English) proficiency level?

Speaking from experience he said that students entered the translation courses linguistically unprepared. They have very poor and very simple vocabulary, serious grammatical problems and practically zero cultural knowledge of the target language. There is no way they could cope with equivalency problems when doing translations from one language into the other. His negative perceptions were confirmed in the interviews with Rater 2 and Rater 3, however, in contrast with what the students claimed about their English language proficiency level as the majority placed themselves at C1 or C2 level. They are clearly not, which makes meeting the course requirements (listed in the syllabi section) difficult, sometimes even impossible, and results in poor performance.

Q3 How would you explain that teachers, using the same assessment scale, see and code errors differently, inconsistently, arriving at exteremely low inter-rater reliability?

The program director identified a few reasons which can explain the differences in raters’ judgement. Using his own words,

- the teachers are not qualified translators, although all of them have considerable experience as translators;

- their formal qualifications are in linguistics and literature, as a result, they put emphasis on different aspects;
- even using the same assessment sheet to score translations, they might judge texts differently, and as a result, they rarely arrive at the same grade.

Q4 Do you think the courses prepare the student for their final translation exam?

Concerning the course and the course requirements, the program director confirmed what we may know from the syllabi (and from the teachers, too), that the number one activity the students do is translating different texts. They start working on a text in class, finish the translation at home and in the next class they discuss it; this is the typical practice followed by the four teachers I interviewed. The director described it as a procedure teaching the students what qualifies as a *major* or a *minor error*, and as a result, they can develop strategies to avoid them. However, this practice does not improve the lexical richness of their translations and does not teach them to move consciously along the so called equivalency level, i. e. finding the most appropriate word or expression in the target language for each word or expression in the source text. He thought this strong focus on errors can even turn out to be counter-productive or de-motivating in the end.

Q5 So you think the students are not really prepared to translate the texts they are given in classes?

The assignments, as it stated in the syllabi, too, are most often authentic texts: articles from major British and American daily papers or professional (legal, economic, etc.) journals. The director described them as extremely difficult texts for students with poor vocabulary, with no proper knowledge of the social, cultural, historic, legal or economic aspects of the target language country. Although they can use anything when they translate, including the exam situations, even the allocated six-hour time span is too short for them to look up everything they do not know. “The bar is too high for them”, said the director, using an expression from sporting life.

Q6 What you have just said means that your colleauges have to assess translations of poor quality. Do you think the assessment sheet they use meets the requirements of a fair assessment tool?

Answering this question, the director emphasized the scale’s shortcomings. Although it defined the nature of different errors and mistakes, the definitions in his opinion were too vague or permissive: expressions like uncultured language use, visible lack of practice in written communication, arbitrary change in the logical order of the source language leave a lot of place to subjective decisions. He mentioned examples for errors which root in taking the scale criteria too literally, when even a good solution can be judged as a mistake. He gave an example from an event when he acted as a “judge”. The source text said that “According to *Nature*, this finding is…” which, in his opinion, easily can appear in Hungarian translation as “A *Nature* folyóirat szerint ez a megállapítás…” However, the word “folyóirat” is not part of the original text, so it can be treated as an unnecessary addition, which, according to the scale, is a major error. However, “it does not impair the message, just the opposite – it makes it more precise for those who do not know what *Nature* is. It could be even treated as an excellent solution, but such option is not part of the scale.”

B) Interviews with the raters on the assessment system used in the transéation programme

The interviews were conducted in December 2019 and January 2020. I planned to ask eleven questions about the evaluation scale, but the interviewees, one female and three males, turned out to be quite talkative, so sometimes we wandered off, well beyond the narrow topic, so the planned semi-structure interviews turned out to be rather unstructured in two cases (Raters 2 and 3). Raters 1, 2 and 4 also acted as assessors of translations discussed in section 5.4.4. Although Rater 3 did not take part im the exam in focus, he offered his opinion on the assessment system in use.

In this section I analyse the four raters’ answers by the questions asked, not one by one. To show the similarities and differences between the four raters’ responses, I identified the keywords which are presented in Table 57.

Q1 How often and how do you assess your students during the term in your translation studies classes?

The first question aimed to elicit information on the frequency and the methods of assessment during the term. Rater 1 (R1) and Rater 2 (R2) said they assessed their students’ work once a week, as they had weekly assignments. Rater 3 (R3) assessed them “every time the students had assignments”, which is good, because students got feedback on all of their translations; Rater 4 (R4) assessed translations on 7-8 occasions a term. In case of R1, R2 and R4 the source text was sent to the students via NEPTUN, the university’s electronic administrative system, and the translations into the target language were expected to be sent back the same way. R3 asked the assignemnets in printed form, so he could mark the mistakes "in crying red".

After receiving the texts from students, teachers applied different techniques. R1 identified the errors in the translations, prepared a list for the next class, and projected them in class with the aim of discussing error types and correct solutions, thus providing feedback to the whole group at the same time. R2 used a random integer generator to decide whose translation to project in-class. The other students looked at their own translations, while someone – usually the teacher – read the source text aloud, and the students compared the upcoming solutions: they identified the errors or mistranslations, good turns, etc. This meant that they discussed one translation. The students checked their own errors, made the necessary corrections, so they implemented assessment and practice in an integrated fashion: the translations were checked, but not graded, except the projected one. If it met the expectations, its translator could choose to be graded.

In R4's practice, in each class a student presented their translation, the group discussed the problems they encountered, and they collectively came up with better solutions. The presentation was assessed on a 0-20 scale, based on the quality of the presentation, the translation and the effort. The students' grades were based on two major translations and a revision of a chosen translation. Working in pairs, they had to revise each other's translations, as well.

R3 used an entirely different method of assessment, the rather old fashioned, however, he argued, very effective way of using red ink to correct double spaced, printed translation assignments. "I am convinced this is the most straightforward and effective way to draw their attention to their mistakes. I need double spacing, so I could make my notes right next to the identified error." In this way each student got immediate written feedback. The students could see their own mistakes immediately in this assessment based on errors, but in the discussion the errors were handled as the group's errors. "I do not mention names, so nobody gets hurt. They can see their errors anyway, so they can learn from them." They also discussed the solutions for the critical elements of the text and agreed on the acceptable ones.

Q2 What is your aim of assessment in translation classes?

The four tutors' aims basically were in accordance with their answers to the first question. The main aim of the in-term evaluations was to give the students feedback and grades, and also to equip the students with strategies to make responsible choices. R1 and R2 also applied these strategies to allow their students to get used to the evaluation system along which their exam translations would be assessed. The most typical answers included:

- "The main aim is to avoid errors." (R1)
- "I want to make my students familiar with the level they have to achieve as translators and give them feedback about their work." (R2)
- "My aim was to give individual feedback in written form, pointing out the individual errors. It was always personal. In case of oral feedback in class I addressed the errors in general, so the students did not have to be ashamed." (R3)
- "My primary aim is to give grades, and show if the students have difficulties with certain skills." (R4)

Q3 What criteria do you follow when you evaluate the written assignments?

Except for R3, they all used the criteria included in the evaluation sheet used for the assessment of exam translations. "In this way the students could also learn about these criteria, based on identifying major and minor errors in their translations", said R1. R2 added that although he used it, the focus was on different elements in the different classes he taught: in case of IT specific texts he focused on the appropriate use of special terminology, whereas in case of social science texts, he emphasized conceptual accuracy. R3, the oldest one of the four respondents, a native speaker of English, relied on his knowledge, instinct and experience and the transmission of the original message into the target language. R4 used the evaluation sheet throughout the year, but he did not point out any specific reasons.

Q4 What do you consider important in your assessment?

In response to this question, the two things all four raters mentioned was language use and accuracy. R1, who took the rating sheet the most seriously, also focused on the errors and the appropriateness of the translated text. R2 was the only one who found time management a factor worth mentioning: translators had to meet deadlines; therefore, he assessed only those translations which were sent back to him by the submission deadline. R3 emphasized the importance of richness and variety of vocabulary. R4, in addition to language use, concentrated on the content and added a holistic approach to his error sheet-based evaluation technique.

Q5 Do you use any evaluation grids or rating scales? If yes, what is it like?

Three of the raters (R1, R2 and R4) used the exam sheet to assess assignments during the term, that is for diagnostic purposes. They used it the same way they were expected to apply it to assess exam translations. Only R2 adjusted it to the specific nature of the subjects he taught, putting emphasis on the subject specific elements. He also found it permissive, as in his view, it allowed too many major errors, especially compared to the short length (ca. 2,000 characters) of the texts. R3 never used grids or scales for assessments during the semester; he relied on the method of collective discussion.

Q6 How do you grade your students' work?

They graded their students as it was set in the course syllabi, in the most cases they used three criteria: course participation (25%), the grades for the home assignments (25%), end-of-term test (50%). R2 included the results of a mid-term test.

Q7 Although I understand that the final translation exam was cancelled a few semesters ago, I am interested in your opinion on the assessment scale that was used for exam translations.

All four raters found it important to state that the translation exam was cancelled because it put the students at a disadvantage compared to those BA students who decided to choose a minor and not a specialization. The TS exams were very difficult, and those who failed were prevented from getting their BA degree. The change, however, did not impact the usual pattern: the students are evaluated based on their weekly assignments and the other criteria which are set down in the course syllabi. For assessing students' assignments R1 continued to use the common assessment scale, which she described as fair, "because it makes difference between the different levels of error". She also identified a shortcoming: "it does not offer extra points for outstanding solutions, for example, in word choice, which, I think, could be a motivating aspect in an assessment scale."

R2 also uses the exam assessment scale, which he described as the slightly modified version of the assessment sheet used at ELTE University. The criteria are not the same for the two directions, there is a slight difference: in case of translation from Hungarian into English it allows more major errors. The problem in R2's opinion is that "it is not subject-specific, although the different text types – IT specific texts, social science texts and business texts – should be assessed according to different criteria". The assessment method offered by the scale is good for assessing grammar, but it lacks the criteria which could assess conceptual or subject-specific elements. It also has subjective aspects and, as he kept emphasizing, allows too many errors to pass. R3 has never used this scale, but is acquainted with it, and identified its main error in not stipulating the repeated errors, a caveat which can result in subjective decisions on part of the evaluators. R4 emphasized its demotivating nature, as it concentrates on mistakes, and does not reward creative or otherwise brilliant solutions.

Q8 How is the final test assessment different from the progress test evaluations?

The four raters agreed that there was a prominent difference: while progress testing always involves feedback (and might involve grades, but not necessarily), the only aim of the exam assessment is to give the students final grades. Otherwise, the evaluation process is the same in both cases.

Q 9 How does the exam assessment sheet meet your expectations? Is it appropriate in every respect in your opinion for assessing BA students' translations?

According to R1, it is a good aid in identifying major and minor errors, which are defined fairly well, but the definitions still allow subjective assessment. "Which is a major error for me, easily can be treated as a minor error by another rater." To counterbalance the sheet's demotivating effect, which roots in its error directed nature, R1 would welcome a component which allows rewarding excellent solutions. "Because there are brilliant solutions, which remain unrewarded", she explained.

R2 agreed that the definitions of major and minor errors are not always clear, so they can be treated differently by different markers. In seminars, it is a useful tool to show what students lack in knowledge, what they have to pay special attention to, including typical errors, so it is good for diagnostic purposes. As for the final test, R2 found it permissive: the number of errors it allows is intolerable in his opinion. "We should not give a 5 to someone who makes a major mistake. If the translation is not flowless, it is not 5." R3 also emphasized the fact that the scale allowed the raters to judge major and minor errors differently, whereas R4 stated that it was good at BA level, an appropriate tool as it was detailed enough to find out if a translation is at the required level or not.

Q10 What are the difficulties/challenges of using it?

All four raters agreed that it is easy to follow, although it has certain caveats. R1 thought it defined the major errors very strictly. R2, on the other hand, said the pass level was very low, due to the high number of mistakes allowed in the rating scale. His other problem was that "the possible errors are not defined clearly, there can be considerable differences between the grades given by the two raters. The other thing is that the scale does not specify how repeated errors should be scored: if markers do not agree about treating them beforehand, they might count them differently". He, similarly to the others, mentioned that the scale did not allow markers to give extra points for brilliant solutions, although he did not see it as a major problem: "one or two brilliant choices would not erase the serious errors". R3, in full agreement with R4, also saw the greatest difficulty in the fact that it did not define how to treat recurring errors and how to reward good solutions or creativity, which is necessary, for example, in translating idiomatic expressions.

Q11 What modifications would you recommend and why to make the scale more appropriate for your purposes?

The modifications the raters would welcome are all connected to the options or elements they miss from the scale: an option to give extra points for creativity and excellent solutions; to include text-specific or genre-specific criteria with emphasis on terminology, especially emphasized by R2.

R1 would welcome a scale, which, unlike the list of errors they use, concentrates on what the students know. "There are only errors, errors and errors in it. I do not say it does not work, but not rewarding the students' knowledge is demotivating."

R3 thought that in case of differences in final grades, the two raters should sit down for a think aloud session and try to negotiate a grade which satisfies both of them, or if it is impossible, a third party should be involved.

R4 also disliked the error-centeredness of the scale in use. "Extra points should be given for outstanding solutions, which could lower the final number of errors. Counting only the errors demotivates the students on the long run."

Table 57 was constructed to show the four raters' opinion of the assessment system applied in the translation program next to each other, grouped according the sequence of the interview questions.

Table 58 *The raters' opinions of the assessment system applied in the translation program*

Questions / Raters	**R1**	**R2**	**R3**	**R4**
1a How often?	once a week	from week to week	every time students had an assignment	7-8 occasions / term
1b How?	by projecting the earlier identified errors, discussing solutions	by projecting one translation, comparing and discussing different solutions	by paper-and-pen method, using red ink; comparing and discussing solutions	by the presentation of a translation each class; discussing hardships; coming up with solutions
2 The aim	to give feedback; to give grades; to see good solutions; to drill the students to learn how the evaluation sheet works; to help the students make responsible choices	to give feedback; to give grades; to replace mistakes with good solutions; to instruct students to make responsible choices	to give feedback; to offer good solutions;	to give grades; to identify difficulties, shortcomings
3 The criteria	the criteria listed in the evaluation sheet	test specific criteria; major and minor errors, as defined in the evaluation sheet	knowledge, instinct and experience	criteria set down in the grading sheet
4 Focus on	language use; errors; the appropriateness of the translated texts	conceptual, terminological and grammatical accuracy; background knowledge; time management	language use: lexical richness, lexical variety; accuracy; equivalency; grammatical errors; creativity	content; language use
5 Use of evaluation grids	the exam sheet; basically good, but has some shortcomings	the exam sheet; permissive	does not use any grids or scales	the exam grid
6 Grading	adding up points, based on the grid	a three-component system: - mid-term test result - weekly assignment, - final test result	course participation plus weekly assignments	based on two major translations, a revision of a chosen translation,based on the evaluation sheet and expertise
7 Opinion on the scale in use	subjective; does not reward outstanding solutions	permissive; not subject specific; lacks the criteria to assess conceptual elements; does not regulate the treatment of repeated errors	does not stipulate the treatment of repeated errors; allows subjective decisions	concentrates on mistakes, which is demotivating

8 (a) Exam assessment vs. (b) during-the-term evaluation	(a) there is no feedback, just the grade; (b) detailed and immediate feedback	(a) giving feedback; (b) giving grades	(a) always contains feedback; (b) the assessment is based on set criteria	They happen in the same way, no difference.
9 How does the scale meet your expectations?	basically fair, some elements give place to subjective assessment; does not reward good solutions	definitions of major / minor errors are not always clear, can be interpreted differently; error-based; permits too many errors	useful, but allows the raters to judge differently	good at BA level; a sufficient tool; detailed enough to see if the student reaches the required level
10 Difficulties / challenges	easy to follow; defines the major errors very strictly; treating outstanding solutions	errors are not defined clearly, the result: differences between the grades given by the two raters; no direction how to treat repeated errors or brilliant solutions	does not define how to treat repeated errors or how to reward creativity	does not stipulate the case of repeated errors; does not leave place for giving extra points
11 Suggested modifications	including an option for extra points	including text / genre specific criteria; stipulating the treatment of repeated errors	a thinking aloud session; involving a third party; stipulating the treatment of repeated errors	extra points for outstanding solutions; stipulating the treatment of repeated errors

5.4.6 Summary

This preliminary study served the purpose to examine the reliability of the assessment scale used for assessing exam translations in the Translation Studies Program at the Institute of English Studies, University of Pécs. As was detailed in Section 5.3, this is an analytical scale, which is based on identifying and listing the errors at two levels, categorized here as major errors (H) and minor errors (h). The grades the students get at the end of the exam is the rounded mean of four grades, given by two pairs of raters for each component (EN-HU and HU-EN translations).

In order to answer research questions (1) How the rating scale in use performed in terms of inter-rater reliability? and (2) How consistent the raters were in their assessment I examined 16 exam translations from English to Hungarian and 16 translations from Hungarian to English, each assessed by two raters independently. Although they used the same evaluation sheet, and followed the same criteria, there were considerable differences in their judgment concerning individual errors and the grades they gave the students in the end.

The findings of the analysis, presented in Tables 45 - 55 indicate low inter-rater reliability, which can be attributed to the poorly designed assessment tool, as well as the inconsistent use of the scale by the evaluators. There is another factor which should be mentioned: the nature of error based assessment, which, from the students' perspective, is extremely demotivating; as for the raters' perspective, concentrating on and counting errors reveals only what candidates do not know, while what they know, might remain unnoticed. Also, the raters, when focusing on error counting and categorizing, which involves differentiating between error levels, can arrive at completely, often contradictory, even conflicting results. The reasons must be looked for in the nature of the scale, which, as it has been already established, leaves room for subjective judgments in assessment (Angelelli, 2009; Eyckmans et *al*., 2009).

The situation is similar when we look at intra-rater reliability (a measure of how consistent an evaluator is at measuring a constant phenomenon) of the same assessment tool. Although the major and minor errors are defined in the scale, the definition in some cases is so permissive that even the same evaluator scores identical solutions differently in the texts he assesses. It means that two students, making the same mistakes, can get different grades because of the rater's inconsistent scoring.

What was found in the assessed translations was reinforced in the rater interviews, which were conducted in order to find answers to research questions 3 and 4. They aimed to see how raters evaluated the assessment system they applied to assess translation students' work, and what modifications they would recommend for making it more appropriate for assessing the quality of translation and students' translation competence.

The interviews underlined that the assessment scale in use did not meet the requirements of reliability in every respect. It contains elements which are permissive and give place to subjective judgment, and consequently, to unfair grading. It has other caveats: it does not stipulate the treatment of repeated errors and it does not allow giving extra points for creative or otherwise brilliant solutions. It concentrates on errors, which is de-motivating. Additionally, on the other hand, its pass level is extremely low, as it allows too many errors.

There is no perfect tool to assess translations, according to the four raters, in full agreement with the special literature. However, there are measures to improve validity and reliability. The next part of the chapter will focus on the "what" and "how" questions with the ultimate aim of offering a new and hopefully more reliable way to assess translations.

Chapter 6
Working towards a new assessment tool

"The challenge lies in devising an objective means to measure…"
(McNamara, Graesser, McCarthy, & Cai, 2014, p. 7)

6.1 Introduction

This part of the dissretation presents the steps of devising and adapting a new tool to assess translations. Different approaches and several instruments have been used in the previous decades, both holistic (Garant, 2009; Williams, 2013) and analytic ones (Eyckmans, Anckaert, & Segers, 2009; Martínez, 2014; Orlando, 2011); criterion referenced and norm referenced scales (Eyckmans, Segers, & Anckaert, 2012; Kockaert & Segers, 2017; Van Egdom et al., 2019), but all had their own caveats. The difficulties of their use can be explained by the nature of translation and also by the nature of the assessment instruments. The holistic approach looks at the text as a whole, not paying enough attention to the details listed in analytical scales and vice versa; the so called error lists usually turn out to be counter-productive or de-motivating for translation students (Garant, 2009). The main issue has been the elimination of subjectivity in assessments. The developers of the norm-referenced methods tried to find the "golden route", but their experiments have not resulted in an ultimate solution so far: the tool either turned out to be inadequate for practical use (CDI; Eyckmans et al., 2009; 2016), or it failed to discriminate as it had been expected (PIE; Kockaert & Segers, 2017).

Although it might seem to be a bold idea, relying on what I learnt from the relevant literature (Sections 5.1 and 5.2) and from the interviews with expert raters (Section 5.4.5), in this chapter I elaborate on the process of developing a new tool for assessing translations at university level. This process included several stages, starting with recruiting translation students to translate a business text from Hungarian into English and expert raters to assess the translations. Once the translations were collected, a preliminary study was conducted (see section 6.1, Study 4) to examine the lexical characteristics and the readability of the translated texts (see sections 6.1.1 – 6.1.5). The findings of this study were important in identifying the items for the assessment with the new tool, an adapted version of the method used by Kockaert and Segers (2017) Preselected Items Evaluation (PIE) I named PIER (PIE Revised) compared to the assessment scale currently used in the Translation Studies BAprogramme at the University of Pécs (discussed in section 5.3). Section 6.2, comprising Study 5 presents the steps of developing the new scale, PIER including the item-preselection and assessment processes, the analysis of assessment results by the two instruments (UP and PIER), the raters' evaluation of the new scale (PIER) compared to the one in use (UP) and, in the end, PIER's suitability to serve as a reliable tool for assessing translations.

6.2 Study 4: Lexical characteristics and readability of the translated texts chosen for assessment

The pervious chapters outlined the field of translation education in general in Hungary, with a special focus on the University of Pécs where the research for the present dissertation was conducted. My aim was to embrace the most important aspects that help L2 students become translators including their motivation and autonomy and the assessment of their work.

The inquiry conducted into how the heavily error-based assessment scale in use worked at the University of Pécs reported in Section 5.4 revealed poor applicability: low inter-rater reliability indicated serious validity issues. Studying the assessed translations, the raters' inconsistent identification of errors, and a comparison of their conflicting assessment scores prompted questions for further research. One area concerned the quality of the students' translations with an assessment system based on certain textual features established independently from the reviewers' judgements.

6.2.1 Research questions

The small-scale preliminary study for this purpose aimed to examine two important features of the translated texts translated from Hungarian into English:

(1) What are the most important lexical characteristics of BA students' HU-EN translations?
(2) What readability can be established for their texts?

The questions were challenging, because translating a specialized text in the field of economics required not only a high-level mastery in both languages, but a lot of background knowledge, as well, including precision in use of special terminology.

6.2.2 Participants

As this phase of the research project concurred with the restrictions connected to Covid-19, including lockdown regulations affecting universities and all public institutions, it was difficult to reach volunteers to participate in the study. Fourteen BA students translated a 271-word-long business text in the spring semester of 2019-2020: four of the 13 third-year students, and ten of the 15 second-year students (out of the 28 students representing the whole population in the study). They are coded as TT1, TT2, etc.

6.2.3 Data collection instruments and procedures

The students prepared the translations as an optional assignment during their distance instruction mode: they translated the texts at home and sent them to their teachers via email. After the deadline had expired (25 April 2020), the teachers forwarded the texts to my mailbox for analysis.

A well-written composition and a well-translated text make effective use of vocabulary (Laufer & Nation, 1995), which has huge effect on the readability of any text and also is a good predictor of translation quality. In order to examine lexical richness (how varied the words in the given text are) and lexical density (the ratio of content and function words) in the fourteen translations, as a first step, I prepared their Lexical Frequency Profile (LFP). To do this I used Tom Cobb's freely available software Compleat Lexical Tutor (Cobb, 2015). LFP shows the percentage of words a learner uses at different vocabulary frequency levels in writing (Laufer & Nation, 1995), which, in case of translations, largely depends on the vocabulary of the source texts. It is also seen as a measure of how vocabulary size is reflected in use. This reliable and valid measure of lexical richness in writing is useful for determining the factors that affect judgments of quality in writing (Laufer & Nation, 1995, p. 307), which is highly important in translations, and plays a crucial role in the readability of any text.

The comprehension difficulty of many documents, including legal, medical or business texts, employment agreements, etc., is often too high for a large percentage of the population, so the value of analyzing texts on difficulty of readability based on quantitative scales is high (McNamara et al., 2014). Having the appropriate tool to measure these features provides the required data in a user-friendly way. Coh-Metrix, which I used to acquire this data, is a freely available computational system, which was developed to measure cohesion, coherence and text difficulty at different levels of language and discourse, as an improved means of measuring English text readability for L2 readers (Crossley, Greenfield, &

McNamara, 2008). Readability is a feature of basic importance in case of translated texts, especially specialized translated texts, which must be exact, precise and comprehensible. In order to convey the message clearly, maximizing readability is a basic requirement in case of institutional translations (Lafaber, 2018).

6.2.4 Results and discussion

A) The Lexical Frequency Profile (LFP) of the fourteen translations

According to Nation (2006), 98% text coverage is needed to achieve adequate text comprehension. It means that there is only one unknown word for the reader in every 50 words. Other researchers (Carver, 1994) found that even that coverage is not sufficient; only few learners achieved adequate comprehension with 98% coverage, especially in case of non-fiction texts. Taking 98% as the ideal coverage, a 8,000 – 9,000 word family vocabulary size is needed for dealing with written general English texts. The greatest variation is most likely to happen in the first 1,000 (K1) words, and in the proper nouns, which typically together cover 78-81% of written general English text. The second 1,000 (K2) words cover 8-9 %, whereas rare (off-list) words cover 1-3% (Nation, 2006), and the ratio of AWL words amount to 10% (Coxhead, 2000).

Table 59 *The lexical frequency profile of the translated texts*

Test-taker	Number of words (Tokens)	K1 Words %	K2 words %	AWL words %	Off-list words %	Types	Type/Token ratio	Lexical density
TT1	327	72.12	7.27	11.52	9.09	164	0.52	0.58
TT2	334	69.74	6.58	14.14	9.54	162	0.56	0.62
TT3	302	70.41	7.40	13.31	8.88	180	0.56	0.61
TT4	356	71.91	5.34	14.61	8.15	159	0.56	0.60
TT5	311	70.75	6.92	12.26	10.06	177	0.58	0.60
TT6	370	72.13	7.38	12.84	7.65	175	0.52	0.57
TT7	359	68.54	7.17	15.26	9.03	165	0.50	0.62
TT8	318	72.12	5.09	14.75	8.04	183	0.54	0.59
TT9	343	70.55	6.12	13.99	9.33	173	0.53	0.60
TT10	317	72.41	5.96	12.85	8.78	164	0.54	0.58
TT11	300	69.05	5.44	15.31	10.20	162	0.56	0.65
TT12	311	70.75	6.92	12.26	10.06	177	0.58	0.60
TT13	340	69.08	5.78	14.74	10.40	180	0.54	0.58
TT14	358	73.35	7.97	10.71	7.97	195	0.56	0.60
Mean	**331**	**70.94**	**6.65**	**13.46**	**9.08**	**172**	**0.54**	**0.60**

The most important predictors of vocabulary richness, as well as the most telling indicatives of writing quality and translation style are lexical diversity (LD) and lexical density (Lehmann, 2014). Lexical diversity refers to the range of different words used in a text, with a greater range indicating higher diversity. The best-known LD index is the type-token ratio (TTR) (McCarthy & Jarvis, 2010). Lexical diversity, another predictor of lexical richness in general Englisgóh texts is expected to be between 61 and 62 % (Castello, 2008, p. 60). The findings of the lexicalal analysis of the 14 translations are presented in Table 59.

As Table 59 shows, the average length of the translated text was 331 words, compared to the 271 words of the source (Hungarian) text. The length of the translated texts varied considerably: the shortest translation consisted of 300 tokens, the longest one comprised 370 words. In contrast with Nation's findings of 78-81 % in general English texts, K1 words covered only the 70.94% of the tokens in the translations, whereas K2 words added a further 6.65%.. These being considerably lower than the ones defined in Nation's (Laufer & Nation, 1995; Nation, 2006) studies, together with the high ratio (13.46%) of academic words indicate that the text was specialized and predicted comprehension difficulties for readers, and also possible problems in translators' choices.

The calculated mean lexical variation indicated by the TTR of the examined texts showed average lexical variation for short texts (0.54), with the highest score (0.58) displayed by TT12, whereas the lowest one by TT7 (0.50). Lexical density (0.60) is also a good predictor of vocabulary richness: the number of content words shows the extent to which writers are making the fullest use of their available vocabulary knowledge (Laufer & Nation, 1995, p. 308). The highest lexical density value was found to be 0.65 in TT1, whereas the lowest one 0.57 characterized TT6's text. The relatively high mean ratio of content words (60%) may help text comprehension, but 13.46% of the content words in the translations belonged to the domain of academic vocabulary, which is not necessarily available either for a novice translator or to an average reader.

The key findings of the analyses concerning text lengths, text coverage data, means of lexical diversity and lexical density show that even the best coverage lagged well behind the ideal value (73.35 vs. Nation's 78-81%). The percentage of academic words (13.46 vs. Coxhead's average of 10%) was high, which might have caused extra difficulties in the translation process. Although the lexical diversity and lexical density values were close to the ideal ones, they did not offer information if the words would turn out to be correct or incorrect in the evaluation process.

B) Text difficulty and readability by Coh-Metrix

Although vocabulary is an essential element of text comprehension, there are other factors affecting readability. Accurately predicting the difficulty of reading texts in a second language, including translations, is important to educators, writers, and publishers alike (Crossley et al., 2008). Readability is also a useful indicator for those who want to assess written production in an L2, especially in case of holistic assessment, where one of the most important questions is how the text reads in the target language (Waddington, 2001). To examine these essential features I used Coh-Metrix (Graesser, McNamara, Louwerse, & Cai, 2004), which, in addition to surface components of language, aims to measure deeper and more global attributes, such as textual coherence, permitting detailed and accurate analysis of language to take place (Crossley et al., 2008; McNamara et al., 2014). It also includes more traditional formula, including Flesch Reading Ease (FRE) and Flesh-Kincaid Grade Level (FKGL).

The FRE test uses two surface-level variables to determine the readability score:

- the average length of sentences (measured by the number of words)
- the average number of syllables per word.

Then, it provides a score between 0 and 100 (Table 59). The higher the number, the easier the text is to read.

Table 60
The Flesh Reading Ease scores (From: https://linguapress.com/teachers/flesch-kincaid.htm)

Score	Notes
90-100	very easy to read, easily understood by an average 11-year-old student
80-90	easy to read
70-80	fairly easy to read
60-70	easily understood by 13- to 15-year-old students
50-60	fairly difficult to read
30-50	difficult to read, best understood by college graduates
0-30	very difficult to read, best understood by university graduates

The Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level test (FKGL) (Table 60) offers a scale developed through the re-calculation of three widespread reading ease formulas: ARI (Automated Readability Index), Fog and Flesch, each operating at surface level. Based on the idea that "reading material should be written at a level of difficulty appropriate to the reading ability of those reading it" (Kincaid, Fishburne Jr., Rogers, & Chissom, 1975, p. 20), this test rates texts according to US school grade level. Scores 0 to 6 assume basic, 7 to 10 average, 12 to 16 skilled, and above 16 academic readers. For most documents aim for a score of approximately 7 to 8, schooling age of 13 to 14 ensures that the content is comprehensible for approximately the 80% of American readers (Linney, 2017).

Table 61
Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level (From: https://linguapress.com/teachers/flesch-kincaid.htm)

Value	**School level**	**Student age range**
0-1	Kindergarten - 1st grade	3-7
1-5	1st grade - 5th grade	7-11
5-11	5th grade - 11th grade	11-17
11-18	11th grade - 18th grade	17 and above

Compared to the CEFR scale, which aims for B2 level to define a competent language user, the FRE index should be between 60 to 70 for the same level (Linney, 2017), whereas the FKRL value should be between 5 and 11.

Table 62
The value of FRE and FKRL indices compared to CEFR levels
(From https://linguapress.com/teachers/flesch-kincade.htm)

FRE	**FKRL**	**CEFR Level**	**CEFR benchmarks**
50 – 0	Higher education level	C2 (mastery)	Proficient user
50 – 60	11th – 12th grade	C1 (advanced)	
60 – 70	5th – 11th grade	B2 (upper intermediate)	Independent user
70 – 80		B1 (intermediate)	
80 – 90	1st – 5th grade	A2 (elementary)	Basic user
90 – 100	Kindergarten – first grade	A 1 (beginners)	

The scores awarded for any written text by any scale are not always perfectly accurate, as they are the result of computerized analysis that does not take incidental criteria into account; however, they offer a fairly good overall assessment of how easy or difficult a written text will be to comprehend.

The Coh-Metrix test (Table 63), according to the developers (Graesser et al., 2004), offers a much deeper and more detailed analysis than FRE or FKRL. Using this test, it was easy to establish how many paragraphs and sentences the translated texts consisted of, and besides the type-token ratio, it added new dimensions to the lexical profile of the texts in focus. The MTLD index is calculated as the mean length of sequential word strings that maintain a criterion level of lexical variation (McCarthy & Jarvis, 2010). Focusing on textual patterns, MTLD analyzes all the words in the text, from the first to the last one, including function words, i. e. sequentially (Koizumi, 2012). The larger the values, the more lexically diverse the text is. Research results also demonstrate that the Coh-Metrix L2 Reading index performs better than traditional readability formulas, as it is founded on cognitively inspired variables, including a word overlap index related to text cohesion, a word frequency index, related to decoding, and an index of syntactic similarity related to parsing (Crossley, Allen, & McNamara, 2011).

Table 63
The Coh-Metric profile of the 14 translated texts

Test-taker	Number of words	Number of paragraphs	Number of sentences	Lexical diversity		Readability		
				TTR	MTLD	FRE	FKGL	RDL2
TT1	327	5	12	0.52	60.479	36.118	12.795	12.795
TT2	334	5	12	0.56	83.024	35.695	15.195	11.291
TT3	302	5	16	0.56	81.621	41.996	14.230	10.917
TT4	356	5	15	0.56	93.273	39.941	13.584	8.958
TT5	311	5	14	0.58	73.900	30.069	13.747	9.101
TT6	370	5	14	0.52	70.272	33.652	15.131	12.404
TT7	359	5	11	0.50	54.353	33.020	16.761	17.925
TT8	318	5	12	0.54	75.938	33.918	15.112	12.244
TT9	343	5	14	0.53	70.935	35.186	14.438	9.415
TT10	317	5	12	0.54	62.770	36.202	14.773	9.900
TT11	300	5	17	0.56	68.587	45.949	11.234	8.455
TT12	311	5	14	0.58	73.900	36.069	13.747	9.101
TT13	340	5	12	0.54	63.719	30.281	16.074	8.621
TT14	358	5	12	0.56	73.328	39.926	15.102	11.205
Mean	**331**	**5**	**13**	**0.54**	**75.831**	**37.920**	**14.991**	**10.287**

Notes:
TT = Test-taker
TTR = Type-token ratio
MTLD = Measure of Textual Lexical Diversity
FRE = Flesch Reading Ease
FKGL = Flesch-Kincade Grade Level
RDL2 = Coh-Metrix L2 Readability

Looking at the data in Table 62 we can immediately see that each participant kept the five paragraphs of the source text; however, the number of sentences ranged between eleven and 17, with a mean of 13. As the number of sentences in the source text was only ten, we can assume that each student re-structured the text turning some of the very long complex sentences of the source text into shorter ones, which, if not done appropriately, may be judged as a major error in the assessment process.

Supplementing the TTR, the Coh-Metrix analysis provided another strong measure of lexical diversity: the MTLD. According to data in Table 62, the lexical diversity it indicates is different from the lexical diversity expressed by the TTR index: in case of TT2, TT3, TT4, TT11 and TT14 the TTR was 0.56, whereas the corresponding MTLD index was different for each text. The reason should be in the way the textual patterns are formed, including the cognitive processes underlying them. As was already stated, the higher the value, the more diverse the vocabulary of the text is, meaning that the highest lexical diversity (93.273) was achieved by TT4, while the least diverse vocabulary (54.353) was displayed by TT7. The difference between the two values is considerable.

The readability indices shown in Table 62 indicate very difficult texts. The 37.920 FRE index places it in the category of "difficult to read, best understood by college graduates" (Table 59); understanding it would be very difficult, maybe impossible for an average reader. The mean of the FKRL index (14.991) also defines "higher education level", which meets the requirements of "proficient (C2) user" on the CEFR scale (Tables 61 and 62).

According to the FRE, the TT5 translation (30.069) is the most difficult to read, and TT11 (45.949) is the easiest one, still requiring "higher education level" concerning comprehension. If we look at the FKRL indices, we can also see that all scores are well above the 11^{th} – 12^{th} -year value, allowing comprehension for university and college graduates, however, it defines TT7 translation (16.761) as the most difficult one to read, and TT11 (11.234) as the easiest one. Perhaps the most exciting finding is to realize that the RDL2 index defines TT11 (8.455) translation to be the most difficult to comprehend, followed by TT13 (8.621) and TT4 (8,958) texts. TT7 translation (17.295), which was predicted by FKRL to be the most difficult one, is characterized as the easiest text to read. However, we know from research (Crossley, Allen, & McNamara, 2011; Graesser et al., 2004; (McCarthy & Jarvis, 2010) that FRE and FKRL use surface-level variables such as the average length of sentences and the average number of syllables per word to predict readability. The RDL2 index, on the other hand, is a formula based on psycholinguistic and cognitive models of reading, including the word overlap index, a word frequency index and an index of syntactic similarity: variables closely connected to text comprehension processes (Crossley et al., 2011). The findings prove that Coh-Metrix analyzing texts on multiple measures of language and discourse such as word concreteness, syntactic simplicity, referential cohesion, causal cohesion and narrativity, permits a more accurate, more detailed text analysis than the traditional tests, which aim to analyze descriptive features; therefore, it discriminates better and can predict text difficulty more precisely (Graesser, McNamara, & Kulikowich, 2011)

6.2.5 Summary

Knowing the difficulty of a translated text is important in translation pedagogy, including the final element, the assessment of the translated target language text. To measure the difficulty and readability of the translated texts, two important features of translations, I relied on tool

As the source text was a business text – the summary of an annual monetary report – the relatively high percentage (13.6%) of academic words could be predicted, making translators' choices, as well as comprehension and readability for the average reader difficult. The length of the sentences in the source text also need be mentioned: the shortest one consisted of 15 words, the longest one of 49 words, making up about a fifth of the 270-word-long text. The transfer operations the students applied show what difficulty meant for them: in order to simplify the text and to make it more feasible to translate, they restructured it by creating more and shorter sentences in their translation. This strategy, however, does not necessarily improve the quality of the translation. The target language texts were longer than the source text: the shortest translation comprised 300, the longest one 370 words, 100 hundred more tokens than the total number of words in the source text. All this may have added to the high difficulty level of the business test, as all three measures applied (FRE, FKGL, RDL2) predicted text difficulty to be above college / university level.

The indices calculated by the Lexical Frequency Profile show a relatively low coverage of frequent vocabulary (70.94% K1 words), and a relatively high ratio of academic and infrequent vocabulary compared to Nation (2006). Based on these findings, I believe that the vocabulary of the translations is varied and sophisticated, and the complexity of the texts makes them difficult to comprehend, which might be an indicator of translation quality.

6.3 Study 5: Developing a new assessment tool for translations (PIER)

As research findings of Study 3 (Section 5.4) showed, the assessment scale used in the Translation Studies BA programme at the University of Pécs - referred to as UP scale - had numerous caveats, very low inter-rater reliability. Thus, it seemed to be reasonable to devise a new tool for assessing student translations. In order to develop a new assessment scale, I relied on what was discussed in the literature review in Chapter 5 (5.1) and the findings presented in Sections 5.4 and 6.1. I also revised the teacher interviews (5.4.5) to see if I could implement an idea suggested by R2 to include text-specific criteria with an emphasis on terminology. I wanted to see whether such a step would improve the reliability of Preselected

Items Evaluation, PIE, a norm referenced scale to assess translations by Kockaert and Segers (2017).

The PIE method discussed in 5.1 was developed for evaluating the translation product with the aim of giving a rating or making a value judgment. For efficiency and time management reasons Kockaert and Segers limited the number of pre-selected items, adding that the ideal number is “as much as needed, but not more” (Kockaert & Segers, 2017, p. 150) making the limit expandable. The method makes a distinction between correct and wrong solutions, but compared to the UP scale, which is based on major and minor errors, does not distinguish between levels of errors. With the PIE method, the items to be evaluated are selected on the basis of the calculation of p values (item difficulty) and d indices (the discrimination value) of each item, which can be words or word groups in the source text, and the solutions for the preselected items are also predetermined. In the case of PIER, as I named the assessment tool I set out to develop (PIE Revised), I followed different steps. After a detailed analysis of the translated texts (6.1) I followed the procedures below by inviting expert raters to participate in the study with a threefold aim:

a) to identify elements (items; words, expressions, grammatical features) which they found as problematic and having discriminating value in the source text (ST)
b) to offer possible translations for the identified elements in the target text (TT)
c) to assess the fourteen translations analyzed in section 6.1 using
    - PIER, i. e. Kockaert and Segers’s revised PIE scale
    - the UP scale for assessing translations at the University of Pécs.

6.3.1 Research questions

I formulated four major questions I wanted to find answers to:

(1) How many preselected items are necessary to create a norm-referenced, sufficiently discriminating translation assessment tool?
(2) How does PIER perform in use?
    a) How does it discriminate different qualities of translations?
    b) In what ways does it improve inter-rater reliability?
    c) Does it help raters become more consistent in their assessment?
(3) How do the raters evaluate PIER compared to the UP scale?
(4) To what extent and in what ways is PIER suitable to be a tool to assess translations?

6.3.2 Participants

The participants of the study were four raters, all females, each with considerable experience in L2 assessment, and one financial expert, a male, working for a global investment management corporation. One of the raters also was an instructor in the Translation Studies BA programme at the University of Pécs, having experience not only in translation assessment, but also in translating. The three other raters had considerable experience in exam assessment by different language exam institutions.

6.3.3 Procedures

Following the steps recommended by Kockaert and Segers (2017), and relying on the raters' expertise I aimed to spare the first round of the item preselection procedure of PIE (identifying the segments, then p values and d indices) which, as the developers also acknowledged, demanded much time and energy. Seemingly this process is subjective in nature, but I counterbalanced that by the number of expert raters. The training of the four participating raters and the financial expert, because of Covid 19 restrictions, took place on an electronic platform: they were emailed Kockaert and Segers' (2017, p. 152) steps which they had to follow in their work. The first phase of the study, conducted in August 2020, involved the item selection process. As a first step, the raters were given the source text (a business text of 331 words in the Hungarian language) and they were instructed to identify in it all items (a word, an expression or a longer chunk or a structural or conceptual unit) which they found important to include in the assessment, with a focus on translation brief relevancy, domain specific and test specific criteria, strictly following the PIE method (Kockaert & Segers, 2017). They were also asked to give all the possible TT (English) translations for the preselected items. Then, the item list was sent to the financial expert, who checked the correctness of the selected items, and corrected inappropriate or incorrect terminology.

As is evident, the pre-selected items do not cover every detail in the text, a problem which brought forward an important question: what do raters do when they come across an incorrect solution for an item which was not preselected? The answer was provided by Kockaert and Segers (2017, p. 153), suggesting that the item should be included only if the incorrect solution was proposed by numerous candidates. When proposed by only one, it should not be included.

In Kockaert and Segers's study, ten items (30 words) were preselected in a 118-word-long text, i. e. the 25% of the total number of words, which left 75% of the text uncovered (2017, p. 156). Nineteen MA Translation and Interpretation students participated in the study conducted at KU Leuven, Belgium, which did not represent a large sample; a fact that turned out to be an admitted caveat. With PIE, each candidate is evaluated on the same pre-selected key items, chosen on the basis of translation brief relevance; this method is expected to ensure reliability in the context of translation evaluation. However, it does not encompass an entire translation performance; the evaluation is restricted to the translation of a few segments (between one and six words), which does not seem to be sufficient for assessing a complex skill (translation competence in this case), so no assurances can be given regarding the reliability and the validity of the method (Eyckmans & Anckaert, 2017, p. 45). The conclusion remained the same when the PIE test was repeated with a larger number of participants, 113 BA translation students. The preselection and the evaluation in this latter study (Eyckmans & Anckaert, 2017) was made by seven expert raters, selected on the basis of their extensive experience in assessing translations. The main problem was that the 38 preselected items showed very little overlap; only five of the items were selected by more than half of the raters. The other problem was that the retained ten items did not discriminate well enough, and the reliability calculated for the test results amounted to .558, which is low. According to Eyckmans and Anckaert (2017, p. 50), the "problem lies with the inadequate number of preselected items and their low discriminating power".

As the aim of the present study was to create a relatively simple, easy-to-use, reliable and valid assessment tool, I decided to "re-visit" Kockaert and Segers' PIE. Due to my access to only 14 student-participants I had only one choice: to work with a larger number of preselected items, which would cover bigger segments in the ST. The five, individually working expert raters focused on grammatical features, terminology, style and register, spelling, and punctuation.

The result was a pool of 63 items. Some of the longer units identified by one marker contained a shorter unit selected by other raters, so when preparing the final list (Table 63), only the longer ones were included. There were only two items preselected by all the five markers (segments 3 and 22), but all twenty-five items included were identified at least by three of the markers. The length of the identified units was between three and ten words. In this way 128 words (roughly 40%) of the text were included in the list of preselected items (Figure 25, the preselected items are in bald), not in isolation, but together with their immediate surroundings, keeping in mind the Firthian advice: “You shall know a word by the company it keeps” (Firth, 1957, p. 11).

A magyar gazdaság (1) **eddigi teljesítményét ugyan pozitívan értékeli** a Nemzetközi Valutaalap, de (2) **a legfrissebb országértékelésükből kiderül**, hogy (3) **még mindig sérülékenynek tartják** a magyar gazdaságot.

A Nemzetközi Valutaalap (IMF) delegációja április 22-én (4) fejezte be a magyar gazdaság **szokásos éves felülvizsgálatát**. A jelentésben (5) **a közelmúlt történéseit összegezve megállapították**, hogy (6) **eddig minden szép és jó**, a magyar gazdaság (7) **erőteljesen növekedett az elmúlt években**, amelyet (8) **támogató gazdaságpolitika segített** egy kis kedvező külső környezettel és az uniós források (9) **nagyarányú lehívásával megspékelve**. Az erős (10) **belső keresletnek köszönhetően** 2015-ben 2,9 százalékos volt a gazdasági növekedés. Az IMF továbbá megállapítja, hogy jelentősen csökkent a munkanélküliség, nőtt a foglalkoztatottság – igaz, az elemzés készítői hozzáteszik: (11) **a magánszférában bekövetkezett növekedés mellett** (12) **a közmunkaprogram is bővült**, az inflációs nyomás alacsony, (13) **a várakozások pedig horgonyzottnak tűnnek**.

A (14) **magánszektor hitelezése tovább zsugorodott**, a nemteljesítő hitelek (NPL) aránya (15) **a csökkenés ellenére még mindig magas**, a bankok profitabilitása javul. A (16) **rossz hitelek kezelésére már történtek lépések** – nyugtázza még a dokumentum.

Szintén (17) **pozitívumként jelenik meg** az értékelésben, hogy az ország sérülékenysége csökkent, viszont az erre irányuló intézkedések az elmúlt időszakban (18) **a kockázatokat az állami szektorra és a jegybankra helyezték át**. (19) **Emellett magas maradt az adósságszint**, így az ország finanszírozási szükséglete is jelentős, ráadásul (20) **továbbra is magas a külföldi finanszírozási szükséglet**, a jelentős (21) **negatív nemzetközi befektetési pozíció** pedig továbbra is kockázatot jelent.

Tavaly a (22) **költségvetési hiány a vártnál kedvezőbben alakult**, az államadósság a GDP 75,3 százalékára csökkent a 2014-es 76,2 százalékról. Az IMF várakozásai szerint a költségvetési deficit (23) **a 2 százalékos GDP-arányos cél alatt marad** – beleértve egy (24) **a GDP 1 százalékának megfelelő** strukturális **fiskális lazítást**, az államadósság pedig (25) **a GDP 74,25 százalékára mérséklődhet** idén.

Figure 25
The Hungarian text with the preselected items marked in bold

Although the list was intended to be domain specific, straightforward business terminology and words which are easy to look up, e. g., ‘Nemzetközi Valutaalap’, ‘költségvetés’, ‘hiány’, ‘nemteljesítő hitel’, ‘államadósság’, etc., were not included. On the other hand, there was a heavy emphasis on grammatical structures, including tenses, especially in the indirect sentences. The “end product” of the preselection, the 25 items with their possible translations (Table 64) was checked and approved by a financial expert.

Table 64

The list of preselected items and their translations for PIER evaluation

	Preselected items (ST)	**Possible TT equivalents**
(1)	[a magyar gazdaság] eddigi teljesítményét… pozitívan értékeli [a Nemzetközi Valutaalap] (4)	1) the recent performance [of the Hungarian economy] - has a good rating by - has been positively assessed by [the International Monetary Fund] - is positively evaluated / rated by - has received positive evaluation from 2) the performance [of the Hungarian economy] so far / until now - has been positively assessed / rated by - has received positive evaluation from 3) [the International Monetary Fund] has assessed / has rated… positively
(2)	a legfrissebb országértékelésükből kiderül (3)	1) their latest / newest country evaluation / assessment / rating points out / shows / reveals 2) their latest / newest assessment / evaluation of the country shows / reveals 3) based on their latest evaluation 4) It is clear / evident from their latest country report
(3)	még mindig sérülékenynek tartják [a magyar gazdaságot] (5)	1) [they] still find [the Hungarian economy] vulnerable / fragile - still consider [the Hungarian economy] vulnerable / fragile 2) [the Hungarian economy] is still regarded as / considered/ deemed vulnerable / fragile (3) they still think Hungary’s economy is (in a) fragile (state)
(4)	[április 22-én] fejezte be szokásos éves felülvizsgálatát (4)	completed / finished / conducted its / their usual annual / yearly revision / audit / review / assessment on [April 22]
(5)	a jelentésben a közelmúlt történéseit összegezve megállapították (4)	1) summarizing recent events / the events of the recent past - the report concludes / states that - they have concluded / stated that 2) Its report, summarizing / summing up the events of the recent past / recent events stated that 3) In the report they summarized the recent happenings and concluded 4) The report which summarizes recent events concludes 5) In the summary of recent events, the report concludes
(6)	eddig minden szép és jó (3)	1) so far everything is fine / good / well /alright 2) everything seems to be all right / fine so far 3) so far so good 4) so far all is well
(7)	erőteljesen növekedett az elmúlt években (3)	1) [the Hungarian economy] - has / had vigorously / intensively grown - has seen a massive / robust growth - has grown massively / strong(ly)/ firmly - has been growing strong(ly)/ dynamically in / over the recent years / in the past (few) years
(8)	amelyet támogató gazdaságpolitika segített (4)	1) being helped / sponsored / backed up by a supportive economic policy 2) which was helped / facilitated by a supportive economic policy 3) supported by an economic policy which helped

(9)	[kedvező külső környezettel és uniós források] nagyarányú lehívásával megspékelve (4)	1) spiced with / along with / combined with the large scale utilization / drawdown of [EU funds / resources] 2) spiced with / [favorable external environment] and the large scale drawdown of [EU funds] 3) helped… with large scale drawdown of EU funds
(10)	az erős belső keresletnek köszönhetően (4)	1) due to / thanks to / owing to / because of / as a result of strong / heavy domestic / internal / national demand 2) strong / heavy domestic / internal / national demand resulted in [2.9 percent economic growth]
(11)	a magánszférában bekövetkezett növekedés mellett (3)	next to / besides / together with / coupled with / in addition to / along with the growth (that occurred / happened) in the private sector / sphere
(12)	közmunka program is bővült (4)	the public / communal work(s) programme / scheme / project - has also been extended - has also expanded / grown / broadened /widened
(13)	a várakozások pedig horgonyozottnak tűnnek (4)	the expectations seem / appear (to be) anchored / stable
(14)	a magánszektor hitelezése tovább zsugorodott (4)	private sector lending / lending to the private sector - has further shrunk / decreased - has continued to shrink / decrease
(15)	[a nemteljesítő hitelek aránya] a csökkenés ellenére még mindig magas (3)	1) [the proportion / rate of non-performing loans] - although decreasing, is still high - despite / in spite of decrease is still high 2) [the rates of non-performing loans] are still high despite the decrease / decline 3) despite the drop
(16)	a [rossz] hitelek kezelésére már történtek lépések (3)	1) initiatives / measures / steps / actions have been taken (in order) to manage / treat / tackle (bad) loans 2) steps have already been taken to deal with bad loans 3) handling of bad loans has already started 4) There have been steps to handle disadvantageous loans
(17)	[szintén] pozitívumként meg [az értékelésben] (3)	- [another] positive remark / note / fact / part / aspect [in the assessment / evaluation] - [also] appears as / shows as positive / positively [in the assessment / evaluation] / as a positive element - another positive remark / note [in the evaluation / assessment that] - [the evaluation / assessment] presents / points out / pinpoints [yet another] positive point / feature [noting that…] - the report / assessment considers it positive that - [decreased vulnerability] is considered as a positive feature in the report - the report considers [decreased vulnerability] as a positive feature…
(18)	[az erre irányuló intézkedések] a kockázatokat az állami szektorra és a jegybankra helyezték át (5)	- [the adopted measures] have transferred / shifted the risks (on)to the public / state sector and the central bank - risks have been shifted to / transferred to the private sector and the central bank
(19)	emellett, magas maradt az adósságszint (3)	besides / additionally / in addition, debt levels have remained / stayed high /debt level has remained / stayed high debt levels are / debt level is still high / remained high
(20)	magas a külföldi finanszírozási szükséglet (3)	- the external / foreign funding needs / financing needs also remain high / are high - overall high external financing needs remain - external / foreign funding / financing needs are / will continue to be / will remain high - the need for foreign financing remains high
(21)	[a jelentős] negatív nemzetközi befektetési pozíció (4)	[the significantly] negative international investment position

(22)	[költségvetési hiány] a vártnál kedvezőbben alakult (5)	the fiscal / budget / budgetary deficit - turned out favorably / to be (more) favorable compared to expectations - turned out better than expected / to be more favourable than expected earlier - was lower / better than expected
(23)	a 2 százalékos GDP-arányos cél alatt marad (3)	will remain / stay under the two percent GDP-proportional / proportionate target / goal
(24)	A GDP 1 százalékának megfelelő fiskális lazítást (3)	- a fiscal easing corresponding to / equivalent to / equal to the 1% of the GDP - equivalent to 1% of the GDP fiscal easing
(25)	[az államadósság] a GDP 74,25 százalékára mérséklődhet idén (3)	[the government debt] - may / might decrease / decline to - may / might be reduced to the 74.25% of the GDP

Note: The numbers in brackets refer to the number of raters marking the given item.

When the list was completed, two of the five raters withdrew from the assessment process. As new markers were needed to get enough data, I had to recruit new volunteers; I could find only one. As a next step, the task of the four raters was twofold: first they were asked to assess the fourteen translations using PIER; then, they were to assess them using the UP scale. The aim of this double process was to compare how the two assessment scales worked in the evaluation of fourteen translated texts. I wanted to find out which of the two offered better discrimination and reliability, including the agreement between the raters, and fairer grades in the end. Upon completing their tasks, the four raters were asked to fill in a short questionnaire on the two scales and to share their thoughts anonymously on what their experiences were.

6.3.4 Results and discussion

A) Application of the PIER method for assessing translations

As the test takers were evaluated on the same items (Section 6.2.3, Table 64 and Figure 25), PIER was expected to ensure good inter-rater reliability. However, the raw data presented by the raters (Table 64) suggested that the tool, in this respect, did not meet the expectations. Most probably, the raters sometimes gave points for translations which were not listed among the preselected items, or they missed or neglected translations in the list, otherwise the scores given for the same solution by the four raters should have been the same.

Table 65

Raw scores given by four expert raters for 14 test-takers' EN-HU translation tests using PIER

Student code	**Scores**			
	ER1	**ER2**	**ER3**	**ER4**
S01	13	12	12	13
S02	13	12	12	12
S03	22	18	17	18
S04	21	17	18	18
S05	22	11	11	11
S06	19	17	18	19
S07	14	11	12	12
S08	21	18	18	17
S09	20	13	14	15
S10	21	15	15	16
S11	22	11	12	11
S12	16	11	12	12
S13	11	6	6	8
S14	18	15	13	15
Mean	18.07	13.36	13.57	14.07
SD	3.912	3.455	3.390	3.269

Note: The maximum score was 25

Comparison of the scores in Table 65 shows that the four expert raters rarely arrived at the same scores in the same test. The closestmatch was achieved in the case of translation S02 (13-12-12-12). The range of scores given by the four raters were different: between 11 and 22 in the case of ER1, between 6 and 18 in the case of ER2, between 6 and 18 in the case of ER3, between 8 and 19 in the case of ER4. Even if ER2's and ER3's range was the same, the differences between them inside the range were formidable. The item statistics, the means and SD values calculated by SPSS indicated that ER1 was the most permissive rater with the highest mean and SD (mean=18.07; SD=3.912), whereas ER2 was the strictest. However, the scale with its set list of preselected items was not permissive; ER1 either did not follow the list according to the instructions or made errors by not paying attention to the assessment process. The inter-item correlation matrix (Table 66) shows that ER1 has the highest correlation with ER3, but even this 0.646 value is moderate, as variables with correlation values greater than 0.7 are considered strong correlations (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979). It seems as if ER1 used a different tool to evaluate. ER2 shows strong correlations with both ER3 and ER4, indicating that they measured the same characteristics.

Table 66
Inter-item correlation matrix of the four raters using PIER

Inter-Rater Correlation Matrix				
	ER1	**ER2**	**ER3**	**ER4**
ER1	1.000	0.635	0.646	0.571
ER2	0.635	1.000	0.966	0.965
ER3	0.646	0.966	1.000	0.961
ER4	0.571	0.965	0.961	1,000

The 0,835 intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) value (Table 67), is higher than the acceptable 0.75 (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979, p. 426), despite the very low lower bound (0.477) indicating high internal consistency. The 0.932 value of Cronbach's alpha, also calculated by SPSS based on the scores given by the four raters, shows very good scale reliability (Crocker & Algina, 2006, p. 142)

Table 67
The Intraclass Correlation Coefficient of the assessment by four raters using PIER

Intraclass Correlation Coefficient			
		95% Confidence Interval	
	Intraclass Correlation[b]	**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**
Average Measures	0.835	0.477	0.948

The weak point of the present assessment using PIER, according to pure statistics, is inter-rater reliability, expressed by Krippendorff's alpha figure (0.5190), which was lower than the acceptable $\alpha \geq 0.80$ value (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 241) in this case. The result is altered, if we leave out the outlier rater ER1 from the statistics. The analysis of ER2, ER3 and ER4 scores provideshigher values for ll indices: ICC is calculated to be 0.984, Cronbach's alpha is 0.988 and Krippendorff's alpha is 0.932, all acceptable. These findings raise the question of rater responsibility: even one rater's negligation of assessment instructions may corrupt the reliability of the instrument.

Overall, three out of the four raters used the PIER as expected, whereas one of the raters seemed to be out of step with them.

B) Assessment using the UP scale

The assessment of the 14 translations by the same four raters using the UP scale (see also section 5.4, Study 3) provided different results (Table 68). The error-based scale, as has already been mentioned, works at two levels of major and minor errors. At the end of the evaluation process the errors are counted and, based on their number, a grade is calculated.

Table 68

Number of errors identified using the UP scale by four expert raters in 14 EN-HU translation tests

Student code	ER1		ER2		ER3		ER4	
	H	h	H	h	H	h	H	h
S01	1	5	7	11	5	20	4	10
S02	2	9	6	14	6	14	9	15
S03	1	6	4	11	4	10	2	7
S04	1	7	9	12	4	7	7	9
S05	0	5	7	20	5	11	8	10
S06	2	7	8	5	3	8	6	9
S07	3	6	14	10	3	9	10	12
S08	1	4	1	6	2	4	1	6
S09	1	5	6	8	2	13	7	10
S10	4	4	7	7	6	10	8	8
S11	3	4	5	15	7	12	7	13
S12	1	8	8	16	10	17	9	16
S13	10	8	14	10	17	6	18	9
S14	2	5	6	11	4	6	5	11
Mean	2.29	5.93	7.29	11.14	5.57	10.50	7.21	10.36
SD	2.463	1.639	3.451	4.111	3.917	4.451	4.061	2.485

First, I analyzed the treatment of major errors (H) by the four raters. One look at Table 67 is enough to see that most of the scores vary to a large extent, and so do the means, calculated by SPSS. The SD values also indicate important differences between the raters, reflected in the law Krippendorff's alpha figures, which was 0.2376 in case of major errors (H); a very low value compared to the acceptable α ≥ 0.80 (Krippendorff, 2004), suggesting poor inter-rater reliability. The individual scores in Table 67 reveal the reasons for this poor outcome: the raters' subjective interpretations of H and h based on the UP scale resulted in subjective judgements concerning their error management and eventually in the considerable diversity of scores they gave.

Table 69
Inter-rater correlation matrix of the four raters concerning major (H) mistakes using the UP scale

Inter-Rater Correlation Matrix				
	ER1	**ER2**	**ER3**	**ER4**
ER1	1.000	0.605	0.787	0.786
ER2	0.605	1.000	0.505	0.819
ER3	0.787	0.505	1.000	0.795
ER4	0.786	0.819	0.795	1,000

The inter-rater correlation matrix (Table 69) shows the correlations between the raters. ER1, being the most permissive rater again, displays the strongest correlations with ER3 and ER4, but the 0.787 and 0.786 values are barely higher than the 0.70 acceptable minimum value. The strongest correlation can be seen between ER2 and ER4; the 0.819 value shows that their scoring was similar, as reflected in their means, as well (7.29 and 7.21, respectively).

Table 70
The Intraclass Correlation Coefficient of the scores of four raters concerning major (H) errors using the UP scale

Intraclass Correlation Coefficient			
		95% Confidence Interval	
	Intraclass Correlation[b]	**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**
Average Measures	0.791	0.420	0.930

The relatively high, 0.899 Cronbach’s alpha figure suggests good scale reliability (Crocker & Algina, 2006), however, the 0.791 Intraclass Correlation Coefficient with a 0.420 lower bound is barely higher than the acceptable $\alpha \geq 0.75$ acceptable value of internal consistency (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979) (Table 70). All these fidings point at a controversial assessment scale with caveats rooted in its heavy emphasis on errors, allowing the raters to make subjective judgements in the assessment process and to identify a different range of serious and less serious errors.

The identification of minor errors resulted in similarly diverse scores (Table 68). Based on the means, there were considerable differences between ER1 and the other three raters; the means of ER2, ER3 and ER4, even if they gave different scores, were closer to each other. The Krippendorff’s alpha value was 0.1584, which indicates very low inter-rater reliability. The inter-rater correlation matrix (Table 70) barely shows any correlation among the raters; even the highest value (0.581) is much lower than the acceptable figure.

Table 71
Inter-rater correlation matrix of the four raters concerning minor (h) errors using the UP scale

	Inter-Rater Correlation Matrix			
	ER1	**ER2**	**ER3**	**ER4**
ER1	1.000	0.184	0.121	0.468
ER2	0.184	1,000	0.412	0.581
ER3	0.121	0.412	1,000	0.562
ER4	0.468	0.581	0.562	1.000

The Cronbach's alpha value of 0.694 indicated poor scale reliability, and the 0.573 Intraclass Correlation Coefficient showed very low internal consistency, again a sign of the permissive nature of UP scale and the raters' subjective error treatment.

6.3.5 Raters' opinions

In order to explore how the two assessment tools worked, the four raters were asked to fill in a short questionnaire (see Appendix E). Their answers are analysed in the order the questions appeared in the questionnaire.

1) *Which of the two scales do you find better for assessing translations? Please, explain your choice.*

The four raters' answers revealed that ER1, ER2 and ER4, preferred using the new PIER, although they identified its caveats. Explaining their choice, each rater emphasized that it was easy and straightforward to use and described it as more objective than the UP scale. ER1 said "it is surprisingly easy to use". ER2 emphasized its user-friendliness and that "it aims to look for what candidates know", an important argument he remained alone with. ER4 thought "it offers a higher degree of objectivity and better agreement between the raters". Only ER3 voted for the UP scale, defining it as a tool "which assesses the whole text… both major and minor mistakes are considered during the evaluation process". However, ER3 also acknowledged that PIER was more objective and more user-friendly than the UP scale, adding that "it may be time-consuming to keep in mind all the possible answers for the various items in the key".

2) What are the advantages and disadvantages of the two scales?

Table 72 offers an overview of the raters' opinion in this respect. Their overall message is clear: both tools have numerous strengths and weaknesses. When describing PIER, all four raters agreed that it assessed translations objectively and it was easy to use. It was time-saving, a characteristic mentioned by ER2 and ER 4, although they were aware of the fact that the pre-selection process was time consuming and laborious. Only ER2 mentioned that it focused on what candidates knew, and not on errors, and ER1 said it was also more reflective. Perhaps the greatest caveat of PIER is that "it does not cover the whole text", and as a result, it does not treat the errors that occur in the unchecked parts, an argument emphasized by ER3. Another disadvantage mentioned by ER2 and ER4 was that it was designed for one use only; as soon as the list of preselected items fulfilled its aim, it was discarded and a similar list of key items had to be established for each and every new text.

Table 72 *Strengths and weaknesses of the two scales applied*

	Strengths	**Weaknesses**	**Ways to make it better**
UP	- can be applied any time for any translation test (1) - offers easy error identification (1) - assesses the whole text (2 - considers both major and minor problems (1) - offers a fair assessment of students' skills and overall mastery of L2 (1)	- too rigid (1) - error-based (4) - demotivating (2) - allows subjective error treatment (4) - time consuming (1)	- including more detailed instructions for assessors regarding the types of mistakes (1)
PIER	- more reflective (1) - easy to use (4) - offers equal assessment - time saving (2) - objective (3) - aims to look for what candidates know (1)	- the key may not include all possible options (2) - pre-selection takes extra time (2) - the pre-selected items do not cover all the errors (2) - does not assess the whole text (3) - parts of the text remain unchecked with mistakes (2) - involves the element of luck (1) - can be used only for 1 specific test (2)	- including a holistic part (1) - defining the number of pre-selected items based on the length of the text (1) - including proper training on using the scale (1)

Note: The numbers in brackets refer to the number of raters who gave the answers

The four raters agreed that although the UP scale assessed the whole text, it left too much room for subjective judgements. Even ER3, who claimed it to be "fairer and more suitable to assess translations" admitted that it was difficult to decide what to treat as a major or as a minor error. This feature is reflected in the error identification practices of the four raters (Table 67). The range of the different scores (marking the numbers of the identified errors) indicate important disagreements, a characteristic which has been shown earlier (see section 5.4.4). Examining the number of major errors counted in individual translations, only a few overlaps could be found: one in S02's translation, where both ER2 and ER3 marked 6 major errors; one in S03's translation, where ER2 and ER counted 4 major errors. In the case of S07, the overlap with 3 major errors occured between ER1 and ER4, in case of S11 between ER3 and ER4 with 7 marked major errors. The best agreement concerning major errors was in the assessment of translation S08, where ER1, ER2 and ER4 identified only one, and ER3 marked two errors of this level. This high degree of disagreement, at least partly, may be explained by the large number of errors at both levels (in translation S13 the number of marked Hs was between 10 and 18); the low quality of translations may have made the raters' error marking consistency difficult. The main reason, however, should be the permissive treat of UP scale, which allowed the raters to make subjective judgements concerning errors at both levels.

3) *Which of the two scales offers fairer assessment? Please, explain your choice.*

In ER2's opinion, "both scales can offer fair assessment if they are used in a responsible way, however, the PIE tool offers more objective assessment, as it does not involve the rater's subjective choice in error treatment". ER3 thought it was the UP scale, as "it takes the whole text into consideration when assessing students' performance… it measures their translation skills better". Both ER1 and ER 4 opted for PIER, ER1 emphasizing its caveat as not presenting all the possible options in the pre-selected list.

4) *Is there anything you would change in the scale you marked better in the first question? If yes, specify it, please.*

As has been stated, ER1, ER2 and ER4 chose PIER as a better and fairer translation assessment tool. ER1 would not change anything in it, but would be more astute in item preselection. ER2 would define the number of preselected items based on the length of the text., whereas ER4 would include a holistic part, as PIER "neglects big chunks in the text". Although ER3 voted for the UP scale, she would "appreciate more detailed instructions for the assessors".

Although the raters were laconic in their opinions, what they said helped identify the strengths and weaknesses of the two scales, indicating that both need to be improved in more than one way. Overall, although PIER has some caveats, it offers more objective assessment and proved to be more reliable. Also, by focusing on what candidates know (and not their errors) is a positive feature in lione with current trends in educational assessment. It is easy to use, even though the pre-selection process may take longer, and the list provided might not contain all the possible translation options for the preselected items. The fact that relatively large sections remain unchecked in the translated text might result in unfair grades. The UP scale was rejected by three raters because of its error centeredness; all four raters agreed that applying the two-level error shooting is a difficult, exhausting process which might result in subjective decisions and unreliable results.

6.3 Summary

Chapter 6 aimed to present the process of working towards a new assessment scale, an improvement compared to the UP scale, which had been used to assess student translations at the University of Pécs. The research was based on 14 translations from Hungarian to English prepared by second- and third-year TS students in April 2020. In the first part of the validation project the lexical characteristics and the readability of the translated were examined, as the two most telling predictors of translation quality. he key findings of this part of the research concerning lexical richness and lexical diversity presented in the Lexical Frequency Profile (6.1.4, Table 58) of the translated texts predicted comprehension problems. The ratio of very frequent () words was only 70.94% compared to the 78-81% found in Nation's study (2006) in general English texts. The percentage of AWL words proved to be higher (13,46%) than Coxhead's 10% average (2000) in general English texts. The indices on text difficulty and readability calculated by using Coh-Metrix confirmed these findings; the translated texts showed lexical feutures inherent to specialized texts as opposed to general English texts. This was an expected finding, however, it does not provide a full picture of translation quality, therefore, further measures were applied in the study.

In order to develop a new assessment scale I revised Kockaert and Segers' (2017) original Preselected Items Evaluation (PIE) method, mostly because it had started out as a promising one, but, in the end, did not meet the expectations of the researchers, mostly because its preselected items did not discriminate well, and were not sufficient for assessing a complex skill (Eyckmans & Anckaert, 2017). I assumed that with more items, which are not necessarily words but longer chunks, the method may prove to be more reliable. Therefore, if longer sections are covered in a text and they are viewed “in the company they keep” (Firth, 1957, p. 11), better results may be achieved. My research questions aimed to find out how many preselected items were necessary to create a norm-referenced, sufficiently discriminating translation assessment tool. More importantly, I aimed to find out how such a tool worked in practice, with a focus of rater consistency and inter-rater reliability. In addition to exploring how reliable the modified PIE scale was, I was interested in how it worked compared to the error-based assessment scale used in the English-Hungarian translation studies programme at the University of Pécs.

The procedures of data collection turned out to be more complicated than expected. Two times, both in spring and summer of 2020, the research was hindered by the restrictions connected to the two waves of Covid-19. The pandemic affected the number of participants, both students and raters. In the end, five expert-raters took part in what I now call the pilot process, which consisted of a pre-selection and an assessment phase. As a result, the study revealed that both scales had several caveats. The old UP scale with its error-centeredness allowed subjective judgements in error marking and was difficult to follow; its use resulted in very low inter-rater reliability indicating inconsistency in the scores. However, it had at least one positive feature: it aimed to assess the whole text, counting every single translation error in it. The new scale named the Preselected Items Evaluation Revised version (PIER) offered more objective assessment with its preselected list of items. The 25 items (each one a longer chunk) of the final list covered 40% of the text, and included domain specific terminology, grammatical structures with emphasis on the use of tenses, style and register, spelling and punctuation and translation specific features. The expert-raters were asked to identify possible translations of the preselected items. During the assessment process, their only task was to check if the preselected item was translated as it was offered in the list or not. All listed equivalents were accepted. If the scale worked well, each item in a translation should have been given the same score (1 or 0) by all four raters. As is often the case with assessment scales, the agreement between the raters was less than perfect. Although inter-rater reliability was much better than with the UP scale (0.5190 vs. 0.2376), it was clear that in the unchecked sections of the translations both major translation errors and good solutions (not listed as acceptable) remained unnoticed. Therefore, the answer to the research question ‘To what extent and in what ways is PIER suitable to be a tool to assess translations?’ is that based on the 14 translations and the dataset provided by four raters, the results are encouraging.

However, more participants and more careful item preselection may be necessary in order to examine how PIER can be improved and used even more reliably. To achieve this aim, further training and a more active participation of the expert-raters may be needed. Conducting think-aloud protocols with raters could also add to the development of a valid, reliable, and fair assessment tool.

Chapter 7
Conclusions

Despite the substantial research on motivation, autonomy and assessment, which are clearly interrelated according to the literature cited throughout the dissertation, these issues seem to have been neglected in the field of translation studies. The reason has to be searched for in the widely recognized fact that translation as a linguistic domain, has struggled for recognition for a long time and has been underestimated as a profession (Baker, 2011). These trends did not contribute to the prestige of the activity and they also hindered the interest in the field of translation studies. As a researcher as well as a teacher and a practicing translator, I aimed to address this gap with my thesis. The BA in Translation Studies specialization at the University of Pécs offered an area in need of research: on the one hand, it had a curricular structure to examine and on the other hand, a convenience sample to study. However, what seemed to be convenient and feasible at the beginning, turned out to be a hindering factor: I soon had to realize that the number of translation students was minimal and not everyone in the target groups was a willing participant in my research.

Motivation, autonomy and assessment might be considered as overarching areas to be researched independently, in their own right. That is why I devoted separate sections to the three main focal points and implemented empirical research on these topics. The study applied a mixed methods research tradition. The qualitative phases of the thesis included data collection applying semi-structured interviews with students and teachers, essay and syllabus analyses, a student questionnaire comprising both closed and open-ended questions and the analysis and the development of a new assessment tool. The datasets compiled in the studies were analyzed by applying both qualitative and quantitative procedures.

Study 1 aimed to find answers for research questions addressing students' motives to choose translation as a specialization, their language background when they enrolled for the programme, the most important factors, which fostered and/or hindered their motivation throughout their studies, and the ways they were planning to use their translation skills after graduating. The collected data revealed that their choice to learn translation was twofold: they either wanted to learn to become professional translators, and the specialization seemed to be a good first step to achieve this goal, or they found translation interesting and rewarding, and they were happy to do it as a hobby. As is most often the case, their linguistic background was not the same, their level of English language proficiency ranged between B2 and C1 on the CEFR scale, so those, who were less prepared linguistically had more demotivating influences expressed in grades and feeling less successful than the ones with firmer knowledge. The study underlined what was emphasized in the cited literature, as well: that motivation is a many-faceted ID factor, which can be boosted extrinsically, e. g., by regular and useful feedback on what they do, and intrinsically, e. g., by finding more and more interest in their tasks and activities. However, if their training lacks the boosting factors, they can easily become demotivated. A promising finding is that the majority of respondents wanted to use the learnt skills either in becoming a professional, or as part of their future work. The others wanted to do translation for pleasure (translating songs, film subtitles, comics for themselves), i. e., as a hobby.

Study 2 examined the role of autonomy in Translation Studies BA classes, with a focus on learner autonomy, in order to find out how autonomous BA translation students were during their studies in the programme, how the specialization programme supported their learner autonomy, how course syllabi integrated and supported autonomy and motivation in TS classes, and how teacher autonomy affected learner autonomy and motivation. Answers to the ten questions in the student questionnaire revealed that the respondents started to become more autonomous thanks to the practices they pursued in and out of classes: they were offered tasks and assignments which taught them to be autonomous in their decisions and allowed them to make their voices heard in the class discussions. The syllabi theoretically embraced both student and teacher autonomy, however, their uniformity did not offer the students too many ways to practice it. Syllabus analysis also revealed that the teachers planned to work along the same guidelines, and each syllabus contained elements which suggested high degrees of teacher autonomy, for instance in defining how they assessed and graded their students' work and how they promoted learner and classroom autonomy.

Studies 3, 4 and 5 were devoted to exploring assessment system practiced in the English-Hungarian translation studies BA programme at the University of Pécs. Study 3 focused on the rating scale, or rather error list used for the assessment of exam translations, and also for diagnostic purposes during the term. The analyses revealed serious caveats, most importantly very low inter-rater reliability and rater consistency in using the tool. The teacher interviews on the scale identified the same problems.

Study 4 reported preliminary research on the quality of student translations by examining lexical characteristic and readability indices. The research data on text quality was provided by Lexical Profiles of translations (Cobb, 2015) and readability indices of the translated texts calculated using Coh-Metrix (Graesser et al., 2004). These provided preliminary information for expert-raters who participated in the assessment of the same translations.

Study 5 embarced the steps of developing and validating a new assessment scale named PIER, the revised version of Cockaert and Segers' (2017) PIE. The study aimed to find out how many preselected items were necessary to create a norm-referenced, sufficiently discriminating, and reliable assessment tool for translations. First, expert-raters were invited to take part in the assessment process by pre-selecting items in the original text. Then, expert-raters used the list of items identified to assess the student translations Study 4 analysed, in order to see how the test items worked in terms of discrimination, inter-rater reliability and rater consistency. For comparison, the same raters were asked to assess the same translations using the UP scale of major and minor errors. As a finishing touch, the raters were invited to evaluate both scales in a short questionnaire with open-ended questions, and identified advantages and disadvantages of both tools. The findings show that although PIER provided much higher inter-rater reliabilty and rater consistency than the UP scale, it still has caveats which have to be improved.

Study 5 also added an unexpected finding to Study 1 on motivation, which proved to bean important outcome of the research: the tutors teaching translation courses in the programme are neither well-motivated nor autonomous, and are not prepared to assess students' translations in a reliable way.

7.1 Summary of findings

The purpose of the thesis was to gain a better understanding of how motivation, autonomy and assessment are interrelated in translation studies. The factthat translation studies as a linguistic domain had been struggling for recognition for a long time, the challenges were numerous and research questions aimed to find out (1) what motivates young people to choose translation studies as part of their BA programme and, eventually, to do it as a profession or a hobby; (2) what they find motivating in their classes; (3) what they perceive to be their strength and weaknesses.

As translation is an autonomous activity by its nature, not everyone is cut to become a professional translator, as translators have to be able to make autonomous choices in the line of their work. Therefore, the research questions examined (1) how autonomy can be taught and learntin the field of translation training; (2) how teacher and learner autonomy are related to each other and to motivation; and (3) how autonomous students are in the translation studies programme.

The product of students' autonomous activity is the translated text, and the translator's worth on the translator market is measured by the quality of their work. Therefore, evidence was sought to find out (1) how the quality translations may be measured; (2) what criteria should be taken into consideration when assessors make decisions about the quality of translations; (3) what the best ways are to make such decisions, and (4) what tools can be used to help make valid and reliable decisions.

All these questions were examined from a broader perspective, in the frameworks of translator training in general in Hungary, and with a special focus on the Translation Studies BA specialization programme at the University of Pécs. The following sections give a short summary of the research along the research questions and the corresponding findings.

7.1.1 Motivation in Translation Studies BA classes

When I designed my research, my thinking was guided by major studies and overviews published in the past few decades in the field of translation studies and educational assessment (Adolphs et al., 2018; Baker, 2011; Chesterman, 2005; Dickinson, 2002; Dörnyei, 1994; 1998; 2007; 2014; 2020; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Gardner, 2010, Józsa et al., 2014; Pym, 1992, 2003; Risku et al., 2010) providing the framework for my hypotheses, assumptions, and, in the end, for making comparisons.

The first part of the thesis examined student motivation in TS classes and the emerging picture was overall encouraging. The findings revealed that students choose translation as a specialization for different reasons ranging from "I want to do it as a profession" to "it is not as boring as other classes", indicating the two extremes along a continuum of motives. Although all students were English majors, for many of them English was not the first foreign language they had previously studied. Some of them started with German as a first foreign language, and took up English only later. There were students who had studied other foreign languages besides English, typically French, Italian or Spanish; an important factor when one wants to become a professional translator. These findings showed participants' favourable attitudes and motivation towards learning languages in general and English in particular. As a prerequisite for enrollment, students were required to pass the C1 level proficiency exam at the end of their first academic year, however, some of them were unsuccessful and at B2 level of proficiency. Since they did not have much experience in translating, they had no idea what to expect, so their motivation to study translation most of all was instrumental: they aimed to make translating a bread winning profession. However, both qualitative and quantitative data indicated the importance of intrinsic motivation, including the teachers' knowledge and personality, the tasks and assignments, regular feedback, and fair assessment of students' work. There were students who chose translation because they liked doing it, they were interested in the activity itself, or they saw it as a future hobby, these were the most important intrinsic motives identified. The findings also revealed that certain factors may become the source of motivation and demotivation at the same time for students. The best example for this dual character is the texts students get to translate: if the texts are interesting, they are motivating; however, if they are boring or too difficult to comprehend, they tend to have a demotivating effect. According to the analyzed data, the majority of the participants wanted to use their translation skills after graduation either as a translator or in a job where translation is part of the professional routine.

7.1.2 Autonomy in Translation Studies BA classes

Autonomy in language teaching and learning was discussed in the interrelationship of three main foci: learner autonomy, teacher autonomy, and classroom autonomy. The three forms tend to be examined in research as a dialogue between the learner and the teacher in classroom contexts (Finch, 2001; Hoyle & John, 1995; T. Lamb, 2017; T. Lamb & Murray, 2018; Little, 1995). Translation, as a highly complex problem-solving activity (Baker, 2006; Klaudy, 1997a; Venuti, 2013) can be developed best in an autonomous learning environment, where the learners are encouraged to apply strategies which help them arrive at the best solutions in all problem solving processes (Baer & Koby, 2003).

To find out how autonomous BA translation students were, and how the BA specialization programme supported learner autonomy, I used a student questionnaire. Findings revealed that the participants were very much teacher-dependent at the beginning of their translation studies, and progressed on the path of becoming autonomous not only in their beliefs, but also in their practices. Students were at different stages of autonomy, but a lot of them learnt to come to decisions and make choices on their own, to set their own goals and work independently in order to achieve them. However, regular feedback was important for all of them, suggesting that they were not confident enough concerning their assignments and their performances on them.

The translation studies programme offered the students ample opportunities to learn to become autonomous. When doing home assignments, they had to make decisions on what tools, sources and methods to use, and they had to solve the arising translation problems on their own. They were required to hand in their assignments by a deadline, so they were offered the opportunity to learn time management, which is an important factor in the translation business. Students were allowed to make their voices heard in classes, where they discussed their work under their teachers' guidance; they had multiple opportunities to express their opinions and to listen to what their peers had to say. Most of the classroom activities were designed to help their critical thinking and to promote their autonomous behavior.

To gain insights into how the course syllabi integrated and supported learner autonomy, I examined twelve course syllabi from the academic year of 2016/2017, including both lecture and seminar syllabi. Due to their nature, the seminar syllabi offered more learner learner autonomy by inviting the students to present their "translation products" and to discuss them with their peers. They could comment on each other's work, compare different choices and suggest alternative solutions or improvements. In some of the courses they were required to do proofreading, which made them more aware of the problems translators face while working; proofreading as an activity definitely fostered their autonomous learning. The practice described in the syllabi theoretically offered a motivating, student-centered learning environment, which would not be possible without autonomous teachers. But even if the syllabi suggested a degree of teacher autonomy, they also revealed that the teachers, with a few refreshing exceptions, practically followed the same routine, which might have been their autonomous decision, but it resulted in uniform activities the students were satisfied with according to findings.

Both the findings of the questionnaire and the analysis of the syllabi seem to suggest that motivation and autonomy were interrelated in the study. Having the opportunity to play an active role in classroom discussions of the translations created individually, express their opinion on each other's work, make their own choices, set their own pace when doing their assignments, as well as to learn from their own and others' mistakes made the participants not only more autonomous, but also more motivated. The teacher interviews revealed that the blended routine in doing assignments -starting working on them in class with teacher guidance, completing them at home on their own, and then discussing the translations in class

- also resulted in a higher degree of motivation on the students' part, and fostered their autonomous behaviour implying that student and teacher autonomy were interrelated.

7.1.3 Assessment in Translation Studies BA classes

Assessment in education, as reflected in the research findings discussed in this thesis, has a significant effect on motivation, especially if it involves giving appropriate feedback. Research has also shown that motivation goes hand in hand with autonomy. When the three meet in the vast arena of SLA and language pedagogy, a complex system is created, in which the components are interdependent and interact with each other in a variety of different ways (Larsen-Freeman, 1997; 2002).

As has been discussed in section 5.1, translation as a multi-dimensional and complex phenomenon is difficult to assess (Angelelli, 2009; Eyckmans, Anckaert, & Segers, 2009; Williams, 2009), even with the help of a sophisticated assessment tool. Its complexity is shown by the different approaches scholars have taken to translation assessment, including holistic (Waddington, 2001), analytical (Orlando, 2011) and other, either experimental methods, such as item calibration (Eyckmans & Anckaert, 2017) or item pre-selection methods (Kockaert & Segers, 2017) relying on grids, descriptors and norms. No previous study was found on the ideal assessment tool. It appears we have to agree with House's (2015, p. 64) conclusion: "It seems unlikely that translation assessment can ever be objectified in the manner of natural science", or even in the manner of Bachman and Palmer's (1982) classic model of communicative competence, which is often taken as an example for analytical scales.

The studies in Chapters 5 and 6 in Part III also proved that there is no royal road. The assessment scale used in the translation studies BA programme at the University of Pécs (UP scale) was compared to Kockaert and Segers' Preselected Items Evaluation method (PIE, 2017). The findings showed that although both types of assessment had advantages, they also had caveats, which were difficult or impossible to counterbalance. Although the initial aim of the research discussed in section 6.2 was to develop a new scale for assessing translations through revising PIE (Kockaert & Segers, 2017), the findings turned out to be controversial. Although the adapted scale of PIER (PIE Revised) offered more and longer chunks in the pre-selected items list than the original one did, and it comprised more acceptable options for each item, it still left significant parts in the translated texts uncovered, and as a result, unchecked.

Although pre-selection was done by expert raters, they could not think of every possible option, meaning that good but not listed translations remained unrewarded, or in extreme cases, treated as errors. It also turned out that raters found checking too many pre-selected items with multiple acceptable options difficult to follow.

As for the UP scale, the questionnaire filled in by the expert-raters subsequent to the assessment process revealed all the disadvantages and shortcomings described by raters in section 5.4.5. Focus on errors may result in learner (as well as rater) demotivation. Although the errors were classified and discussed at two levels as major and minor errors, the distinctions were difficult to apply during the assessment process; therefore, the raters often relied on their subjective judgement. Another caveat of the UP scale is that it does not stipulate the treatment of recurring errors, which are quite common in student translations.

Although three of the four expert raters identified PIER as a more user-friendly and fair method, and the reliability data indicated encouraging findings, its shortcomings are also clear. The statistical analysis of the data showed good inter-rater reliability of the tool, however, in its present form it is not quite as valid and reliable as desirable for assessing translations.

7.2 Limitations of the research

When I designed my thesis, it was not possible to foresee all the possible limitations which might hinder the research. Thus, the limitations of the present thesis are manifold. First, due to the small sample sizes, the findings cannot be generalized beyond the context of the present research project. Working with a convenience sample has its advantages, but the number of participating translation students was lower than expected. On part of both the students and their teachers, willingness to participate the research caused another problem, especially after the Covid-19 restrictions were announced in the spring of 2020. What was intended to be a mixed-methods study on a grander scale, turned out to be a case study in the end, as the research context was confined to the Translation Studies BA programme at the University of Pécs with a limited number of BA students who were available and ready to cooperate. Nevertheless, by using multiple methods and various related perspectives, the study hopefully provides sufficient details to claim a degree of transferability of the results in the three areas it examined: motivation, autonomy and assessment in Translation Studies BA classes and in becoming a translator in general.

Another group of problems emerging in association with the labor-intensive parts of the empirical studies, especially in the field of translation assessment, concerned the reluctance of teacher-raters to participate in the study which at more than one point threatened the feasibility of the plans. Because of their unavailability, partly for reasons nobody could overwrite, I had to give up my plans on raters training and had to modify the procedures to meet them half way: raters received the task descriptions and the instructions in an email, but there was no opportunity to do an in-person workshop and think aloud sessions which could have cast further light on the findings. Another limitation concerns that fact that the teachers of the TS programme I interviewed in the first round were not willing to participate inthe study on assessment. Therefore, new raters had to be recruited, who were experts in assessing translations. These limitations were partly related to the COVID 19 pandemic. Still, the findings on PIER, the new assessment scale, turned out to be promising. The results showed that a larger section of the text can be covered with more careful item selection and with being more attentive when providing translation options for the items. Testing the scale on larger samples and providing proper rater training also would improve the reliability of the method.

7.3 Pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research

The research findings of the present thesis focusing on motivation, autonomy and assessment in the field of translation studies have pedagogical implications for syllabus design and the implementation of the BA in TS programme that may benefit both teachers and experts in charge of the programme. The findings underscore the role and importance of motivation, a key factor in individual differences research. Overall, students were found to be motivated, but maintaining their motivation may pose further challenges, especially if the learners lack feedback and ways of assessment demotivate them over time. Further research is needed to find out more about classroom practice and the relationship between teacher and student motivation. It would be necessary to find out more about the reasons why the teachers were not willing to participate in the study on how the assessment scales worked, as well as their perceptions of what role a more valid and reliable tool could play in assessing their students' progress in the TS courses. Classroom observations, including self- observations, could reveal important details about the teaching and learning processes applied, as well as good practice. It would be useful for teachers to work as a team and compare notes as they teach the courses, give students feedback and assess their translations regularly. Students should be involved in every step towards developing assessment scales for their study programme. In addition to these, students should also be asked about how helpful they find different types of feedback and which type of assessment scale they find conducive to their own development.

As for learner autonomy in translation, the ultimate aim of TS is to help students become autonomous in their studies and as translators when they graduate. The findings indicated that students tended to find learner autonomy motivating in the learning process, therefore, it is important to emphasize self-reliance and autonomy in the programme, and as a next step, to observe what stages students go through and what strategies they apply. As less emphasis was placed on teacher autonomy, this area should also be included in further studies to find out how autonomous teachers feel and how much guidance they need to improve the TS programme.

The studies found that feedback and assessment in the courses were not uniform, teachers varied in their practices, and the frequency and type of feedback or grades students received over a semester depended on their teacher. There seemed to be a need for more frequent and more systematic feedback. Further research is necessary into feedback and assessment practices applied in the courses, which, if done in a fair and responsible way, will help students develop in what they do and encourage them to achieve more. Teacher awareness should be raised about the interrelatedness of these factors, and the fact that they have to be treated differently in the field of translation studies than in other courses students take in the BA in English Studies programme.

As the studies in the present thesis involved a limited number of participants, further research should involve more students, teachers, and expert raters at other universities as well to find out if the challenges and the findings are similar in other contexts. Finally, ongoing rater training would reveal how teachers can become autonomous in their assessment processes. By including think-aloud protocols, further research would definitely bring improvements both in the reliability and consistency of the assessment instrument and improve inter-rater reliability.

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Appendices

Appendix A: BA students' motivation in translation classes. Planned interview questions and transcriptions

Part 1: Background, language competence

1) Could you tell me about your first encounter with EFL?
2) Did anyone in your family speak English or any other language?
3) How long did you study English before entering university?
4) What other languages have you ever studied?
5) When and why did you decide to choose it as your major at university?
6) Did anyone influence you? If so, who?
7) How do you remember the beginnings at university?
    - What level were you at compared to other students?
    - What was easy? What was difficult?
8) How is it different now? Where have you improved the most?
9) How would you specify the strengths and the weaknesses of your language competence now?

Part 2: Translation as a skill and as a specialization

1) Let's talk about translation. Some reject it as a non-productive skill, however, translation studies are in the syllabus at a lot of universities. You can even major in it, but you chose it as a specialization. When and why?
2) People – experts and translators, including famous authors have defined translation in the most different ways. How would you define it?
3) Did you have any experience in translation before choosing it as your specialization? If yes, what did it involve?
4) Do you think it was a good choice for you? Why / Why not?
5) I suppose in your classes you do translations in two directions: from E. into Hungarian, and from H. into E. Which is easier for you?
6) What do you find the most difficult when translating a text?
7) Are you planning to continue your translation studies at MA level? (If not, give your reasons.)
8) How, in which sectors are you planning to use your translation skills after graduation?
9) What kind of knowledge and abilities do you think a professional translator needs?

Part 3: Course content

1) What expectations did you have concerning this specialization before signing up for it? Did the content of the course meet these expectations?
2) How many translation classes do you have a week?
3) Are they enough for your development, or would you like to have more?
4) What activities do you do in translation classes?
5) Which of these do you find really useful for developing your translation skills?
6) Which are the least useful tasks (if there is any)?
7) Are you taught by one or more teachers?
8) How are the classes by different teachers different? (What do different teachers teach you?)
9) Are you instructed about course content and course requirements at the beginning of the term?
10) Are you offered to negotiate when you discuss course content?
11) Do you learn about translation methods, strategies and techniques? Can you name any?

    Method: refers to the way a particular translation process is carried out in terms of the translator's objective, i.e. a global option that affects the whole text (e. g. literal, free)

    Strategies: procedures used by the translator to solve emerging problems (e. g. paraphrasing,)

    Technique: the result of a choice made by a translator (e. g. adaptation, borrowing, using of an established equivalent (in case of idioms) etc.) description,
12) What tools / instruments do you use in your classes?
13) What tools / instruments do you use when you do your home assignments?
14) What forms of assignments do you like doing?

Part 4: Assessment, feedback

1. How is your work evaluated?
2. How often and when do you get feedback on what you do in classes / out of class?
3. How does the feedback you get help your development?
4. What do you find the most motivating in your classes?
5. Is there anything you find demotivating?
6. What would you change concerning your classes?
7. On a scale from 1 to five, how would you assess:
    a. your classes
    b. your teachers
    c. yourself, as a translation student

Transcription of the interview with KV (P1) and MD (P2)

30/04/2017

Duration: 55 minutes

I: Először szeretném megköszönni, hogy vállaltátok a beszélgetést egy ilyen szép tavaszi délutánon. Megkérnélek benneteket, hogy röviden mutatkozzatok be.

KV: BA szakos másodéves anglisztika hallgató vagyok, szakfordító a specializációm, a sáv irodalom és kultúra, körülbelül ennyit tudok mondani bemutatkozásként.

DM: Részemről ugyanez, azzal a különbséggel, hogy én alkalmazott nyelvészeti sávon vagyok.

I: Mit jelent pontosan a sáv?

KV: A szakfordító egy minort vált ki gyakorlatilag, mindenkinek kell másodévtől egy sávot választani, ami lehet nyelvészet, alkalmazott nyelvészet, amerikanisztika és angol irodalom és kultúra. Ezen felül kell minort választani, amit ki lehet váltani szakfordítói specializációval, úgy tudom, ez a hivatalos neve, és mi ezt választottuk. Második évtől van, és két év.

I: Értem. Milyen más specializációból lehetett volna még választani?

DM: Különböző nyelvekből, vagy van még kommunikáció és média…

KV: Igen, gyakorlatilag egy másik szakot lehetett volna felvenni minorként, kommunikáció, vagy germanisztika, ami van még a bölcsészkaron.

I: No, akkor szaladjunk előre egy kicsit. Beszéljünk arról, hogy mikor és hogyan találkoztatok először az angol nyelvvel?

MD: Általános iskolában, a negyedik osztályban kezdtük.

I: És végig az angol volt a fő idegen nyelved?

MD: Igen. Másodikként felvettem a németet, de az nem érdekelt annyira, és nem is vettem annyira komolyan. Nem fektettem rá annyi súlyt, mint az angolra.

KV: Én hasonlóképpen, azzal a különbséggel, hogy én általános iskola elsőben kezdtem az angolt, teljesen sima osztályban, nem specializációban. Németet az első gimnáziumban kezdtem, bár általános iskola ötödiktől fel lehetett volna venni második idegen nyelvként, de annyira rosszul ment az angol, hogy azt mondták, ne kezdjek bele egy második idegen nyelvbe…

I: Ezt mondták?

KV: Igen. Általánosban nagyon rossz voltam angolból, csak a vége felé lett jobb, nem tudom, mitől, lehet, hogy a tanárok miatt, lehet, hogy csak ráéreztem, nem tudom, de jobb lett, és akkor gimnáziumban már egy emelt óraszámú angolos osztályba jelentkeztem, ahol németet is elkezdtem, de az eléggé elenyésző volt, egy érettségit le tudtam tenni belőle, de eléggé gyenge voltam.

I: D. mondta, hogy nagykanizsai. Ott is jártál iskolába?

MD: Igen.

I: *És te melyik suliba jártál, V.*?

KV: A Nevelési Központba jártam gimnáziumba, általánosba pedig a PTE Deák Ferenc gyakorló iskolájába.

I: A családban volt-e valaki, aki idegen nyelvet beszélt?

MD: Nálunk nem. Mármint nem úgy, hogy munkával kapcsolatban. A szüleim tanultak iskolában, általánosban, ami kötelező volt nekik.

KV: Nekem a testvéreim szintén az iskolában tanultak, de egyik sem ment tovább vele. A szülők pedig egyáltalán nem. Picit idősebb korosztályba tartoznak, nem is tudtak idegen nyelvet tanulni, csak az oroszt, azt meg nem szerették, úgyhogy nem igazán foglalkoztak vele.

I: Akkor nem a családi háttér miatt választottátok a nyelvet, hanem egyéb megfontolásokból.

KV: Nem, egyáltalán nem.

I: Te azt mondtad, németet tanultál még, és a D. is. Nem szeretnétek folytatni?

KV: De szeretném, csak kicsit nehéz a lehetőségem, anyagiak miatt, de én szeretnék tovább menni, van egy fordítói mesterszak, és ahhoz kellene még egy nyelv.

I: Pécsen nincs sajnos mester szak.

KV: Nincs. Debrecenben van, Miskolcon…

I: Meg Budapesten biztosan, és Szegeden is…

MD: Reménykedünk, hogy mire eljutunk odáig, már itt is lesz.

KV: Reméljük.

I: Akkor mind a ketten elég korán kezdtétek az angoltanulást. Én annak idején gimnáziumban kezdtem el, és orosz tagozatra jártam, a szüleitekkel egy korosztály vagyok, és kevés angolórám volt. Kellett nektek különórára járni ahhoz, hogy bejussatok az egyetemre?

MD: Nem. Addig jártam külön angolra, amíg nyelvvizsgára készültem.

I: Milyen nyelvvizsgára?

MD: Középszintűre.

I: ECL, TELC, vagy valami más?

MD: Azt nem tudom.

KV: ECL van nekem is, én a gimi közepe felé csináltam meg, szóval, nem is terveztem akkor még, hogy ilyen szakra megyek.

I: A Nevkóban elég erős az angol.

KV: Igen, elég erős, csak akkor még más szak volt bennem, az elúszott, szóval, maradt az angol, és nem, én sem jártam külön órákra.

I: Azt, hogy angol szakosok lesztek, azt mikor döntöttétek el? Erre emlékszel, Dávid?

MD: Hát, nem sokkal azelőtt, hogy jelentkezni kellett.

I: És mi alapján döntöttél? A jegyeid alapján?

MD: Főleg azt néztem, hogy mi az, amiből jó vagyok, meg ami érdekel is, és hát angolból a jobbik nyelvcsoportban voltam a gimnáziumban, meg érdekelt is. Tervbe van véve, hogy külföldre megyek majd dolgozni.

I: Ez motiváló tényező volt?

MD: Igen.

I: És mi érdekel, milyen területen szeretnél dolgozni?

MD: Hát… fordítás, esetleg még a tolmácsolás.

I: És te mikor határoztad el, hogy angol szakos leszel?

KV: Hát, egy picit hamarabb talán, de ugyanúgy a gimi utolsó éve körül.

I: És nem motiváltak a tanáraid esetleg?

KV: Hát, a tanáraim annyira nagyon nem, kedvesek voltak, csak nem nagyon láttam benne először fantáziát. Azt láttam, hogy tanárnak tudnék elmenni vele, egy másik szakkal, ami a magyar volt, ami érdekelt, de a tanárkodás annyira nem vonzott, ezért később utánanéztem dolgoknak, és rájöttem, hogy fordító is lehetek, satöbbi. Úgyhogy, az utolsó évben döntöttem.

I: De ez nem jelentette azt, hogy extra erőket kellett bedobni, vagy igen?

KV: Igazából nem. Először is, tagozatos osztályba jártam, nagyon erősen foglalkozott velem kettő angoltanárom is, az egyik anyanyelvű volt, úgyhogy nem volt ez probléma.

I: Én, amikor elkezdtem az egyetemet, emlékszem, hogy nekem nagy problémát jelentett, hogy gimiben orosz tagozatra jártam, alacsony angol óraszámmal és a csoporttársaim többsége pont fordítva: angol tagozatra járt, magas óraszámmal. Nekem nagyon rossz volt. Úgy éreztem mindig, hogy nekem bizonyítanom kell, többet kell tanulnom, gyengébb vagyok. Ti hogy emlékeztek erre? Milyenek voltak az első benyomásaitok?

MD: Első benyomásként én azt vettem észre, hogy nagyjából mindenki ugyanazon a szinten áll, mindenkinek megvannak az erősségei és a gyengeségei. Nem a nyelvvel van a probléma, hanem a tanulnivalóval. Hogy angolul kell dolgokat tanulni.

I: És ez volt az első alkalom, hogy minden angolul kellett.

MD: Igen. Az fura volt. Ugye, gimnáziumban csak magát a nyelvet tanultuk és elkezdeni az irodalmat és a történelmet angolul tanulni az kicsit erős kezdés volt.

I: Akkor mind a ketten úgy érkeztetek, hogy volt nyelvvizsgátok. Középfokú B2. És te hogy voltál a többiekkel? Hogy helyezted el magad?

KV: Hát, gimnáziumban jobb dolgom volt, úgymond, mert ott eléggé az élen álltam.

I: Szorgalmas voltál?

KV: Nem is annyira szorgalmas, inkább jó erős iskola volt, illetve, volt nyelvérzékem, mindenkinek, aki anglisztikára jár, van. Gimnáziumban nem sokaknak volt, ezért ott mindig jó dolgom volt, könnyű volt. Egyetemen kicsit nehezebb lett, mert rájöttem, hogy nagyon sok mindenki ugyanolyan jó, de aztán ugyanúgy boldogultam, meg tudom csinálni a tárgyakat, értékelnek a tanárok.

I: Most már talán nem jelent problémát, hogy angolul kell olvasni dolgokat?

MD: Nem, egyáltalán nem.

KV: Megszoktuk.

I: Tudtok-e olyan területet említeni, ahol érzékelhetően sokat javultatok? Gondolom, az olvasásotok az mindenképpen javult.

MD: Igen, én nagyon sokat olvasok hobbi szinten, krimit, fantasy-t…

I: Tehát könyveket.

MD: Könyveket, igen. És sokáig magyarul olvastam őket, és később, amikor idekerültem, akkor kezdtem el angolul is olvasni. A könyveket sokkal jobban megértem már.

I: Ez azt jelenti, ha szórakozásból olvasol, akkor inkább angolul olvasol?

MD: Vegyesen.

I: És ha magyarul, akkor odafigyelsz a fordításra?

MD: Igen, amióta fordítani kezdtünk, azóta feltűnnek dolgok. Meg elgondolkozok, hogy én hogyan fordítanám.

KV: Ezzel én is így vagyok, például, sorozatoknál, nem biztos, hogy fordítók csinálják a fordításokat hozzájuk, és azért nagyon sok hibát látunk. Mindig kritizálom, akaratlanul is észreveszi az ember a hibákat. Én, szerintem, főként szókincsben javultam, mióta itt vagyok. Gimiben főként csak a nyelvet tanultuk, volt egy-két óra, ahol próbálta a tanár, hogy kulturálisan is bevonjon minket, de…

I: És minek tulajdonítod ezt a szókincsjavulást?

KV: Mindenképpen annak, hogy nagyon sok tárgyunk van, alkalmazott nyelvészettől kezdve, irodalom, sima nyelvészet, tényleg nagyon sokféle, és mindegyik szakterületnek a lexikális szavait megtanuljuk, akaratlanul is.

I: Ha nem a fordítást tekintjük, van kedvenc órátok angolból? Melyiket szeretitek a legjobban? Tanárfüggő?

MD: Nálam inkább tanárfüggő a dolog, azokat az órákat szeretem én jobban, ahol tényleg használjuk a nyelvet, nemcsak ülünk és passzívan hallgatjuk, amit mondanak. Mikor tényleg gyakorlunk mi is.

KV: Igen, én is úgy vagyok, hogy erősen tanárfüggő. Az biztos, hogy az előadások néha kicsit nehezek. Nekem most van olyan szabadon választott órám, hogy Creative writing, ami elég jól megy, tényleg csinálunk érdekes dolgokat, írunk, ráadásul nem csak esszéket, hanem alkotunk is valamit, és az nagyon jó. Tetszik nagyon.

I: Mondhatjuk, akkor, hogy neked a szókincs az erősséged?

KV: (Nevet) Hát, ezt azért nem mondanám, csak… régen talán nem volt az erősségem, most pedig jobb lett.

I: Mi az, amiből szerinted a legjobb vagy?

KV: Hát… esszéket írni nagyon jól tudok, ezért is tetszett meg ez a kreatív írás óra.

I: És te hogy vagy ezzel, D.?

MD: Én is hasonlóképpen. Olyan gimibe jártam, ahol emelt óraszámban tanultam magyart, sokat kellett fogalmazni, így én is jobban ki tudom fejezni magam és ez az angolra is igaz.

KV: Ez lehet, hogy nekem is a magyar miatt van így, mert én is emelt magyarra jártam és emelt szintű érettségit is tettem. Angolból is mindig kellett esszéket írni, és ez segítette a fogalmazási készségem javulását.

I: Nagyon érdekes, amiket mondotok, de térjünk vissza a fordításhoz. Nem tudom, ott voltatok-e a múlt héten a Czippott Péter előadásán. Számos példát hozott arra, hogy ki, hogyan definiálja a fordítást. Nektek mit jelent ez a fogalom?

KV: Hát… igazából azt mondanám talán, hogy tartalomfordítást, nem pedig szövegfordítást.

I: Úgy érted, visszaadni a szöveg tartalmát a célnyelvben, nem szó szerinti fordítással?

KV: Igen. Ez főleg igaz a magyar és az angol nyelvre, mivel teljesen különböznek, ugye más a szórend…

I: Ugye, ti specializáción tanultok, szaknyelvi specializáción, ami jog és közgazdaság?

KV: Mindenféle… Most ilyen bevezetések vannak.

I: A kérdésem az, hogy a szaknyelv megengedi-e ezt az általad „tartalminak" nevezett fordítást?

KV: Igen, megengedi egyébként, meglepően, viszont vigyázni kell azért a szavakkal. Most például jogi szövegeket fordítunk, ott tudni kell, hogy miket szoktak mindig használni, tehát azért nincs akkora szabadság.

MD: Nagyon újat ehhez én sem tudok mondani, én is így gondolom. Bár sokszor olyan szövegeket kapunk, ahol tényleg utána kell nézni, hogy mit, hogyan fordítanak, főleg a szavaknak.

I: Nekem az a tapasztalatom, hogy szaknyelvi szövegeknél nagyon észnél kell lenni, bár valóban lehetnek olyan területek, ahol megengedhető a szabadabb fordítás. Ti miért a fordítást választottátok?

MD: Én alapból azért az anglisztikát választottam, mert fordító szeretnék lenni. Sokat olvasok, ezért inkább a műfordítás felé érdeklődöm, és így kizárásos alapon ez jött.

I: Szóval azt gondolod, ez jó előiskola lesz ahhoz, hogy fordító legyél.

MD: Igen. Így kezdetnek, bevezetésnek jó.

KV: Én is ugyanígy gondolkodtam. Azért választottam az anglisztikát, mert utánanéztem, hogy lehet fordító specializációt választani. Azt még nem tudom pontosan, hogy milyen fordító szeretnék lenni, tény, hogy a fordítás engem is érdekel, de igazából nem zárom ki a gazdasági és más szakszövegeket sem.

I: Anyagi szempontból talán az utóbbi kifizetődőbb lehet, ami nem utolsó szempont.

KV: Nyilván.

I: Van-e valamilyen tapasztalatotok a fordítás területén? Végeztetek-e már fordítási feladatokat, mielőtt felvettétek a specializációt?

KV: Nem igazán. Egyszer volt nálunk egy cserediák, és közte és édesanyám között fordítottam, vagy inkább tolmácsoltam. Az nehéz egyébként. Én mindenképp a fordítói munkát választanám.

MD: Én egy rövid ideig feliratokat fordítottam a tesómnak filmekhez, meg egy-két képregényt, és ennyi.

I: De pénzt még nem kerestetek fordítással?

KV + MD: (Mosolyogva) Nem.

I: Más fordítói kurzusra jártatok-e már?

KV + MD: Nem.

I: És elégedettek vagytok? Úgy gondoljátok, hogy jól választottatok?

KV + MD: Igen.

I: Feltételezem, hogy az órákon kétféle irányba végeztek fordítást, angolról magyarra és magyarról angolra. Melyik a könnyebb?

MD: Angolról magyarra.

KV: Ez érdekes, mert az előző félévben mi azzal kezdtük, hogy angolról magyarra, és a tanárok is mondták, hogy ez elvileg a könnyebb, viszont nekem ebben a jogi témában könnyebb néha angolra, vagy legalábbis ugyanolyan szintű, én nem láttam annyival több nehézséget az angolra fordításban, nekem mindkettő tetszik.

I: És most már mindkét irányt csináljátok?

MD: Ebben a félévben csak magyarról angolra.

KV: Félévenként változó. Múlt félévben angolról magyarra volt, jövő félévben lehet, hogy megint az lesz.

I: És mi az, ami szerintetek a fordításban szerintetek a legnehezebb? Egyáltalán, hogy kezdetek neki egy szöveg lefordításához?

MD: Először elolvassuk a szöveget,

I: Bocsáss meg, hogy közbeszólok. Ezek milyen hosszúságú szövegek?

MD: Nagyjából egyoldalasak. Elolvassuk őket, megpróbáljuk értelmezni…

I: Közösen?

MD: Nem, mindenki egyedül. Aztán nekiállunk, és amit nem tudunk, annak utánanézünk, hogy mások hogy fordítják.

I: A helyesírás, spelling, okoz-e gondot valamelyik nyelvben?

KV: Inkább a vesszők okoznak nehézséget.

I: Vannak kifejezések, amiket az angol nyelv „set lexical units"-nak nevez. Idiómák például. Azokat hogy kezelitek?

KV: Utánanézünk, hogy hogyan van a másik nyelvben.

I: És hol tudsz utánanézni?

KV: Google. Ő a legjobb barátunk.

I: Ő a legjobb barát? (nevetve)

KV: Tényleg. Ott a legkönnyebb valamit megtalálni. Például múltkor volt egy ilyen kifejezés, hogy „két legyet üt egy csapásra". Ezt mos nyilván gondoljuk, hogy nem így van angolul szó szerint, de megnéztük, és rögtön találtunk rá egy angol idiómát.

I: Most mondjátok, hogy magyarról angolra fordítotok. Okoz-e ez valamilyen problémát?

MD: Nekem különösebben nem. Például a szórend sosem okozott nekem gondot. Bizonyos esetekben még jobban is tetszik az angol szöveg, mint a magyar. Kötöttebb, és nem tud elkalandozni az ember.

I: És amikor olyasmit kell fordítani, ami az egyik nyelv beszélői számára ismert dolog, a másik kultúrában azonban nem létezik, akkor… ?

KV: Hát ez egy elég nehéz helyzet, igen…

I: Volt már ilyen?

KV: Hm… Most hirtelen nem jut eszembe…

MD: Nekem se.

KV: … de előbb beszéltünk, hogy volt egy ilyen előadás, hogy fordításelmélet, ott megadtak különböző lehetőségeket, illetve példákat is mondtak, például a Mézga Géza jött fel, ami most már nem igazán aktuális.

I: Ha végiggondoljátok, mi az, amire a leginkább szükségetek van ahhoz, hogy egy fordítást elkészítsetek, illetve, hogy fordítók legyetek? Kezdjük azzal, hogy kell egy jó angoltudás.

KV: Az mindenképp.

I: Magyartudásnak is jónak kell lennie. Mondjátok is, hogy mennyit segít.

KV: Igen, az is mindenképp fontos. Főleg, ha valaki angolról magyarra fordít, alapvető, hogy a magyar nyelvtana, szóhasználata jó legyen.

I: Tehát egy fordítónak nemcsak az idegen nyelvet, hanem a sajátját is jól kell tudnia. Tudnátok még fontos tényezőket mondani?

KV: Talán van olyan, hogy fordítói készség… ami meghatározza, hogy valaki jó-e?

MD: El tudjon rugaszkodni az ember egy kicsit a magyar szövegtől… meg…

KV: lehet, hogy valaki nagyon jól tud angolul, meg magyarul is, de valahogy egyiket sem tudja átvinni a másik nyelvbe. Plusz fontos még a tapasztalat is, mi is sokat gyakorolunk, ezért jobbak is vagyunk, mint mondjuk egy évvel ezelőtt, főleg a tavaly év elejéhez képest, ez mindenképp segít, hogy gyakoroljuk, meg tanítanak minket.

I: És ne feledjük a célnyelv kultúrájának az ismeretét. Te mondtad, hogy szeretnéd MA szinten folytatni a fordítást. Csak fordítást, ugye?

KV: Hát, fordítás és tolmácsolás.

I: És te mit szeretnél?

MD: Én főleg csak a fordítást. Tolmácsolást… majd még meglátjuk.

I: De úgy gondolod, hogy még kell hozzá tanulod, vagy úgy, hogy ezt befejezed, és akkor csak nekiállsz fordítani?

MD: Nekem még ki kellene választani, hogy mi legyen a másik nyelv, amit még tanulok az angol mellé, ha MA-ra megyek, de szeretném folytatni.

I: És ha végeztél, ha jól emlékszem, inkább műfordításban szeretnéd kipróbálni magad…

MD: Igen.

I: Te pedig azt mondtad, hogy inkább…

KV: … talán gazdasági vagy jogi…

I: A kettő, végül is, nem zárja ki egymást. Mit gondoltok a fizikai adottságokról? Van szükség ilyenre?

KV + MD: (Hallgatás)

I: Egy másfél oldalas szöveg lefordításához nem kellenek különösebb fizikai adottságok, de ha van egy 800 oldalas könyv, az azért húzós tud lenni.

KV + MD: (Hallgatás)

I: Az azt jelenti, hogy adott esetben napi 8-10 órát kell eltölteni a számítógép előtt, huzamosan…

MD: Hát azzal még nem is lenne komolyabb baj. Gép előtt ülni részemről nem olyan megterhelő.

KV: Mi már az a generáció vagyunk, amelyik amúgy is eltölt napi 8-10 órát egy számítógép előtt, így ez nem lesz annyira idegen tőlünk. Néha egy kicsit fel kell állni, meg ilyesmi, de amúgy… szerintem kibírjuk.

I: Akkor most térjünk át arra, amit tényleg tanultok az óráitokon. Hány féle órátok van?

KV: Fordítós órákból mindig négy van egy félévben, úgy értem négy féle tárgy. Van benne előadás is és gyakorlati óra, ez változó. Most három gyakorlati óra és egy előadás van.

I: Lehet, hogy jövőre már csak gyakorlat lesz, nem?

KV: Igen, most már letudtuk az előadásokat ezzel a két félévvel, a mintatanterv alapján már csak gyakorlat lesz.

I: Milyen területeket érintenek az előadások?

MD: Előző félévben egy olyan előadásunk volt, ami nagyon kultúrspecifikus volt, a kulturális különbségeket és átfedéseket vettük. Ez volt az egyik. Ami mostani, az inkább egy kicsit nyelvtan…

KV: … nyelvészet, összehasonlítja az angol és a magyar nyelv szerkezetét, eredtét, tehát nagyon sokmindent lefed, illetve volt egy átfogó fordításelmélet, fordítói tanulmányok, Translation Studies. Miként tekintettek a fordításra, hogyan alakult a fordítás helyzete…

MD: Magyarországon és külföldön…

I: Értem. És amikor úgy döntöttetek, hogy ez lesz a specializációtok, akkor voltak valamilyen előzetes elvárásaitok? Amit kaptok, az megfelel-e az elvárásaitoknak?

MD: Hát… én úgy gondoltam, hogy talán egy picivel több gyakorlat lesz, legalábbis az elején, de most már látom, hogy ennyi azért elég. Most három különböző órára kell fordítgatni… Vagy kettő. Kettő.

I: Nem unalmasak az előadások?

KV: Nem. Igazából kevesen vagyunk, tehát most összesen heten vagyunk az évfolyamon, és így nagyon családias. Ott is nagyon sokszor beszélgetünk, eléggé interaktív. Sokszor ott is, mondjuk a mostani előadás végén is kapunk fordítási gyakorlatot… eléggé aktívak az előadások is.

I: Úgy értelmezem, hogy nem okozott csalódást a program.

KV: Nem. Igazából szerintem nagyon jó. Én ennél többet nem vártam el tőle. Nem tudtam, mire számítsak, de én teljesen meg vagyok elégedve. Lefedünk nagyon sok témát, területet… Én meg vagyok elégedve vele.

I: Kaptok-e a szemeszter elején valamilyen leírást, tájékoztatást arról, hogy mit fogtok tanulni?

KV: Minden egyes tantárgyból kapunk egy tanmenetet, hogy mit takar a kurzus, mik az elvárások.

I: A feladatokat is megkapjátok?

KV: Nem. A fordítási feladatokat hetente kapjuk.

I: De azt tudjátok, hogy mire fogjátok kapni a kurzus végi jegyet, nem?

KV: Persze, igen.

I: Beleszámít ebbe a jegybe az évközi munka?

KV: Ez tárgytól függ. Most van egy olyan tárgyunk, ahol minden egyes fordításra jegyet kapunk. Van olyan, hogy politikai és jogi, ott három politikai és három jogi fordítást kell készíteni. Az első kettő gyakorlás, és mindkettőből a harmadikra kapunk jegyet.

I: És amikor megkapjátok a syllabusokat, van lehetőségetek arra, hogy javaslatot tegyetek a tananyaggal kapcsolatban? Nem tudom, hallottatok-e a „negotiated syllabusról". A tanár gyakorlatilag megbeszéli a diákokkal, hogy mit szeretnének, bevonja őket a tananyag megtervezésébe.

MD: Hát annyi volt előző félévben, hogy mi küldhettünk be fordítandó szövegeket, és a tanár kiválasztotta, hogy kinek a szövegét fogjuk lefordítani.

I: Ez komoly dolog, nem? Nagyobb kedvvel fordítjátok azt, amit ti választotok?

MD: Igen, mert ha olyan szöveget kapunk, ami érdekel minket, akkor jobban megy.

I: Te például milyet küldtél be?

MD: Valami… Ha jól emlékszem, az egyik kedvenc bandámmal kapcsolatos szöveg volt az internetről.

I: És te?

KV: Húúú… Már nem is emlékszem, és nem is került be fordításra. Nagyon sokan beküldünk, úgyhogy válogatott a tanár, de mindenképp érdekesebb volt ezeket fordítani. Tényleg jó témák voltak.

I: Akkor, ha össze akarjuk foglalni, legalább négy tárgyatok van félévente, köztük előadások meg szemináriumok, és valamilyen szintem beleszólhattok a feladataitokba. Mi a helyzet a többi dologgal? Tanultok-e olyat, hogy translation methods, translation techniques?

KV: Hát ezt így külön nem, viszont fordítás órán nagyon sokszor szó van róla, kifejti a tanár rendesen, úgyhogy átvettük ezeket már, illetve most is úgy működik, hogy minden alkalommal ezeket órán megbeszéljük,…

I: Tehát jelentkezik egy konkrét probléma, és akkor megbeszélitek, milyen stratégiát, technikát lehet alkalmazni a lefordítására?

KV: Igen, illetve a tavalyi kurzus szerintem első egy, két, három órájában erről volt szó.

I: És ezeket az elméleti dolgokat is számon kérik tőletek, vagy csak magát a gyakorlati produktumot?

MD: Elméletileg csak az elmélet előadás végén kérik számon a félév vizsgákon, de fordításórán nem. Elvárják, hogy tudjuk őket és használjuk őket, de az sosincs, hogy a tanár kikérdezné őket.

I: Elemeztek-e kész fordításokat?

KV + MD: (Hallgatás)

I: Arra gondolok, hogy bevisz a tanár egy szöveget meg a fordítását, és megnézitek, mi a jó benne vagy mi a rossz.

MD: Egyszer volt olyan, hogy kivetített egy fordítást és ezt-azt megnéztünk benne, ki hogy csinálná.

KV: Nem igazán jellemző. Egyszer volt egy olyan óránk, amikor megnéztük egy volt diák fordítását, és abban a hibákat elemezgettük, de nem jellemző.

I: Hasznosabb, ha a saját fordításaitokkal csináljátok ugyanezt, vagy ennek is van valami haszna?

KV: Szerintem ugyanúgy ráérzünk… de minden egyes órán átnézzük mindenki fordítását, így tanulunk egymás hibából is.

I: Azt hadd kérdezzem meg a tanáraikról, hogy például, amikor magyarról angolra fordítotok, azt anyanyelvű tanár tanítja?

MD: Az egyiket.

KV: Nincs annyi anyanyelvű tanár, hogy mindegyiket az tanítaná. Most az egyik magyarról angolra fordítást azonban anyanyelvű tartja.

I: És jobb, ha anyanyelvű tanár van?

KV: Hát igen. Talán jobb azért.

MD: Magyarul ritkán szólal meg, de tud olyan kifejezéseket, amiket nem biztos, hogy az interneten megtalálnánk. Angolul, de magyarul is.

KV: Már csak a korunkból kifolyólag is volt egy régebbi szöveg, valamilyen múzeumi brosúra, amiben mi nem tudtuk a régies magyar kifejezéseket, ő meg igen.

I: Mondtátok, hogy a Google a legjobb barát. (Nevetés.) Mit használtok a Google-n kívül? Egyáltalán, órán is fordítok, vagy inkább otthon?

DM: Otthon inkább. Az A. óráin fordítunk órán is, elkezdjük, és ami marad, azt kell otthon befejeznünk.

I: Ez hogy néz ki? Megkapjátok a szöveget, és míg ti dolgoztok, a tanár nézelődik?

DM: Kivetíti, és…

KV: Szóban fordítjuk, úgy hogy kivetíti, megyünk sorban, mindenki mond egy mondatot. Segít, hogyha elakadunk, vagy ha teljesen melléfordítunk, kijavít minket, ha rosszat mondunk… Hasonló ahhoz, mint amikor átnézzük, csak itt akkor csináljuk a fordítást.

I: Minden órán új feladatot kaptok?

DM: Igen.

I: Az elég kemény, nem?

DM: Most, holnap lesz az óránk, és egy zeneszöveget kellett lefordítani.

I: Magyarról angolra?

KV: Igen.

DM: Magyarról angolra.

I: Az nehéz.

KV: Hát igen.

DM: Ráadásul mondta, hogy figyeljünk arra, hogy a szótagszám is egyezzen, szóval, nem elég, hogy a jelentést átvigyük, hanem fontos, hogy megmaradjon a zene ritmusának megfelelő forma is.

KV: Ez azért nehezebb, mert eddig ilyennel nem nagyon találkoztunk. Ez egy kihívás.

I: Szóval, az órán el szoktátok kezdeni a fordítást, és otthon befejezitek, és előfordul, hogy külön is ad valamit a tanár otthonra.

KV: Igen. Például ezt.

I: És akkor van a négy tantárgyatok, és mindegyikből kaptok (feladatot) minden héten?

KV: Igen.

I: Összesen hány órát jelent a négy tantárgy? Mert azért más is van, ugye, ez csak a specializáció?

KV: Persze.

MD: Dupla óra mind a négy.

I: Tehát négyszer két óra, jól mondom?

DM: Összességében hat óra.

KV: Plusz ebben a félévben van még egy CAT tools nevű óránk, ahol arról van szó, hogy milyen programok tudnak segíteni a fordításban, de ott nincs lecke.

I: És milyen programok?

KV: A memoQ-t vesszük, eddig legalábbis ennyit vettünk (nevetés).

I: Az mi?

KV: Hát egy ilyen…

I: Szoftver?

KV: … software, ami segít… hogyha például ugyanazt kell később lefordítani, főként az ilyen gazdasági szövegeknél, például ha éves beszámolót fordítunk, és a szöveg ugyanaz, csak kisebb különbségekkel, akkor az egészet bele lehet másolni és mutatja. Illetve kis nyelvtani hibákat is mutat… Nem fordít helyettünk, de segít.

MD: El lehet benne tárolni a korábbi munkákat, és azok alapján kielemzi a fordítási stílusunkat…

I: Ez nagyon hasznos, nem? És tudjátok is használni?

MD: Azt tanuljuk most így órán... kis apróságokat.

I: És ezt angoltanár csinálja vagy IT szakember?

KV: Angoltanár, persze. Aki ezt tartja, ugyanúgy tart más órát is, például a politikai és jogi szövegek fordítását, ő nagyon gyakorlott.

I: Tehát akkor használtok szoftvereket, még mit?

DM: Online szótárakat…

I: Nyomtatott szótárt nem?

KV: (Nevet.) Hát azt már nem nagyon.

I: Online milyen szótárt? Egynyelvűt, kétnyelvűt, mindkettőt?

DM: Mindkettőt, úgy vegyesen.

KV: Webfordítót, amit szintén egy tanárunk javasolt, aki készít különböző szótárakat is, és mondta, hogy elég megbízható. Google fordítót is néha, de azt főként inkább ellenőrzésre. Én például ha egy szót nem ismerek egyáltalán, akkor megnézem több szótárban, hogy ugyanazt írják-e…

DM: Mondjuk a Google fordítót én sokszor csak helyesírás ellenőrzésre használom.

I: Mi a helyzet a korpuszokkal? Volt-e szó arról valahol, hogy korpuszt is lehet használni?

KV: Volt róla szó, (nevet) de nem igazán használtam még.

I: Én azt tanultam, hogy a korpuszok nagyon hasznosak, ha valaki fordít.

KV: Ezt mi is hallottuk előadáson, de ennyi.

I: Nem kérik tőletek, hogy a fordításnál ellenőrizzetek korpuszban dolgokat?

KV: Nem igazán. Nem.

I: Tehát korpuszt nem használtok akkor.

KV: Nem. Tudjuk, hogy vannak korpuszok, lehet, hogy majd fogunk…

I: Beszéljünk az értékelésről meg a feedbackről.

KV: Már így tantárgyak szerint?

I: Azt mondjátok, sokat írtok, sok a házi feladat… Majdnem mindig van valami elkészíteni való, amit részben beadtok, részben közösen átnézitek.

MD: Beadjuk nyomtatva, vagy dropboxba elküldjük.

I: És mit tesz vele a tanár? Rögtön megnézi? Kaptok visszajelzést?

KV: Például az egyik órán megnézzük, kijavítjuk és a tanár ott szóban is értékeli, illetve félév végén…

I: Gondolom, ilyenkor egyforma feladatot kap mindenki, ugye?

KV: Igen, igen. Ugyanaz a fordítás.

I: És mindenki nézi a maga szövegét.

KV: Hát nem. Úgy szokott lenni, hogy valakiét nézzük, mindenki, és akkor azt nézzük, hogy jól csinálta-e, nem jól csinálta e…

I: Nem úgy, hogy a magadét összeveted vele?

MD: De, magunk előtt ott van a sajátunk.

I: És amikor nagy feladat van? Hogy történik az értékelés egy olyan feladatnál, amire az év végi jegyet kapjátok? Azt otthon csináljátok, vagy órán, tanteremben?

MD: Azt is otthon ugyanígy megcsináljuk, csak ugye jobban odafigyelünk rá, elküldjük, és kapunk egy visszajelzést. Az előző félévben egy kis probléma volt, hogy egészségügyi ok miatt a tanár nem tudta időben megcsinálni a dolgokat, és nem volt visszajelzés igazán. Csak egy jegyet kaptunk, de azt nem nagyon tudtuk, hogy mire.

KV: Azt később kaptuk meg, a kiértékelést.

MD: De most amire legutóbb jegyet kaptunk azt rendesen átnéztük, és ott, előttünk osztályozta.

I: És általánosan, csoport szinten, és név szerint is kaptok értékelést? Rámutatnak arra, ami kifejezetten a te hibád?

KV: Igen, igen… Hát mindig egyvalakiét nézzük, aztán néha átmegyünk, és megnézzük a sajátunkat, és ilyenkor igen, személy szerint mondja a tanár. A kielemzés többnyire szóban történik, de az utolsóra kapunk egy részletes visszajelzést.

I: Segítenek ezek a visszajelzések?

MD: Persze.

KV: Mindenképpen. Nagyon hasznosak, mert rájövünk olyan hibáinkra, amelyeket nem biztos, hogy magunktól észrevennénk.

DM: És így a tanár is tudja, hogy személyenként kinek mi az erőssége, gyengesége és megjegyzi, és nyomon követi, hogy ki hogyan fejlődik.

I: A fordítás elég szubjektív tud lenni. Te így fordítod, én úgy fordítom, és mind a kettő jó lehet. Olyan nincs, hogy valakinek sértő visszajelzést adnak, vagy megaláznak, mert nem olyan jó fordulatot használt, mint a többiek?

KV: Igazából nyilván elmondják, hogy mi a probléma, de teljesen normális módon.

I: És van-e olyan, hogy egymás munkáit értékelitek? Például, mindenki belenézhet a dropboxba, és bárki munkájához írhat megjegyzést?

MD: Látjuk egymás munkáját, de értékelni nem kell a másikat. Néha megnézzük, hogy a másik hogyan fordította ezt és azt, ez is egyfajta segítség.

I: Tudtok-e három olyan dolgot mondani, amit abszolút motiválónak találtok az óráitokban?

KV+MD: (Hosszú hallgatás).

I: Ez lehet a tanár személyisége, a fordítandó szöveg… Nem akarom ellőni a lehetséges válaszokat.

KV: Hát, nem tudom. A fordítandó szövegek mindenképpen, ami nagyon nem érdekel, azt nehezebb fordítani.

I: Az segít, ha mondjuk humoros a szöveg?

KV: Mindenképp. Meg, ha kicsit érdekes. Például, a múltkor egy gyerekkönyvből fordítottunk, ami sokkal élvezetesebb volt.

MD: Maga a fordítás is élvezetes. Részben ezért is választottam ezt a specializációt.

I: Milyenek a tanárok? Motiválnak benneteket?

KV: Ööö… Igen. Igazából…

MD: Amikor halljuk, hogy (elneveti magát) mennyit keresnek… az elég „motiváló”…

I: A közelmúltban voltam egy konferencián, ahol több előadásban is szó volt a fordítók díjazásáról, és az derült ki, hogy a szakfordítást ötször-hatszor jobban fizetik, mint a műfordítást.

KV: Hát igen. Ez az egyik motiváló tényező nekem, hogy inkább afelé menjek, de hobbi szinten mindenképp foglalkozni szeretnék műfordítással is.

I: Van-e olyan, ami szerintetek abszolút demotiváló, és a legjobb lenne, ha nem is lenne?

KV+MD: (Hosszú hallgatás).

MD: Szövegfüggő.

I: Ha egy, egytől ötig terjedő skálán osztályoznátok, hogy értékelnétek magát a specializációt? Beleértve az elvárásaitokat, a tanárok tudását, személyiségét, az órák tartalmát, a feladatokat…

KV: Én egy ötöst mondanék.

MD: Szerintem is. Semmi problémám nem volt még eddig. Se a fordítással, se a tanárokkal. Én elégedett vagyok.

I: A „Mark my professor" oldalon (nevetés) nem szoktátok osztályozni a tanáraitokat?

KV+MD: Nem, nem igazán.

I: Gondolom, mindegyiknek 5-öst adnátok…

KV: Igen.

I: És magatoknak a munkátokra?

KV: Hát, szerintem ügyesen beadogatjuk mindig, úgyhogy…

MD: Ha kicsit megcsúszva is, de megcsináljuk. Meg is kell, különben nem zárnának le minket.

KV: Tényleg sok a munka, minden egyes órára kell fordítani, de ez nem probléma. Azért vagyunk itt, hogy ezt csináljuk.

I: Van-e valami, ami eddig a legnagyobb élményetek volt a fordítástanulás során? Valami, amire azt mondtátok, hogy hú, ez nagyon jól sikerül… alig volt benne javítás…

KV: Sajnos, ilyen még nem volt. (Nevetés)

MD: Hibátlan fordítást még nem sikerült csinálnunk…

KV: Igen, azért hibák mindig vannak. Szóval, ilyen élményem még nem volt, de talán jövőre lesz.

I: Milyen jegyeket szoktatok kapni?

KV: Hármas, négyes.

MD: Igen.

I: Van, aki 5-öst kap?

KV: Biztos.

MD: Másodévesek.

I: És azt látjátok, hogy aki 5-öst kap, az miben jobb?

KV: Tapasztalatban, szerintem.

I: Van-e valami, amit szerintetek még beépíthetnének a kurzusba? Amit hiányoltok… Ami jó lenne, ha lenne.

KV: Hmmm… szerintem nincs.

MD: Talán egy külön óra, ami a kulturális különbségekre megy rá.

I: Nem gondoltatok arra, hogy egy fordítóirodánál kipróbáljátok magatokat? Az motiváló lenne, nem?

KV: Én még nem érzem magam készen erre.

MD: Én gondolkoztam már rajta, hogy esetleg nyáron csinálhatnék valami hasonlót, majd meglátjuk, hogy találok-e egyáltalán valamit. Biztosan jó tapasztalat lenne.

I: Milyen terveitek vannak a jövőre nézve?

MD: Elvégezni az MA-t, aztán, mint mondtam, szeretnék külföldre menni, leginkább Angliába, hiszen fordítani onnan is tudnék.

KV: A külföld nálam sem kizárt. Gondoltam már rá, hogy lehetnék EU fordító.

I: Tulajdonképpen ezeket szerettem volna megkérdezni. Nem tudom, van-e valamit, amit még hozzátennétek?

KV: Hát, esetleg ajánlanám mindenkinek a specializációt, aki érdeklődik a fordítás iránt, mert bár képesítést nem ad, papírunk nem lesz róla…

I: Nem is kaptok semmilyen igazolást, hogy ezt a specializációt elvégeztétek?

KV: Elvileg a diplománkban szerepelni fog, hogy elvégeztük. De nem is csak papír szempontjából fontos, hanem magunk miatt is, hogy tudjuk, hogy másoknál többet tettünk, ügyesebbek vagyunk.

DM: Nagyon sokat tanulunk a fordításból. Jobban olvasunk, jobban írunk angolul, például a tanárainknak is, akikkel angolul e-mailezünk.

I: Hát… akkor a végére értünk. Én nagyon szépen köszönöm nektek, hogy a rendelkezésemre álltatok. Azt kívánom, hogy továbbra is érezzétek jól magatokat a specializáción, és váltástok valóra a terveiteket.

KV+MD: Köszönjük.

Transcription of the interview with GÁ (P3)

03/05/2017

Duration: 1 hour 9 minutes

I: Szeretném, ha bemutatkoznál, és elmondanád, mikor kerültél először kapcsolatba az angollal, mint idegen nyelvvel.

GÁ: GÁ vagyok, 26 éves. Az anglisztika szak nekem sokadik próbálkozásom a felsőoktatással. Az első a jogi kar volt, az nem jött be, aztán kis hagyással az osztatlan tanárképzés következett történelem – angol szakon, ahol elsősorban a történelem, a történelem képzéssel kapcsolatban láttam problémákat, magamban is, és még nem voltam készen arra, hogy ezt befejezzem. Ez öt évet vett volna igénybe, és mivel fogytak az államilag támogatott féléveim, találni kellett valamit, hogy ne kelljen tandíjat fizetnem a képzésért. Így esett a választás, mivel az angol már úgyis megvolt, az anglisztikára. A szakfordító specializáció nagyon hirtelen döntés volt. Pillanatok alatt kellett meghoznom, mert hat államilag támogatott félévem volt, és az anglisztika hat féléves képzés. Sok kötelező tárgyam már megvolt, akkreditáltattam ezeket, viszont a második félévben kellett választani minort, vagy specializációt, illesztve egy sávot. Nekem ezt rögtön az első félévben meg kellett oldanom. A proficiency vizsgám már megvolt, így a minor, ill. a specializáció választás nem ütközött nehézségekbe. Megnéztem a lehetőségeket. A minor nem igazán jött számításba. Azt hittem, pszichológiát is lehet választani, és kiderült, hogy nem. Nagyon örültem, amikor hallottam, hogy van szakfordítói spec, ami kiváltja a minort, és a sávot is. Korábban is csináltam már fordításokat. Édesapámnak, pl. aki iskolában tanít, és most benne vannak egy nemzetközi projektben. Egy LEGO robottal végeznek feladatokat. Több országon átívelő együttműködés, észak-ír, török, portugál, román olasz kapcsolatokkal, és a projekt nyelve az angol.

I: Egy picit álljunk meg. Szeretném, ha beszélnél a családi hátteredről. A szüleid beszélnek-e idegen nyelvet?

GÁ: Nem. Ők még oroszt tanultak, de nem beszélik.

I.: Igen, ti az a generáció vagytok, akiknek a szülei még az oroszt tanulták idegen nyelvként, de közülük, különböző okoknál fogva, ezt valóban nem beszélik. Van testvéred?

GÁ: Egy darab öcsém.

I: Ő is beszél idegen nyelvet?

GÁ: Angolból van nyelvvizsgája, de programozóként dolgozik egy kisebb cégnél, és most végzi az MA tanulmányait, és vannak angol nyelvű kurzusai. Neki fordítottam le szívességből angolra egy hosszabb, tizenvalahány oldalas tudományos szöveget.

I: Ezt mekkora vállalkozásnak tartottad? Nagy munka volt? Angolról magyarra, ugye?

GÁ: Igen, és ezt egyszerűbbnek is érzem, nem tudom miért. B. Tanár Urat megkérdeztem, hogy mire vállalkoztam, és azt felelte, hogy ő ezt a szöveget nem vállalná el, vagy csak nagyon borsos áron. Ekkor fogalmazódott meg bennem, hogy a jó szívem fog a sírba vinni, mert mindig szívességből végzek ilyen munkákat, mert amikor kiderült, hogy ezért akár 70.000 Ft-ot is el lehetett volna kérni, akkor arra gondoltam, hogy ebből akár meg is lehetne élni.

I: Erre majd később még visszatérünk egy picit. Az elején már kérdeztem, hogy te mikor kezdtél angolul tanulni. Ez volt az első idegen nyelved?

GÁ: Nem. A némettel kezdtem az általános iskolában, Csabrendeken. Az angolt középiskolában tanultam, öt évfolyamos gimnáziumban, Ajkán, nyelvi előkészítő osztályban, amit azóta meg is szüntettek. Első évben volt 12 angol óránk, utána mindegyikben hat. Plusz volt egy matek, egy magyar, öt számítástechnika.

I: Tehát 14 éves korodban találkoztál először az angollal, előtte nem tanultad.

GÁ: Egyáltalán nem. Viszont érettségiztem belőle, először középszinten, mert a joghoz nem kellett emelt, de amikor ide jelentkeztem, csináltam egy szintemelőt.

I: Ez azt jelenti, hogy az érettségivel együtt kaptál egy B2, azaz középszintű nyelvvizsgát. Miután ide felvettek, még várt rád egy proficiency exam, ha jól tudom.

GÁ: A szintekkel nem vagyok tisztában, sajnos, nem tudom. A proficiency vizsga azonban mindenki számára kötelező, az anglisztika szakosoknak az első év végén kell letenni. Osztatlanon kicsit más, ott az első három év során kell valamikor letenni, ha jól tudom. Elsőre nem sikerült, másodikra már nem volt probléma.

I: Amíg nincs meg ez a vizsga, addig nem kezdhetitek el a specializációt.

GÁ: Nem. Az összes tárgynak ez az alapfeltétele.

I: Mikor kellett eldönteni a specializáció választást?

GÁ: Az első év végén.

I: És te most hányadéves vagy?

GÁ: Én papíron másodéves vagyok.

I: És igazából?

GÁ: A BA-n csak első évemet töltöm, mert most jelentkeztem át osztatlanról anglisztikára. De mivel szinte minden tárgyamat elismerték, a másodévesekkel vagyok együtt.

I: Értem. Ez azt is jelenti egyben, hogy most kezdted a specializációt, ősszel, így ez a második szemesztered.

GÁ: Igen.

I: Nagyszerű. Ha arra gondolsz, hogy amikor idekerültél, mennyit tudtál, és most mennyit tudsz angolul, mit gondolsz, biztosított neked az egyetemi tanulásfejlődési lehetőséget? Egyáltalán, miből fejlődtél a legtöbbet?

GÁ: Csak a történelem-angol osztatlan képzés elején éreztem úgy, hogy abból élek, amit addig összeszedtem, de most, hogy elkezdtem a fordítóit, úgy érzem, hogy kaptam egy újabb löketet.

I: Amikor a másik szakról bekerültél, nem érezted úgy, hogy hátrányban vagy azokkal szemben, akik már egy évet megcsináltak anglisztikán?

GÁ: Nem, mert történelem-angolon ugyanazokat a tárgyakat tanultuk. Nem éreztem magam hátrányban, és a tudásom sem volt kevesebb.

I: Ha neked most meg kellene nevezned a skillek közül, hogy mi az erősséged, mit választanál, és mit sorolnál a nehezebbek közé?

GÁ: Első helyre mindenképpen a fogalmazást tenném, angolul és magyarul egyaránt. Ha magyarul jól fogalmaz az ember, és látja a nyelv szerkezetét, akkor össze tudja rakni a mondatokat a másik nyelven is, és az is segít, hogy szerintem elég jó háttértudásom van a világ dolgairól.

I: Azért a két nyelv szerkezete eléggé különböző. Ugyanolyan jól fogalmazol angolul is, mint magyarul?

GÁ: Azt nem mondtam. Csak azt mondtam, hogy segít a magyar.

I: Akkor, angolból is erősségednek érzed a fogalmazási készséget.

GÁ: Magyarul jól írok. Szoktam is írni, szeretek is írni. Az, hogy angolul… (hosszú hallgatás) lesznek olyanok, hogy lefagyok, már volt ilyen korábban, ezt szeretném előre leszögezni.

I: Semmi baj, akkor majd folytatjuk valami mással. Most például azzal, hogy mi nem megy annyira jól. Nekem például mindig bajom volt a listeninggel, mert azt nagyon keveset csináltuk órán, sőt, nem is volt ilyen része a nyelvtanulásnak.

GÁ: A listeningnek nem látom értelmét, laboratóriumi körülmények között semmiképp. Mi értelme van annak, hogy valamit pl. a vidámpark háttérzajával lejátszanak? Alapból nem értem a zaj miatt, de ez szerintem nem jelenti azt, hogy nem értem magát a nyelvet. Az ember ha az anyanyelvén beszél telefonon az ismerősével, és közben elmegy mellette egy autó, ugyanúgy nem érti, nem? Úgy érzem, nem hitelesen adja vissza a tudást.

I: Áttérnék egy kicsit a fordításra. Azt mondod, nagyon gyors döntés volt. Valami befolyásolt abban, hogy ezt a gyors döntést meghozd?

GÁ: Igen. Konkrétan, hogy amikor átjelentkeztem, ha a tanterv szerint haladtam volna és az elsőéves terv szerint kellett volna haladnom, nem lett volna sok értelme 180 kilométeres távolságból ideutazgatni. Ehelyett a másik végletet választottam: hogy 2 év alatt elvégzem a 3 évet. Most egy olyan évben vagyok benne, hogy a 2 félév alatt 132 kreditem lesz.

I: Az nagyon-nagyon sok. Ugyanakkor azt mondtad, voltak más lehetőségek is. Mi az, ami miatt mégis a fordítást választottad?

GÁ: A gyakorlati haszna miatt. A másik alternatíva az alkalmazott nyelvészet lett volna, történelmet nem akartam, abból jöttem. Német lett volna még, de hiába van középfokú nyelvvizsgám németből, az annyit fog érni, hogy megkaphatom a diplomámat.

I: Tulajdonképpen tehát az motivált, hogy már volt némi fordítási tapasztalatod, és láttad, hogy lehet gyakorlati haszna a későbbiekben.

GÁ: Biztos voltam benne, hogy ennek lesz a legtöbb gyakorlati haszna.

I: Feltételezem, nem csak az édesapádnak és a testvérednek fordítottál…

GÁ: Hobbi szintű tapasztalatom is van.

I: Az nagyon fontos. Sok komoly dolog hobbi szinten kezdődik.

GÁ: Főleg dalszövegeket szoktam fordítani. Nem tudom, ismered-e az Euróvíziós Dalfesztivált. A győztes dalt lefordítottam magyarra, és elküldtem a nem is tudom, mi a hivatalos megnevezése, az egyik menedzsernek vagy egy producernek, és visszaírtak, hogy nagyon tetszik nekik a fordítás. Azt gondoltam, ha ők azt mondják, hogy jó, akkor van keresni valóm ezen a területen, és a jogdíjak is eszembe jutottak...

I: Huszonhat évesen – ugye, azt mondtad, annyi vagy? – valóban elgondolkozik az ember azon, hogy mivel keresse a kenyerét. Ez teljesen nyilvánvaló. Dolgoztál-e valaha fordítóirodának?

GÁ: Nem.

I: Tehát többnyire hobbiból fordítottál, vagy valakinek segítettél.

GÁ: Igen, pl. a polgármesternek is lefordítottam egy pályázat szövegének a részeit.

I: Akkor mondhatjuk, hogy a választás fő motivációja az volt számodra, hogy a jövőben pénzkereső tevékenyégként tudod majd végezni a fordítást?

GÁ: Simán.

I: A tanáraid, akik itt tanítottak, nem voltak rád motiváló hatással? Nem javasolták neked ezt a specializációt?

GÁ: Olyan gyorsan meg kellett hoznom ezt a döntést, hogy erre nem volt lehetőség. De azt tudom, hogy a tájékoztatón a tanárok erősen szorgalmazták a fordítást, de én ebből kimaradtam és egyedül hoztam meg a döntést, de nem bántam meg.

I: Nem tudom, ott voltál-e a múlt héten a Czipott Péter előadásán.

GÁ: Igen, ott voltam.

I: Ott elhangzott, hogy híres emberek, nyelvészek, műfordítók miként határozták meg a fordítást. Nagyon érdekes definíciókat hallhattunk. Te tudsz azonosulni valamelyikkel, vagy számodra valami mást jelent a fordítás?

GÁ: Nem tudom… én azon a véleményen vagyok, hogy jelentést fordítsunk.

I: És ez mit jelent a te értelmezésedben?

GÁ: Azt, hogy nem feltétlenül szóról-szóra fordítunk, a lényeg, hogy átvigyem a jelentést.

I: Mi a helyzet jogi szövegeknél? Ott fontos a precíz, pontos fordítás.

GÁ: Van ilyen kurzusom. Ott nem lehet nem pontosnak lenni. Ott azonban segít, hogy jártam jogra, és nagyjából ismerős a nyelvezet.

I: Tehát azt gondolod, hogy ugyanazt a jelentést valamilyen módon vissza kell adni.

GÁ: Például most a Cs. tanárnő egyik óráján volt egy szövegünk, és végtelenül örültem… Eddig mindig olyan tárgyilagos szövegek voltak, és most egy díjátadón mondott beszédet – egy zenész kapott egy díjat – kellett lefordítani. Ott éreztem végre, hogy van egy kis szabadságom arra, hogy hogyan viszem át annak az embernek az érzéseit és gondolatait, aki azt a beszédet tartotta.

I: Az óráitokon mikor fordítok angolról magyarra, és magyarról angolra?

GÁ: Mindkettőhöz külön kurzusok vannak.

I: Ez szemeszterenként változik?

GÁ: Húúú…

I: Hány heti órában tanuljátok a fordítást?

GÁ: Változó. A tanterv szerint nem tudom. Én most egyébként is nagyon halmozom.

I: Mi a neve az óráitoknak?

GÁ: Van egy alapozó, van angolról magyarra I-II, ezen kívül van számítástechnikai szövegfordítás, jogi-politikai szövegfordítás, gazdasági A-B és társadalomtudomány. És még szépirodalmi is.

I: Mindegyiket más tanár tanítja, gondolom.

GÁ: Igen.

I: És amikor év elején, vagy szemeszter elején az első órán, kaptok valamilyen útmutatást a tanévre, szemeszterre vonatkozóan?

GÁ: Egyrészt kapunk syllabust, másrészt, ha az adott oktatóval volt már órám, tudom, hogy nagyjából mire számíthatok.

I: Tehát van egy fix syllabus, ami szerint haladtok, dátumokra rögzített anyaggal.

GÁ: Igen, de az élet nem mindig úgy hozza. Nem tarjuk feszesen, de ez szerintem teljesen rendben van, hogy veszünk egy szöveget, és ha nem jutunk a végére, nem csinálunk pánikot belőle. Meg hát a syllabus az csak egy ütemterv, amit bármikor tudunk módosítani.

I: Vannak gyakorlati óráitok meg előadásaitok.

GÁ: Igen. Azok teljesen elméleti jellegűek.

I: És ott, például, adtak nektek meghatározást, definiálták a fordítást, mint tevékenységet… Valami ilyesmivel kezdődik, gondolom.

GÁ: Hát, hogy megpróbáljuk meghatározni, hogy mi a fordítás, meg nemcsak a fogalma, hanem a történelme is téma. Hogy ez hogyan alakult az évek során.

I: Hát igen, hosszú története van a fordításnak, a bábeli zűrzavarig nyúlik vissza…

GÁ: Az egy kicsit túlzó azért, de…

I: Tulajdonképpen ott különöltek el a nyelvek, legalábbis a Biblia szerint, nyilván szükség volt fordítókra. Térjünk vissza a gyakorlati órákhoz. Melyik áll hozzád a legközelebb? Mondta, hogy a joginál sokat segít a jogi egyetemi múltad.

GÁ: Igaz, de ezt nem szeretem a szárazsága miatt. De például a közgazdaságtudományi egyetem ott van a tőszomszédságban, és ott voltam kollégista, elég sok KTK-s ismerőm van. És ha az ember elmegy egy társaságba, vagy akár csak sörözni, mindig szóba kerül, hogy az adott ember mivel foglalkozik, mi mozgatja, milyen dolgok történnek vele az egyetemen, szóba kerülnek dolgok. Meg amúgy is, nagyjából azért tisztában vagyok az ilye fogalmakkal… Ha úgy adódik az életemben, hogy közgazdasági jellegű szövegeket kell fordítanom…

I: Nem fogsz kétségbe esni.

GÁ: Nem. De azt se szeretem. Viszont ami meg vonzó, meg érdekes, a társadalomtudományi szövegek… az meg bitang nehéz.

I: Műfordításban gondolkodtál-e? Mondtad, hogy jól fogalmazol…

GÁ: Nem tudom, eljutottam-e arra a pontra már, hogy ha azt ajánlják fel nekem, akkor… De tulajdonképpen bármi jöhet… orvostudomány, csillagászat…

I: És ha itt végzel… Esetleg MA-n továbbtanulsz?

GÁ: Nem! Nincs már rá félévem.

I: Akkor BA-n befejezed, és megpróbálsz a fordítás területén dolgozni.

GÁ: Igen. Viszont, ha összegyűlik a keresetemből annyi, és lenne rá lehetőség, lehet, hgy később visszajönnék egy MA-ra.

I: Értem. Mindenképpen a fordítás világában képzeled el a jövődet.

GÁ: Igen.

I: Szerinted milyen tulajdonságokkal kell rendelkezni annak, aki hivatásszerűen szeretné végezni ezt a tevékenységet?

GÁ: Bírja a strapát, hogy hosszú ideig ugyanazzal a témával foglalkozzék, nem esik kétségbe attól, hogy másoktól segítséget kell kérnie, mert itt bizony előfordul, akár a szerzőtől, akár a lektortól vagy akárkitől… Nem kell félni ettől, és büszkeségből sem kell erről lemondani. Szükség van némi alázatra. Kitartásra. Mentális frissességre. Nem szabad a végtelenségig zsigerelni az embernek magát. Az öcsém szövegével voltam így. Az egyetem mellett nem nagyon volt időm. Megcsináltam négy oldalt, és arra gondoltam, hogy ezzel így sohasem fogok végezni. Nézem a szerdai órarendemet, és láttam, hogy csupa olyan óra van, amin még mindegyiken ott voltam. Fogtam a szerdai napot, kijelöltem, hogy ezt most egyben lefordítom, nem érdekel… És látástól mikulásig, reggel 7-től este 9-ig. Nonstop. Megcsináltam, de utána úgy voltam, hogy nem akarok többet találkozni vele. Mondtam az öcsémnek, hogy még egy ilyen, és elég csúnya helyre foglak elküldeni. Aztán persze 2 hétre rá jött egy rövidebb, 3-4 oldalas, és akkor jött az a mondat, hogy oké, megcsinálom, de csak mértéktartással.

I: Mit értesz pontosan mértéktartás alatt?

GÁ: Embere válogatja, szerintem.

I: Nekem a nagyon szoros és következetes időbeosztás szokott segíteni. Én így tudok dolgozni.

GÁ: Ez nálam nem működne.

I: Mi az, ami még kell a tevékenyéghez? Milyen fajta tudás, képesség?

GÁ: Ha magamat veszem alapul, akkor… Nekem szegényes a szókincsem. De ez nem akadályoz abban, hogy fordítsak.

I: Nekem nagy úgy tűnik.

GÁ: Angolul igen.

I: A szakirodalom szerint fontos legalább két nyelv, a forrásnyelv és a célnyelv jó szintű ismerete.

GÁ: Szerintem az elég, ha a magyart elég jól tudom.

I: Ezért fordítasz szívesebben angolról magyarra.

GÁ: Igen. Érdekes módon mégis azt veszem észre az órákon, hogy a magyarról angolra fordításaim sokkal jobban sikerülnek. És ez aláássa kicsit a magyar tudásomba vetett önbizalmamat.

I: Milyen fajta más tudás kell a fordításhoz?

GÁ: Alvás. Tudjon az ember aludni. Komolyan mondom. Hogyha az ember nem tudja… én nagyon szerencsés vagyok abban, hogy rohadt rövid idő alatt kipihenem magam. Nekem 3 óra alvás annyi, mint másnak 7.

I: De mondjuk, a japán gazdaságról kell fordítani egy szöveget. Akkor elég-e az a szókincs, amit szótárban megnézel, elegendő-e a nyelvi szabályok ismerete?

GÁ: Nem, hát kontextusban kell a dolgokat látni. Azért, hogyha az ember nincs képen arról, hogy mi a helyzet Japánban…

I: Vagy, hogy esetleg teázás közben kötik az üzletet…

GÁ: Jaj, tényleg, a kulturális különbségek!

I: Tehát nem árt, ha az ember ismeri az adott kultúrát…

GÁ: De annak utána tud nézni.

I: Igen. Utána tud nézni, és kell is. De hol? A társaid azt mondták, hogy „Our best friend is the Google". Erről mi a véleményed?

GÁ: Nem tudom, én azért büszke vagyok rá, hogy annyi mindennek nem kell utánanéznem…

I: Jó. Azt mondtad, hogy magyarról angolra fordításhoz nem elég jó az angol szókincsed. Ha angolra fordítasz, akkor milyen eszközöket használsz a fordításhoz?

GÁ: Magyarról angolra… Jó kis papír alapú szótár, online szótár…

I: Használsz papír alapút még?

GÁ: Persze.

I: Másik két diáktársad nem használ papír alapút, csak elektronikusat.

GÁ: Miért? Valamiért, nem tudom, megvan az a… nem is tudom… megbízhatósága. Bár ott is vannak kreténségek, van, ami hiányzik belőle. mégis, van amikor könnyebbnek érzem, hogy fogom és lapozom. Úgy van ez, mint az írással. Az emberek el fognak felejteni írni, mert mind csak gépezünk, gépezünk…

I: Ha kapsz otthonra egy feladatot, egy fordítást magyarról angolra, mit készítesz oda magad mellé?

GÁ: Innivalót. Számítógépen csinálom. Szótárt nem mindig, elmegyek érte, ha kell. Igazából ami fontos még, az egy kényelmes ülőpozíció.

I: Plusz gondolom, amit megtalálsz az interneten.

GÁ: Az az elsődleges forrás, igen.

I: Kétnyelvű szótárakat használsz, vagy inkább egynyelvűeket?

GÁ: Kétnyelvűeket. Egynyelvű is van, de a szinonimákat könnyebben megtalálom például az interneten.

I: Mi a helyzet a korpuszokkal?

GÁ: Hm… (Hosszú hallgatás).

I: Az oktatás során találkoztatok korpuszokkal? Foglalkoztatok ezzel a témával?

GÁ: Hm… Talán a Cs. tanárnő óráján volt róluk szó.

I: Akkor legalább a tananyagban benne van. Ilyeneket tanultok-e, hogy fordítási módok, fordítási technikák, fordítási stratégiák?

GÁ: Igen. Az a baj, hogy… ezeknél…

I: A stratégia az mire vonatkozik?

GÁ: Hm…

I: Arra, hogy bizonyos dolgokat, szófordulatokat hogy fogsz lefordítani. Vannak kedvenc, bevett, hogy is mondjam… fogásaid?

GÁ: Vannak kurzusok, amelyekből kihalászhatjuk a számunkra hasznos metódusokat, de amúgy…

I: Ösztönös?

GÁ: Igen.

I: Mi a helyzet, ha olyan szöveget kapsz, ami tele van jogi szófordulatokkal, vagy egy általános szöveget, de az tele van idiómákkal?

GÁ: (Nevetés) Alaptörvény??

I: Akár. Vagy például egy szövegben azt kell lefordítanod, hogy a „fürdővízzel együtt kidobták a gyereket”.

GÁ: Micsoda?

I: Hát, van egy ilyen magyar szólás. Vagy, hogy az „elkövetőnek bottal üthették a nyomát”. Vagy „megette a kutya a telet”.

GÁ: De nem jogi szövegben, ugye?

I: Nem, nem.

GÁ: Mert azért válasszuk szét… ilyen jogi szövegben nem fordulhat elő. A többségnek szerintem van hivatalos fordítása, csak azt nagyon nehéz megtalálni. Másrészt, van amikor saját magunknak kell kitalálni, főleg versfordításban.

I: Vagy másik irányban. „I am just pulling your leg” és hasonlók.

GÁ: Most az a példa jut az eszembe, hogy az A. C. R-nek az egyik fordítási feladatában volt egy olyan, hogy törpe bögre, görbe bögre. Az első dolgom az volt, hogy keressek angol nyelvtörőt. Nézem, nézem, találtam is párat. Az „r” betű, ami nagyon ilyen domináns benne. Találtam is egy angolt, nem emlékszem rá pontosan, amiben sok „r” volt, aztán a törpe szóval játszadoztam. Magyarul szoktam kísérletezni szóalkotással, hát most az angolban is kénytelen voltam. A gnóm szóval próbálkoztam. Igen, „yellow roller, lower roller” volt, amit végül használtam. A „yellow”-t kicseréltem „gnomer”-re.

I: És elégedett volt vele a tanár?

GÁ: Nem.

I: Végül is megadtad a választ arra, amit kérdeztem. Próbálsz valamilyen ekvivalenciát keresni…

GÁ: Igen. De hát ez magától értetődik.

I: Ez azért nem egészen biztos.

GÁ: És ha magyarra kell fordítani, nyilván egyszerűbb.

I: Összegezve, milyen tevékenységekből áll egy tipikus gyakorlati óra? Milyen feladatokból?

GÁ: Igazából ellenőrizzük a feladatokat.

I: Tehát van egy feladat, valamilyen fordítás…

GÁ: Igen, és akkor a tanárnő vagy a tanár… (Hallgatás.)

I: Gondolj egy órára, hogy mit csináltok. Fordítotok?

GÁ: Nem, órán nem fordítunk élesben. Talán egyedül csak az A-nál.

I: De akkor mégis, milyen feladatokat kaptok órán?

GÁ: Ott igazából elemzés van. Ott… A gyakorlati rész az az otthoni feladat, és órán szanaszét elemezzük a hibáinkat, hol tévesztettük, hogyan, ezt milyen módon lehet másképp…

I: És ez hogy történik?

GÁ: Hát szerencsére…

I: Egyáltalán, hányan vagytok a csoportban, hány ember munkáját szeditek szanaszét?

GÁ: Van olyan csoport, ahol csak ketten vagyunk.

I: Kettő fordítást lehet ellenőrizni egy órán, gondolom.

GÁ: Igen, de majdnem mondatokra lebontva csináljuk. Mindig egy emberét kivetítik, azt nézzük, és össze tudjuk vetni a sajátunkkal.

I: hasznosnak tartod ezt a fajta ellenőrzési módot?

GÁ: Nem nagyon tudnék jobbat mondani, bár most eszembe jutott valami. Rákérdeztél az elején, hogy milyen elvek mentén szoktam én fordítani. Javításnál, például, sokszor van az, hogy bekiabálással megy a dolog, és ezzel nincsen semmi baj. Hanem hogy egy diák fordítását kivetítik, abban van valami, ami helyett más szót lehetne használni, és akkor a tanár felszólít egy másik diákot, hogy nálad ez hogy néz ki, és akkor elmondja, és… na jó. Ez jó. Vagy mondja a tanár, hogy ő hogyan csinálná ezt a részt. És ilyenkor mindig azt nézem, hogy mindenki mondja a magáét, és nem veszik figyelembe, hogy szerencsétlen diák, akinek a fordítását szanaszét szedjük, az ott ül… és hogy amit csinálunk, az bizonyos szempontból a fordítás fordítása. Hogy nemcsak az alapművet vesszük alapul, hanem a diák lefordított munkáját.

I: Lehet, hogy jobb lenne, ha az eredeti szöveget vetítené ki a tanár?

GÁ: Nem, nem erre akartam kilyukadni. Amit mondani akarok, az az, hogy én amikor próbálok belejavítani másnak a fordításába, nem a saját megoldásomat kiabálom be, hanem megpróbálom azt a még mindig jó megoldást bemondani, ami a legkevesebb változtatással jár az ő fordításában. Hogy ne érezze azt már, hogy rossz, amit csinált, mert látom, hogy nem rossz, és jó vonalon indult el. Próbálok úgy változtatni rajta, hogy ne kelljen sokat változtatni rajta.

I: Tehát a gyakorlati órák többsége azzal telik, hogy van egy fordítási feladat, amit otthon megcsináltok, és az órán azt elemzitek.

GÁ: Igen.

I: Mire kapjátok a jegyeteket?

GÁ: Egyrészt ugye órai részvétel, de az nem számít igazán, az elvárt dolog, bizonyos hiányzási határ felett nem is fogadják el a kurzust. Aztán vannak ugyebár ezek a fordítási feladatok, amik közül kettőt vesznek figyelembe.

I: Azokat is otthon csináljátok?

GÁ: Igen. Csak vizsgaszituációban csináljuk laborban a fordítást. Az értékelés azonban úgy megy, mintha vizsga lenne. Úgy tűnik, így több ideje van az embernek, de nem, mert a vizsga, ahogy megtudtam az 6 órás, két fordításara. Nem tudom, oda kispárnát kell vinni, hogy végi tudja ülni az ember. Ez szerencsére csak a záróvizsga.

I: tehát amíg a záróvizsgáig eljutsz, a jegyeket otthoni munkára kapod, amit leadsz a tanárnak. Csak jegyet kapsz, vagy értékelést is kapsz mellé?

GÁ: Mivel az értékelés már az órán megtörténik…

I: Vizsgafeladat esetén is? Vagy olyan feladatnál, amit a jegyért írsz otthon?

GÁ: Nem… Például a Cs. tanárnőnél úgy van, hogy a gyakorlati feladatot mindig megkapjuk kijavítva, kommentekkel. Azt kinyomtatva viszem én már az órára, és az alapján dolgozunk. Ha kérdésünk van, arra az órán még választ kapunk.

I: Tehát mindenki személyre szabott értékelést kap.

GÁ: Igen.

I: Az jó dolog, nem?

GÁ: Miért lenne rossz?

I: Van-e olyan, hogy egymás munkáit értékelitek?

GÁ: Az fura lenne.

I: Miért? Az is egy értékelési mód.

GÁ: Persze, ha szorosan vesszük, akkor persze, akkor szerintem mindenki minden órán elmondja, hogy nekem ez tetszik, vagy nem tetszik, másképp csinálnám…

I: De gondolom, ez nem számít bele abba, hogy milyen jegyet kaptok?

GÁ: Logikailag… ez miért számítana?

I: Nekünk van olyan óránk, ahol a diáktársak értékelése adja az 50%-ot. Ilyen, ezek szerint nincs nálatok.

GÁ: Hát ez elég borzalmasan hangzik. Nem azért, hogy a diáktársaink véleménye nem számít… Szavamra, ez bullshit. Nonsense. Ezzel most nagyon megleptél. Illetve, tudtam ilyet… Mármint hogy diáktársaknak van ilyen feladata, de hogy ez beleszámítson a jegybe…

I: Visszatérve az ellenőrzéshez… Gyakorlatilag minden órán mindenki kap feedback-et arra, amit otthon csinál.

GÁ: Igen.

I: Mi az, amit igazán motiválónak találsz az óráidban? Amire azt mondod, hű, ezért szívesen járok ide.

GÁ: Hm… Nem is tudom.

I: Vagy valami, amit utálsz, amitől előre borsózik a hátad? Amit unsz.

GÁ: B. tanár úr óráit nem szívesen hagyom ki.

I: Ez a tudása vagy a személyisége miatt van így?

GÁ: Both. Leginkább, mert korrekt. Mindig megmondja, mi a baj, és adok a véleményére.

I: Ez mindegyik fontos. És tanulsz is tőle, gondolom.

GÁ: Persze.

I: A tanár tudása és személyisége is fontos.

GÁ: Ami a személyiséget illeti… Van egy oktató, ugyebár, aki nagyon nehéz tárgyat tanít, és nem bírom. Szó szerint irritál. És egyszer leültem vele dumálni, és megbuktatott a tantárgyából, amivel nem is volt bajom, mert teljesen korrekt volt, de valahogy most már úgy vagyok vele, hogy a személyiségi kérdésből nem szabad ügyet csinálni. Hogyha ebből van az embernek problémája, azt mihamarabb tegye félre, mert azt tudom, hogy a tárgyi tudás megvan mögötte, meg hogy ért hozzá. Hogy bírom, vagy nem bírom a fejét, az nem ide tartozik.

I: Számít az, hogy kikkel ülsz ott az órán? A diáktársaidra gondolok.

GÁ: (Hosszú hallgatás). A rögtönzött válaszom az lett volna, hogy nem. De most, hogy jobban belegondolok… igen. De főleg azért, mert vannak olyan diáktársaim, akik úgy… irritálnak. De persze számít, hogy ott vannak, mert máskülönben a tanár nekem egyedül tartaná az órát, meg, tanulok is a hibáikból. Másrészt meg olyan megoldásokat hoznak fel, amire én nem gondolok… ez a tipikus több szem többet lát… Van egy probléma, amire mondanak valamit, és teljesen ki vagyok akadva, mert az nekem nem jutott eszembe… Sokszor kapom magam azon, hogy mások megoldásai által javítom a saját fordításaimat, ami szerintem az egyik alapköve ennek a szakmának.

I: Számít az, hogy mit kell fordítani? Az egyik tanár mindig jó szöveget hoz, a másik nem annyira jót…

GÁ: Arról nem tehetnek. A téma adott… ööö…

I: Van-e olyan, hogy valamilyen szinten beleszólhattok abba, hogy mit fordítsatok?

GÁ: Volt. A B. tanár úrnál egyszer egy alapozó I angolról magyarra fordításnál nekünk kellett szöveget javasolni.

I: És az motiváló?

GÁ: Őszintén? Nem változtatott semmin.

I: Van-e valami, ami csalódást okozott az elvárásaidhoz képest?

GÁ: A specializációval kapcsolatban?

I: Igen.

GÁ: Hm… Ha sokáig kell gondolkozni az embernek, akkor azt hinné, hogy nincs, de azért keresek valamit.

I: Nem muszáj… Esetleg van-e valami, amit tanítani kéne, de nincs… Amit hiányolsz.

GÁ: Na ez már így egyértelműbb nekem. Igazából van még két fajta óra, ami nem volt, tehát szépirodalmi és számítástechnikai szövegek vannak vissza… a skála széles, nagyon bővíteni nem hiszem, hogy kéne. Öö… (madárcsicsergés).

I: Ha ennyit kell gondolkodni, akkor nagyjáéból rendben van a kurzus, nem?

GÁ: Igen, nagyjából rendben van.

I: Most egy nagyon okos kérdés következik. Ha osztályoznod kellene egytől ötig, az óráidat hogyan értékelnéd.

GÁ: Átlagot mondjak?

I: Igen. Egy számot egy és öt között.

GÁ: Az nehéz. Hm…

I: Ha mindig mindennel elégedett vagy, az nyilván 5, ha semmivel sem vagy elégedett, az 1…

GÁ: Ja, ez ugyanaz, mint a felmérésekben feltett kérdések… Adjunk neki egy 4-est.

I: A tanáraid felkészültek?

GÁ: Afelől nincs készségem. Teljes mértékben.

I: Te, mint diák mindent megteszel azért, hogy jó fordító váljon belőled?

GÁ: Erre is adok egy 4-est magamnak.

I: Ha lehetőséged lenne rá, jelentkeznél MA képzésre fordításból? Bár említetted, hogy ez nálad főleg anyagi kérdés.

GÁ: Attól függ, mit takar. Most meg tudod nekem mondani, hogy ez a képzés mit takarna? Mi szerepelne benne?

I: Azt gondolom, gyakorlatilag minden, ami fordítással kapcsolatos. Ha megnézed az ELTE leírását… Részben biztos szerepelne benne, amit most tanultok, plusz sokkal több elmélet szerintem…

GÁ: Az elég para lenne, mert a fordítás az, hogy gyakorlat, gyakorlat, gyakorlat…

I: Pedig vannak, akiknek fontos az elmélet, mert tanítani, publikálni akarnak. Megkerülhetetlen szerintem MA szakon. De ha valaki fordítóként akar dolgozni, mint te is szeretnél… Úgy tudom, ez a specializáció nem adat neked ilyen papírt.

GÁ: (Hosszú hallgatás.) Szerintem a záróvizsga benn lesz az indexben, de valóban nem ad szakfordítói képesítést.

I: Másképp kérdezem. Tervezed-e olyan szakképesítés megszerzését, amivel a fordítást hivatásszerűen művelheted?

GÁ: Talán a lektorálást végezhetek anélkül is. Valamelyik tanárunk mondott valamit arról, hogy az egyik egyetemen lehet ilyen vizsgát tenni úgy, hogy gyakorlatilag bárki besétálhat az utcáról…

I: És úgy tervezed, hogy ha lehet, teszel ilyen vizsgát?

GÁ: Igen.

I: Van-e valami, amiről nem beszéltünk, de amit fontosnak tartasz vagy kiemelnél a specializációval kapcsolatban?

GÁ: (Hosszú hallgatás). Talán az, hogy megtanultam jobban beosztani a fordáshoz szükséges időt. Ez fontos, mert a fordítás időigényes feladat. A kapott szövegek alapján tudom, hogy egy fordítás kb. 1,5 óra, és így jobban tudok gazdálkodni a napommal is. Szerintem a fordítás határozottan segít ebben.

I: A szókincsed fejlődött-e a fordítással?

GÁ: Szeretném azt mondani, hogy igen, de leginkább a passzív szókincsem. Az szerintem 300 százalékkal bővült. Hogy aztán ebből mennyit tudok aktivizálni, az már más kérdés.

I: Nos, nem akarom az egész délutánodat elrabolni; nagyon elszállt az idő. Köszönöm, hogy vállaltad a beszélgetést, és hogy ennyi mindent elmondtál.

GÁ: Szívesen.

Appendix B: Motivation and autonomy in Translation Studies classes. Student Questionnaire

Dear Student,

I would like to ask you for your help in my research aiming to explore motivation, content and assessment issues in translation classes. Please fill in the questionnaire by choosing the best answers. I will keep your answers confidential.

Thank you for your cooperation,

H. Prikler Renáta PhD student
University of Pécs, Doctoral Programme in English Applied Linguistics and TEFL/TESOL

A) Language competence

1. Which year are you in? ____
2. How long did you study English before entering university? (years)___________
3. What is your English language proficiency level on the CEFR scale? Please, check the table below and circle your level.

B2 C1 C2

Level	Characteristics
B2	• Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. • Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. • Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
C1	• Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. • Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. • Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. • Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
C2	• Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. • Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. • Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.

4. What other languages and how long have you been learning?

Language	Years

5. How would you specify the strengths and weaknesses of your English language competence? Please, tick the areas listed as your strength or weakness.

Strengths		**Weaknesses**	
reading		reading	
writing		writing	
listening		listening	
speaking		speaking	
pronunciation		pronunciation	
grammar		grammar	
vocabulary		vocabulary	
translation / mediation from Hungarian to English		translation / mediation from Hungarian to English	
translation / mediation from English to Hungarian		translation / mediation from English to Hungarian	
other:		other:	

B) Translation as a specialization

6. Why did you choose translation as your specialization? List three reasons.
   a. ______________________________
   b. ______________________________
   c. ______________________________

7. Did you have any previous experience in translation before you began studying translation at the university? If so, please, specify it by circling the answers that fit you most.
   a. doing translation tasks in English classes
   b. translating / interpreting for school events
   c. working for a translation agency
   d. translating literary texts for publishing companies
   e. participating in a course, namely:
   ____
   f. other, namely: ______________________________

8. Please mark on a scale of 1 to 4 how easy you find translation. Circle the most appropriate answer and explain why. (1 – the easiest; 4 – the most difficult)

a)	from English into Hungarian	(easy) 1	2	3	4	(difficult)
b)	form Hungarian into English	(easy) 1	2	3	4	(difficult)

a)______________________________
b)______________________________

9. Please mark on a scale of 1 to 4 how difficult you find the listed activities when translating a text. Circle the answers that fit you the most. (1 – the easiest; 4 – the most difficult)

Activity	**Difficulty**			
spelling	1	2	3	4
translating words	1	2	3	4
translating set lexical phrases (including idioms)	1	2	3	4
sentence structure	1	2	3	4
word order	1	2	3	4
addressing	1	2	3	4
preserving formality	1	2	3	4
preserving genre characteristics	1	2	3	4
cultural, social and professional differences	1	2	3	4
Other:	1	2	3	4

10. Are you planning to continue your translation studies at MA level? Please, circle the answer that fits you, and give your reasons, too.

a) Yes   b) No

____

____

11. In what ways do you think you will be able to use your translation skills after graduation?

____

____

C) The content of the courses

12. What did you expect to learn in the translation classes before you started the program?

____

____

____

13. How did the curriculum meet your expectations?

____

____

____

14. Is the number of the classes provided in the program enough to improve your translation skills? Please, circle the answer that fits you.

a) Yes b) No

15. Name the activities / tasks you find the most useful for developing your translation skills. Give your reasons, too.

____
____
____

16. Name the activities / tasks you find the least useful for developing your translation skills. Give your reasons.

____
____
____

17. In what ways do you think the courses could be more useful?

____
____
____
____

D) Learner autonomy

18. How do you prefer to work in your translation classes? Circle the option you find most useful and give your reasons.
    a. on my own, because ____
    b. in pairs, because ____
    c. In groups, because ____
    d. Directed by the teacher, because ____________________________________
    ____

19. How do you solve a translation problem? Circle the answers that fit you the most (0=never; 4 = generally)

Problem	**Frequency**				
I ask one of my teachers.	0	1	2	3	4
I ask another student.	0	1	2	3	4
I ask a professional translator.	0	1	2	3	4
I try to find the best equivalent in a printed dictionary.	0	1	2	3	4
I use online tools (Google, dictionaries)	0	1	2	3	4
I consult a corpus.	0	1	2	3	4
I simply omit the word/expression.	0	1	2	3	4
I use my own words to give back the essence of the problematic part.	0	1	2	3	4

Other ___________________________	0 1 2 3 4

20. What translation tools do you use when you do your home assignments? Number the options to mark their frequency. (0 – never; 7 – generally)

Translation tool	**Frequency**	**Example(s)**
printed bilingual dictionaries		
printed monolingual dictionaries		
online tools		
what Google offers		
a software		
a corpus		
Other ________________________		

21. How useful do you find the listed classroom activities and home assignments? Please, circle the option that fits you most. (0 – not useful at all; 4 – the most useful)

a) a longer text translated at home, to be submitted at the end of the term

0 1 2 3 4

b) several shorter pieces throughout the course

0 1 2 3 4

c) analysing translations by professionals

0 1 2 3 4

d) analyzing peer translations (e. g. home assignments)

0 1 2 3 4

e) comparing translation strategies

0 1 2 3 4

f) other,____

0 1 2 3 4

22. Which of the above listed activities do you find the most useful of all? Why?

____

____

23. How do you use the translation skills you learnt out of classroom? Give a few examples.
____
____

24. How do you prepare for an exam? Circle the option that fits you most.

a. individually b) with a tutor c) with fellow students
d) in another way, ____

25. How do you benefit from the evaluation received for your exam tasks? ____________
____

26. What do you think could help you to become more autonomous in your translation studies? ____
____

27. There are nine statements here regarding ways to learn translation and two different columns. The one on the left asks how responsible you think you should be for doing this to yourself. The one on the right asks you to what extent you actually do it. Please, underline the number you find the most appropriate.*

How responsible	
1	not
2	a little
3	to some extent
4	mainly responsible

To what extent	
1	never
2	sometimes
3	often
4	in general

	How responsible did you feel for it?	Statement	To what extent did you really do it?
1.	1 2 3 4	identifying my own strength and weaknesses	1 2 3 4
2.	1 2 3 4	setting my own learning goals	1 2 3 4
3.	1 2 3 4	deciding what to learn outside the classroom	1 2 3 4
4.	1 2 3 4	evaluating my own learning process	1 2 3 4
5.	1 2 3 4	stimulating my own interest in translation studies	1 2 3 4
6.	1 2 3 4	learning from my peers, not just from the teachers	1 2 3 4
7.	1 2 3 4	becoming more self-directed in doing translations	1 2 3 4
8.	1 2 3 4	facing difficulties in translations on my own rather than waiting for solutions from my teachers	1 2 3 4
9.	1 2 3 4	offering opinions about what to learn in classroom	1 2 3 4

E) Feedback and assessment

28. Which type of evaluation is the most frequent in your translation classes? Please, circle the options to mark frequency. (0 = never; 4 = the most frequent)

Type of evaluation	**Frequency**				
by the teacher	0	1	2	3	4
by your peers	0	1	2	3	4
by someone else ___________________	0	1	2	3	4

29. How useful do you find the different types of evaluation for your development? (0 – not useful at all; 4 - the most useful)

Type of evaluation	**Usefulness**				
by the teacher	0	1	2	3	4
by your peers	0	1	2	3	4
by someone else ___________________	0	1	2	3	4

30. How often do you get feedback on what you do in classes?
____

31. How often do you get feedback on your home assignments?
____

32. How does the feedback you get help your development?
____
____

33. What do you find the most motivating in your classes?
____
____

34. What do you find the most demotivating in your classes?
____
____

35. Has it ever occurred to you that you lost interest in translating?
    a. If yes, what was the reason for it? ____
    ____
    b. How did you get over it? ____
    ____

36. What would you change about your classes?
____
____

Thank you very much for your co-operation.

Appendix C: The institutional background of translator training in Hungary: universities

Institution	Level			
	BA	Post-gradual training	MA	PhD
Budapest Business School		specialized translation and interpreting of texts on social sciences and economics		
Budapest University of Technology and Economics, Faculty of Economic and Social Sciences		specialized translation		
		specialized translation & interpreting		
		specialized translation in two foreign languages		
		conference interpreting in two foreign languages		
		conference interpreting in three foreign languages		
Corvinus University of Budapest, Teaching and Research Centre of Foreign Languages (Buda Campus)*			specialized translation and interpreting	
University of Debrecen, Faculty of Humanities	Translation: English - Hungarian (English Studies BA)	specialized translation in the field of humanities (English-Hungarian)	MA in Translation and Interpreting (English, German, French, Italian, Russian, Dutch); translation as specialization	
		specialized translation of texts on social sciences		
		specialized translation of texts on culture and EU English		
		specialized translation in the field of humanities (German-Hungarian)		
University of Debrecen, Faculty of Economics and Business		specialized translation of texts on economics (English-Hungarian)		
University of Debrecen, Faculty of Science and Technology		specialized translation of texts on technical sciences (English-Hungarian)		
		specialized translation of texts on natural sciences (German-Hungarian)		
University of Debrecen, Faculty of Medicine		specialized translation of medical texts (English-Hungarian)		
Eszterházy Károly	EU specialized	specialized translation of	MA in	

University, Eger, Faculty of Humanities	translation (English Studies BA)	texts on cultural history & EU English	Translation and Interpreting (English, German); translation specialization	
	specialized translation (German Studies BA)			
Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, Faculty of Humanities	English translation skills (English Studies BA)	specialized translation of Economic and Legal texts and lector	MA in Translation and Interpreting (English, German, French, Chinese); translation and interpreting specialization	Translation Studies
		specialized translation of Economic and Legal texts training for terminologists		
		specialized translation and audiovisual translation		
		specialized translation of texts on social sciences and economics		
		specialized translation and interpreting for Slavic and Baltic languages		
		training in translation and interpreting for court and public authorities		
		European Masters Conference Interpreting		
Kodolányi János University of Applied Sciences		European Masters Specialized Translation (English and German)		
		specialized translation of texts on economics and social sciences		
		specialized translation of texts on economics and social sciences & interpreting		
Károli Gáspár University of the Reformed Church in Hungary, Faculty of Humanities	translation and English for specific purposes (English Studies BA)	specialized translation in two foreign languages in the field of humanities, religion, law, economics, technical sciences, EU & literary translation (language options: English, French, Dutch, Japanese, Chinese, German)		
	translation and German for specific purposes (German Studies BA)			
University of Miskolc, Faculty of Humanities	translation specialization (English & German)	specialized translation of texts on economics and social sciences	MA in Translation and Interpreting (English, German); translation specialization	

University of Miskolc, Faculty of Law	specialized translation of legal texts as specialization for medical students			
University of Nyíregyháza		specialized translation of texts on economics and social sciences & interpreting		
University of West-Hungary, Benedek Elek College of Pedagogy		specialized translation of texts in the field of technical and agricultural sciences, IT and economics & terminologist training		
		specialized translation of texts in the field of technical and agricultural sciences, IT and economics & interpreting		
		specialized translation of texts in the field of humanities, social sciences, education, arts, art mediation & terminologist training		
		specialized translation of texts in the field of humanities, social sciences, education, arts, art mediation &interpreting		
		specialized translation of texts in the field of natural, medical and sport sciences & terminologist training		
		specialized translation of texts in the field of natural, medical and sport sciences & interpreting		
University of Pannonia Faculty of Modern Philology and Social Sciences		specialized translation of texts on economics and social sciences	MA in Translation and Interpreting (English, German, French); translation and interpreting specialization	

Pázmány Péter Catholic University, Faculty of Humanities	literary and special translation (English Studies BA)	literary translations of English texts	MA in Translation and Interpreting (English, German, French, Italian, Spanish); translation and interpreting specialization	
		specialized translation of texts in the field of humanities, social sciences, law and economics (English)		
University of Pécs, Faculty of Humanities	Specialized translation (German) (German Studies BA)	specialized translation of texts in the field of humanities (French-Hungarian)		
		specialized translation of texts in the field of humanities (Italian-Hungarian)		
	translation as specialization (English Studies, BA)*			
		specialized translation of texts in the field of humanities (French)*		
University of Pécs, Faculty of Medicine		specialized translation of medical texts & interpreting (English)		
Semmelweis University, Faculty of Health and Public Services		specialized translation of medical texts & interpreting (English)		
Szent István University, Faculty of Food Science		specialized translation of texts on agriculture and natural sciences		
Szent István University, Faculty of Economics and Social Sciences		specialized translation		
University of Szeged, Faculty of Humanities	"Basics of translation and interpreting" specialization (English Studies BA) Translation and interpreting specialization (German Studies, BA)	specialized translation of texts on economics and social sciences	MA in Translation and Interpreting (English, German, French); translation and interpreting specialization	
		specialized translation of texts on economics and social sciences & interpreting		
		specialized translation of texts on natural sciences (English-Hungarian)		

University of Szeged, Faculty of Law		specialized translation of Anglo-Saxon and English legal texts for specialized lawyers		
		specialized translation of Anglo-Saxon and English legal texts for legal consultants		
		specialized translation of French legal texts for specialized lawyers		
		specialized translation of French legal texts for legal consultants		
		specialized translation of German legal texts for specialized lawyers		
		specialized translation of French legal texts for legal consultants		
University of Szeged, Faculty of Medicine		specialized translation of medical texts & interpreting (English)		
Institutions total: 26 faculties / units of 17 universities	BA total: 13	Post-gradual total: 56	MA total: 8	PhD total: 1

* These institutes are new additions; they are missing from Vermes Albert's table.

2016 data. Source: http://www.forditascentrum.hu/blog/204-a-fordito-es-tolmacs-szakma-helyzete-magyarorszagon (Vermes A.: Fordítóképzés Mo-n és az Egyesült Államokban alapján)

Appendix D: The assessment scale used for assessing exam translations. Teacher interviews

Dear Colleague,

I am working on my doctoral dissertation titled „Motivation, autonomy and assessment in translation studies classes", and I would like to ask for your kind help.

When studying the assessment scales used in FLA, I focused on the ones which are used to assess translations, and although I could find a few, they admittedly could not fulfill their aim. That gave me the idea to try to develop a scale which targets the written product – that is the translations – of TS students.

I would like to ask you to participate in my study, and answer my questions concerning the methods and scales you use when assessing translations. If you could devote a little part of your time to this problem, I would be happy to call on you in one of your office hours.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Planned interview questions:

How often and how do you assess your students during the term at your translation studies classes?

What is your aim with assessment in translation classes?

What criteria do you follow when you evaluate the written assignments?

What do you focus on/consider important in your assessment?

Do you use any evaluation grids? If yes, what is it like?

How do you grade your students' work?

Although I understand that the final translation exam was cancelled a few semesters ago, I am interested in your opinion on the assessment scale that was used for exam translations.
How is this assessment different from the during-the-term evaluations?
How does it meet your expectations? Is it appropriate in every respect in your opinion for assessing BA translations?

What are the difficulties/challenges of using it?

What modifications would you recommend and why to make it more suitable/appropriate for your purposes?

Transcription of the interview with Rater 1

16/12/2019

Duration: 22 minutes

I: Köszönöm szépen, hogy ilyen gyorsan válaszoltál a levelemre, és lehetővé tetted ezt a beszélgetést. Mivel mondtad, hogy kevés időd van, rögtön fel is tenném az első kérdésemet. Évközben milyen gyakran és milyen módszerekkel értékeled a hallgatóidat a fordítástudomány órákon?

R1: Kétféleképpen értékelek. Az egyik az, amit használtunk, hogy nevezzük… kishiba-nagyhiba rendszer. Ja… Mire gondolsz pontosan?

I: Bármilyen évközi értékelésre. Óraira, házi feladatokra.

R1: Az van, hogy [a hallgatók] minden órára csinálnak egy fordítást, majdnem minden héten, és azt úgy értékelem, ha végső értékelésre gondolsz, hogy azonosítom a kishiábak és a nagyhibákat, összesítjük, ahogy a vizsgán is, plusz kapnak visszajelzést minden egyes problémáról, buborékokban. How often… minden alkalommal, amikor megírnak egy fordítást. Nagyjából hetente, minden feladatnál. E-mailben küldik el a fordítást, és a feedback segít abban, hogy fejlődjenek. A feedbacket a konkrét megoldásaikra kapják.

I: Hogyan történik a hibák megbeszélése?

R1: Elküldik e-mailben a fordításokat, akkor van rá egy napom, mindenkiét kijavítom, kommentelem, h, H, aztán visszaküldöm nekik emailben az óra előtt, így látják a saját fordításaik kijavítását, és az órán ezeket a tipikus meg nem tipikus hibákat átbeszéljük. Kigyűjtöm, PPT-t készítek, így szoktam. Mindenki kap egyéni visszajelzést. Az órán rá is kérdezhetnek azokra a hibákra, amit a sajátjukban bejelöltem.

I: Megkérdezhetem, hogy mi a neve a szemináriumodnak?

R1: Gazdasági fordítás. Fordítási gyakorlat. Nagy része elmegy a hibák megbeszélésével. Rengeteg dolog előjön ezek kapcsán, hogy hogyan kellett volna fordítani, mi lett volna a megoldás, hogy ne legyen ez a probléma. Nagyon alaposan átnézzük.

I: Mi a célod az értékeléssel a fordítás órákon? Van, amire nagyobb hangsúlyt fektetsz? Nyelvtan, szókincs…

R1: Mindenen hangsúly van, egy fordításnál minden számít. Nem mindegy, hogy milyen szövegről beszélünk, hogy milyen célból készül egy fordítás. Egy gazdasági szövegnél mindennek súlya van. A cél az, hogy ne legyen hiba, főleg, hogy nagyon jól utána lehet nézni mindennek. Ebben a nagy hiba-kis hiba rendszerben egyébként le van írva, bár nem túl részletesen, és én ezeket hangsúlyozom. A nagyhiba az tényleg nagyhiba, amikor akár nyelvtani, akár szókincsbeli, akár strukturális, érthetetlen, vagy félreértést eredményez.

I: Milyen kritériumok szerint értékeled a fordításokat?

R1: Ahogy mondtam, ezt a mi általunk használt rendszert alkalmazom, értékeléskor, jegyadáskor egyaránt.

I: Mire figyelsz különösen?

R1: Úgy általában? Mindenre. Arra, hogy a fordítás legyen tudatos, hogy úgy tudják megcsinálni, hogy ne legyen hiba. Én tanítok nekik stratégiákat, tudják, hogy mindent ellenőrizni kell, de végső soron az a fontos, hogy ne legyen értelmetlen mondat, és hogy az értelmét mindennek találják meg, ne csak felszínesen. Kutasson, nézzen utána, ha nem tiszta valami.

I: Ismerik a hallgatók az útmutatóban megállapított követelményeket?

R1: Persze. Általában elérhetővé tesszük nekik, fent van a honlapon. Nyilván a kurzuson nem csak ez számít, de ez jó visszajelzés arra, hogy hogy sikerülne a vizsga. Nem tudom, ki fejlesztette és mi alapján, de azt hiszem, ez ELTÉ-s értékelő, amiben főleg a nagyhiba esik latba. Minden annak a számít, ami az értelmet megváltoztatja, legyen az nyelvtani, központozásbeli. A hallgatók tudják, hogy én ezt használom, ez alapján értékelem a munkáikat.

I: Hogyan osztályozod a hallgatód fordításait?MI számít bele az értékelésbe?

R1: Hogy megcsinálja-e rendesen a feladatait, és hogy látható-e valami fejlődés. Az egész kurzushoz való hozzáállás. Azt szoktam mondani, akkor kapnak jegyet, ha minden feladatot megcsinálnak. Ez azért nem olyan nagy dolog. Fél oldal, nem nevezhető hosszúnak.

Volt egy magyar-angolkurzus meg egy angol-magyar kurzus.

I: Otthon bármit használhatnak a fordításhoz, ugye?

R1: Persze. Ahogy a való világban is.

I: A diákokkal készítettem egy kérdőíves felmérést. Abból egyértelműen kiderült, hogy a diákok nagyon motiválónak találják, ha megdicsérik őket, és nagyon demotiválónak, ha a *hibáik kiemelésével megalázzák őket. Te ki szoktad emelni az egyéni jó, vagy rossz megoldásokat?*

R1: Minden hibát kigyűjtök PPT-be, akár egész, nagyon rosszul sikerült részeket is, és akkor megbeszéljük együtt. Név szerint csak akkor mondom, ha valakinek nagyon jó megoldása van. Úgy szoktam, hogy copy-paste-tel beteszem PPT-be, és akkor megnézzük. Persze, előfordul, hogy ha nagyon béna valami, azt is szóvá teszem. Persze, inkább viccelni szoktunk vele, nem az a cél, hogy bárkit megalázzak. Sokkal inkább megdicsérem azt, akinek nagyon jó a fordítása. A hibák tömkelege, ezzel szemben, leginkább név nélkül jelenik meg az órán.

I: Bár már nincs vizsgafordítás, továbbra is használod a javítási útmutatót. Mi a véleményed róla?

R1: Volt oka annak, hogy a vizsgadolgozatokat kivették rendszerből. Az egyik az, hogy bár megvan ez a grid, nem mindenki ragaszkodott hozzá, és nagyon szubjektíven is lehetett végezni az értékelést. És hát a hivatalos ok az, hogy a specializáció olyan, mint egy minor, és a minoron sincs olyan szigorlat, ami megakadályozná, hogy egy szakdolgozatát már megírt hallgató (major szakon megírt dolgozatról van szó) ne tudjon egy egészen más tárgy, jelen esetben a szakfordítói követelmények nem teljesítése miatt, diplomát védeni.

Egyébként, én Én X kollégával javítottam, szerintem mi tartottuk magunkat az útmutatóhoz, soha nem egyeztettünk előre. Utólag persze mindig megbeszéltük, hogy ki mit adott, és maximum egy jegy eltérés, ha volt köztünk. Nagyjából ugyanazt adtuk, nálunk tényleg működött a grid.

I: Miben különbözik a vizsgadolgozatok javítása az évközbeni javítástól?

R1: Évközben sokkal több feedback-et kapnak a hallgatók.

I: Mennyiben felel meg ez az útmutató a BA szint elvárásainak? Minden szempontból alkalmasnak találod a fordítások értékeléshez?

R1: Van egy olyan hozzáállás, hogy a BA-s szakfordító az nem szakfordító, nem kap ilyen végzettséget, ez csak bemelegítő arra, hogy MA szinten vagy máshogy folytassa a tanulmányait. A grid mindenképpen jó, tükröz egy elvárás szintet, megkönnyíti az oktatók munkáját is, bár vannak, akik lazán veszik kicsit, de ez csak az én véleményem.

I: Mégis, ha valaki komolyan veszi, ahogy te is… Akkor jó? Vagy van, ami különösen jó benne, más meg kevésbé? Lehetne javítani rajta?

R1: Nem is tudom, Nekem az OK, hogy nagyhiba és kishiba alapú. A hibák jól meg vannak határozva, lehetne egy működő skála. Ami, mondjuk, hiányzik belőle, az az, hogy… arra nincs esély, hogy ami nagyon jó megoldás, azt bárhogy elismerjük. Hogy az mondjuk egy

kompenzálás lehetne valamiért, vagy a csuda tudja. Csak hiba, hiba, hiba, kicsi, nagy, egyéb, A kishibák összeadódnak nagyhibává, és mindenütt megjelennek… az viszont nem jellemző az értékelési rendszerekre, hogy ugyanígy megjelenjenek a pozitívumok is, és lehetne őket értékelni. Különösen az olyan jó megoldásokra vonatkozik ez, amelyeket nem is lehet előre jelezni. Pedig ez motiváló lenne, de a vizsgák sajnos neme erről szólnak. Lehetne balanszba hozni a pozitívumokat a negatívumokkal. Számomra újfajta megoldás lenne, ha egy olyan skála készülne, ami a pozitívumokra koncentrál. Ez nyilván nem az alapmegoldásokra vonatkozik, hanem a kifejezetten nehezebb szerkezetekre. Szerintem ez átgondolandó.
Egyébként nekem ez a skála is könnyen használható, jól követhető.

I: Szerinted van valami, amit nem érintettünk?

R1: Nagyon sok kérdést tettél fel, és szerintem jókat.

I: Akkor ennyi lett volna. Köszönöm szépen, hogy időt szántál rám, és elmondtad a véleményedet.

Transcription of the interview with Rater 2

18/12/2019

Duration: 54 minutes

I: Először is szeretném megköszönni, hogy itt vagyunk, és beszélgetsz velem a fordításértékelés nagy kérdéseiről. Belegyezel, hogy rögzítsük a beszélgetést?

R2: Természetesen.

I: Elsőként azt kérdezném meg, hogy évközben milyen gyakorisággal, és milyen módszerekkel értékeled a hallgatóidat a fordítástudomány órákon?

R2: Jellemzően szemináriumokat, gyakorlatokat tartunk, három olyan szeminárium van félévekre elszórva, számítástechnikai szakszövegek fordítása, humán- és társadalomtudományi szakszövegek fordítása, műfordítás – ezt a hármat szoktam csinálni. A számítástechnikai szakszöveg fordítása talán a legegyszerűbb. Ezek javításához az értékelési skálát alkalmazom, hogy szokják, hogy lássák azt, hogy mi az a szint, amit fordítóként hozni kell ahhoz, hogy valaki munkát is kapjon, ne csak papírja legyen. Hétről hétre fordítunk, hasonló hosszúságú, 2000 – 4000 n hosszúságú, 1 hetes munka, megbeszélem velük, hogy időre töltik fel, 2 nap után kell visszatölteni a kész fordítást, majd változó rendszerben egymást lektorálják. Órán véletlenszám generátor segítségével kisorsoljuk, hogy kinek a fordítását nézzük meg úgy, hogy mindenkinek nyitva van közben a sajátja, és összehasonlítjuk a megoldásokat. Nézünk egy konkrét szöveget, abban megkeressük a félrecsúszásokat. Én olvasom a forrásnyelvet, hangosan, és mindenki nézi hozzá a saját fordítását, mert nagyon gyakran, ha hangosan elhangzik egy mondat, akkor derül ki, hogy valami elcsúszott. Ezt muszáj. Számítástechnikai szakszövegeknél nyilván az a legnagyobb kérdés, hogy lehet-e úgy fordítani, hogy valaki nem ért a számítástechnikához, nem ismeri azt a területet, amiről fordít. Nagyon egyszerű nyelvvel indulunk.

Egy fordítást javítunk ki együtt, van egy mid-term, és van egy final test, és a kettőből egyszer kell átmenni. A heti feladatokra nem kapnak jegyet, az gyakorlás, viszont, ha valakit kisorsol a számítógép, és az a szövege olyan, hogy adható rá jegy, azt megtarthatja. 3 lehetőségük van jegyet szerezni, a 3 jegyből a legjobbat kapja a diák.

I: Mi a célod az értékeléssel a fordítás órákon?

R2: Egyrészt az, hogy a diákok lássák, szokják a szintet, amit fordítóként teljesíteni kell. A másik, hogy szakmai visszajelzést kapnak arról, hogy ők hogyan látják önmagukat, a társaik hogyan látják őket, és hogy én hogy ítélem meg a munkájukat. És ebből áll össze a végső jegyük, amit akkor is megkapnak, ha nem feltétlenül reális.

I: Milyen kritériumok szerint értékeled a fordításokat? Mi az, ami neked, javítónak különösen fontos egy fordításban?

R2: Elolvasom a szöveget. Az olvashatóság az utolsó szint. Ezek a hallgatók bajban vannak az angollal, de leginkább a saját anyanyelvükkel. Más szemináriumokon egy olyan értékelési rendszert léptettem életbe eltérő hangsúlyokkal, ami 3 komponensű. Az egyik komponens az önértékelés, ami max. 30%-a az értékelésnek, ami arról szólt, mennyit készült az órára, és hogy az olvasmányokból mennyit olvasott el a félév folyamán, és ez alapján készít egy rövid szöveges önértékelést, amit aztán egy 0-30-ig terjedő skálán egy egész számmal kifejez. A második láb a társak értékelése, akik az adott hallgató kiselőadását értékelik. A harmadik az írásbeli munka értékelése a tanár által. Ebből a 3 komponensből áll össze egy jegy úgy, hogy átlagot számolok a társak értékeléséből, az önértékelés %-át úgy, ahogy az önértékelő diák megadta, beírom, és a szakmai rész értékelését is megkapják, ebből összeáll a jegy. Végül megkérem őket, nézzék meg, hogy a 3 elem mennyire korrelál egymással. Érdekes, ahogy az egymáshoz való viszony alakul. Ezt a módszert azonban fordításnál nem alkalmazom.

I: Mi az akkor, amit a fordítások értékelésénél különösen fontosnak tartasz?

R2: A szakfordításról már volt szó. A humán-társadalmi szövegek fordításakor azt igyekszem tanítani nekik, hogy jól megírt terminológia, fogalmi háttér van, amit ismerni kell, és a legfontosabb kritérium az a gondolati pontosság. Ismerniük kell az adott tudományterületet, annak az alapjait legalább, és itt olyan szövegrészletek kerülnek elő, ahol szükséges háttér információnak a begyűjtése. Meg kell tanulniuk észrevenni, hogy ott valami van, például egy szakkifejezés, aminek utána kell járni. Tanulnak természetesen terminológiát, és mégiscsak anglisztika képzésről van szó, és az egyéb tárgyaikon, kultúratudomány, irodalomtudomány, nyelvészet, tanulnak ilyen dolgokat. Az a modern kultúratudományos gondolkodás, ami az angolszász világot 40-50 éve jellemzi, ami az irodalmat pl. a kultúra igen kicsi részének tekinti, az egyáltalán nem jött át a tantárgystruktúrába. A bevezető kurzusok keretében nyelvészetből, alkalmazott nyelvészetből, interkulturális kommunikációból, irodalom és kultúra elméletből kapnak ilyen tudást, de az jellemzően elméleti szintű.

Értékelésben itt nagyobb hangsúlyt kap a gondolatiság, az érvelés, amit nehezebb értékelni, itt a H-k kerülnek előtérbe. Itt hatalmas hangsúlyt fektetünk például a félrefordításra, kihagyásra, betoldásra. Mindkét kurzuson csak az kap jegyet, aki minden fordítását időben beadta. Ez azért fontos, mert a fordítók határidőre dolgoznak. Ez rászoktatás a rendszeres munkára, egy fordító attól fordító, hogy folyamatosan munkában van, és a készségeit karbantartja. Számítástechnikai szövegeknél a terminológia a hangsúlyosabb, itt talán a háttértudás. Előbbi pontosabb, precízebb nyelv kellene, hogy legyen, azt könnyebben is veszik – ha értenek a számítástechnikához.

A harmadik kurzus a műfordítás. Én azt gyakorlatilag nem osztályozom. Ez nem is vizsgaanyag. Ez inkább jutalomjáték a képzés végén, nemcsak fordítói, hanem kreatív feladat is, mert a jellegéből adódóan rövid szövegeket – novella hosszúság – fordítanak, 3 – 8 óra alatt. Ez félig szakma, félig művészet.

I: Használsz ezekhez javítási útmutatót? Ha igen, milyet?

R2: A műfordítás kivételével a közös skálát alkalmazom, más hangsúlyokkal, hozzáigazítva a gyakorlati óra céljához.

I: Bár tudom, hogy a fordítás záróvizsgát kivették a szakfordítói kurzusból, érdekelne a véleményed a vizsgadolgozatok javításához használt javítási útmutatóról.

R2: A záróvizsga azért került ki a programból, hogy ez egy nagyon rövid, és külön képesítést nem adó program, és ezért az értékelés hangsúlyait inkább a szemináriumokon és a gyakorlatokon kellene érvényesíteni. Ez a szakfordítói értékelési skála az ELTE hasonló értékelési skálája alapján készült, kis könnyítéssel, a hibák számában ide-oda csúsztattuk a határokat, és kicsit más kritériumrendszerrel a Hu-En és az En-Hu fordítás esetében. Ez gyakorlatilag megszűnt, az utolsó hallgatók esnek át ezen a szakfordítói vizsgán. Most, és tavasszal lesz még néhány hallgató, aki vizsgát akar tenni.

Nagyon sok kritika érte kívülről-belülről ezt az értékelési rendszert, én egyetlen egy kritikát tudok vele szemben fenntartani: túlságosan megengedő. Nemcsak az, hogy megengedő, tehát nincsenek mindene esetben világosan meghatározva a kritériumai. Szögezzük le, ez egy hiba alapú értékelés. Egy nagyhiba – kishiba alapú rendszer, ezenfelül 6 kishiba egyenlő egy nagyhibával, és ez alapján van skálázva egy jegy, ami Hun-E esetében 6 nagyhibát enged meg 2000 n terjedelmű fordításban.

I: A nagyhibák elég jól meg vannak határozva.

R2: Igen. Viszont azt gondolom, hogy 2000 leütésnyi szövegben, amire a hallgatónak 3 órája van bármely irányban, az 5 nagyhiba rengeteg. Ilyen terjedelmű szövegben megengedhetetlen egy fordító számára. Maguk a kritériumok is pontosításra szorulnak, ezzel az értékeléssel gyakorlatilag olyan embereket enged ki a program, akiknek esélyül sincs arra, hogy fordítóként munkálkodjanak.

I: Miben látod az okát annak, hogy sok esetben nagy különbségek vannak az értékelők által adott jegyek között?

R2: Egyrészt különböző elvárásokkal állunk neki ennek az egésznek. Mindenkinek más és más fordítói tapasztalata van, fordítói gyakorlata, kérdés az, hogy ezt a gyakorlatot milyen területen szerezte meg, milyen rendszerességgel fordít. Szerintem az a fordító, aki könyveket fordított le… Az oktatóknál is nagyon megoszlik, hogy ki milyen terülten fordított és mennyit. Csak egy példát mondok. Visszatérő probléma volt a kollégák között, hogy egy bonyolult mondatszerkezetnek a felbontását és feldarabolását több mondatba az egyik kolléga szerint minden esetben meg kell tennünk, mert az a feladatunk, hogy egy felhasználóbarát szöveget állítsunk elő. Egy más területen ez a hozzáállás megengedhetetlen. Vajon meg kell-e őriznünk irodalmi szöveg esetében a szövegben előforduló szándékos hibákat vagy jobbra kell fordítanunk, stilisztikailag felfelé kell-e fordítanunk, vagy meg kell hagynunk az eredeti darabosságát, figyelembe kell-e vennünk a szövegromlást, amikor az eredeti forrásszöveg is olyan minőségű, amilyen. Ezek mind olyan kérdések, amelyekben még egy ilyen kis oktatói közösségen belül sincs egyetértés. Nem vagyok benne biztos, hogy gyakorló fordítóként mindenki észreveszi például a hogy-ok használatát, azt hogy ott vesszőre van szükség. A fáradtság, a figyelmetlenség, adott esetben más nyelvi igény is közrejátszhat abban, hogy nagy eltérés van két jegy között.

Eltérések mindig lesznek, kérdés, hogy ezek… szerintem abban, hogy mi a H, abban nem kellene ekkora szórást mutatni az értékelésnek, mert az jól definiált. A kishibákkal nehezebb, sokszor az van, hogy van egy végzős hallgató, akinek a technikai lebonyolítására a vizsgának, két hét a vizsgaidőszak, és ebben az időszakban kellene megszerezni neki az összes, félévre esedékes fordítói jegyet. És nekünk úgy kellene 2 vizsgaidőpontot hirdetni, hogy az beleférjen ebbe a két hétbe, hogy ki tudjuk rendesen javítani, miközben még zajlik az oktatás. Kell időt hagyni a fellebbezésre – a szórás miatt. Mindig van egy külsős, aki annyira szorítkozik, hogy a jobb eredményt adja meg a diáknak.

I: Milyen módosításokat javasolnál ahhoz, hogy a javítási útmutató job, objektívebb legyen?

R2: A briliáns megoldásokat ez a skála semmilyen formában nem értékeli, az ismétlődő hibákra sem tér ki. A gyakorlatban, ha ismétlődik egy hiba, akkor azt egyszer számoljuk, mert az a javítás szempontjából is egyszerűbb, és ez a skálában nincs benne, csak mi csináljuk így egyezményesen. Pl, 5-ször rosszul írt terminológiát egyszer pontozunk. Hiányos szövegre sem tér ki kellő részletességgel, mondatkihagyásra. Ez a sála gyakorlatilag egy formai leírás. Ha specifikusan, tárgyterülethez készülne a skála, jobban bele lehetne venni olyan elemeket, mint a faithfulness, mert az teljesen más dolgot jelent számítástechnikai és humán szövegek fordításánál. Ez a skála javarészt formai szempontok alapján írja le, hogy mi nagyhiba és kishiba, nagyon nehéz egy viszonylag elvont fogalmi értékelést végezni vele. Nem veszi figyelembe a szöveg szak-specifikus tulajdonságait. Nem igazítja rá arra az értékelést. Lehetne egy ún. alapskála, amit szak-specifikusan kellene súlyozni. A tartalmi szempontok ebben a skálában nem jelennek meg. Az első három szöveget még nagyon szorosan javítja az ember, aztán a későbbiekben már szinte tudja izolálni a hibákat, különösen a típushibákat, amelyek kétféleképpen égnek be a két javító memóriájába, attól kezdve másra koncentrálnak, ami különbségekhez vezet az értékelésben. Ha én kardinális pontokat azonosítok a szövegben, amelyekről azt gondolom, hogy meg kell lenniük, lehet, hogy a kolléga nem ugyanazokat azonosítja, vagy másképp ítéli meg őket. Régebben csináltunk olyat, hogy az elsőt együtt javítottuk, és azonosítottuk azokat az elemeket, amire mindketten odafigyelünk a továbbiakban. Jó, ha van skála. Ez a kályha, amitől elindulunk. Szemináriumon visszajelzést ad arra, hogy a hallgatónak mire kell figyelnie. Ez egészülhetne ki szöveg specifikus elemekkel. És ez talán végszó is lehetne.

I: Azt gondolom, minden lényeges dologról beszéltünk. Elnézést kérek, hogy túl sok idődet elraboltam. Köszönöm, hogy a rendelkezésemre álltál.

R2: Én köszönöm, hogy megkerestél, és beszélgettünk.

Transcription of the interview with Rater 3

24/01/2020

Duration: 45 minutes

I: Köszönöm, hogy elfogadtad a meghívásomat erre a találkozóra. Már a levelemben említettem, hogy a vizsgafordításhoz használt javítási skáláról szeretnék beszélni veled.

R3: Az egyetlen javítás, amiben részt vettem, az a legelső felvételi volt. Egy 40 pontos minisztériumi kulcsot használtunk, ami elég jól működött, ha valaki jó volt, viszont nagyon gyorsan halmozta a hibákat.

Ha az embernek nincs szókincse, nem tud fordítani. Fordítókurzusokon, mint autodidakta vettem részt, ösztönös fordítóként. Akkor estem ki a kurzusból, amikor csökkentették az autonómiámat, és nem engedtek kreatív fordításokat, pl. könnyűzenei szövegeket fordítani. Azzal, hogy csak szakszövegeket fordíthattak, károsultak a hallgatók, hiszen nem voltak megfelelő szinten, és semmilyen papírt nem kaptak, ami fordítói tevékenységre jogosította volna őket.

I: Értem. Akkor beszélgessünk azokról az időkről, amikor még tanítottál a kurzusban. Hogyan, milyen gyakorisággal értékeltél?

R3: Egyperces meséket fordítottunk, bármit, ami engem érdekelt. Minden egyes héten együtt fordítottunk az órán, minden egyes héten kaptak egy házit, amit a következő órára ki is javítottam. Skála nélkül. A házi feladatok javításának több fázisa van. Mindig pirossal javítottam, kettes sortávval megírt, kinyomtatott szöveget. A piros javítás sok mindent elmond annak az egy embernek. Az órán, mivel a szöveg ugyanaz volt mindenkinek, minden hiba a csoport hibájaként jelent meg. Ebben a szövegben ezek a hibák kerültek elő… A rövid szövegek előnye az volt, hogy belefértek az órába, és egy rövid szövegben fontosabb, hogy tökéletességre törekedjenek. A leírt feedback mindig egyéni volt, a kimondott mindig mindenkihez szólt, így senki sem szégyenült meg.

I: Milyen kritériumok alapján végezted a javítást?

R3: Tetszett-nem tetszett a diákoknak, de nyelvtanilag pontosnak kellett lennie a szövegnek. A fordítás precízségét értékeltem, különösen a szókincs minőségére koncentrálva. Fontos volt, hogy ne egyszerű, hanem igényes szavakat tartalmazzon a fordítás. Legyen változatos. Szépen kell írni. Ha lenne autonómiám, én úgy kezdenék fordító kurzust, hogy megnézném a fordító szókincsét – méltó-e arra, hogy fordító legyen. Sajnos, nincs igényes szókincsük. Hiába van proficiency exam, nem ösztönzi a hallgatót változatos szókincshasználatra, még akkor sem, ha egyébként folyékonyan beszélnek.

I: Mire fordítottál még hangsúlyt javítóként?

R3: Fontos volt a precízség, még érzelmiség visszaadása szintjén is. Főleg szakszövegeknél nagyon fontos a maximális pontosság, még a központozás vonatkozásában is. Egy rosszul kitett vessző megváltoztathatja a szó jelentését. Ami benne van az eredetiben, az benne kell, hogy legyen a végső változatban. Ha nincs, akkor hanyag fordításról beszélünk. Nem megengedhető a könnyebb megoldás. A változatosságot vissza kell adni, a szó hangulatát is. Ha lehetőség van a tükörfordításra, mindig azt kell alkalmazni. Bűn, ha a fordító a nyelvi játékokat is így fordítja, mindig meg kell keresni a megfelelőt. Például: pertut inni. Hogy lehet visszaadni angolul?

I: Tényleg, hogyan?

R3: Ezt nem fogom megmondani. Neked kell kitalálnod.

I: Amennyire tudom, már nincs fordítói záróvizsga, de amíg volt sem vettél részt benne javítóként, így nem is használtad a javítási útmutatót.

R3: Nem, de azért ismerem.

I: Jó. De meg is tudom mutatni. Elmondanád róla a véleményedet? Például, mi lehet az oka annak, hogy az azonos útmutató ellenére két javító jelentősen eltérő eredményre jut?

R3: Szakfordításokról van szó: irodalomkritikai, gazdasági szövegekről. Melyik értékelésében van nagyobb eltérés? A gazdaságiban kevesebb eltérésnek kellene lenni, úgy gondolom. Mindenkinek van egy saját elképzelése arról, hogy mi a jó. Van egy tendencia, ha magyarról angolra fordítunk, egy idő után az ember úgy érzi, hogy ez a mondat angolul nem mehet tovább, és bontja. Ugyanazt az üzenetet visszaadja. Az egyik értékelő pontot von le, mert a fordító megváltoztatta az eredeti szerkezetet. A másik javító kreatívnak tartja ugyanezt. Vagy, ugyanaz a hiba többször is előfordul. Szerintem nem szabad ugyanazért a hibáért többször büntetni valakit egy szövegen belül. Lehet, hogy az egyik javító csak egyszer büntet, vagy amit első alkalommal nagy hibának minősít, azt később már kis hibaként értékeli, a másik, ezzel szemben, minden alkalommal levonja érte ugyanazt a pontot. A javítók között… nem is tudom, a kollégáim között van-e valaki, aki jól tudja használni a punctuationt. Lehet, hogy a két javítónál ez különbséghez vezet. Vagy, néha szükség van magyarázó betoldásra a célnyelvben, hiszen anélkül a célnyelvi olvasó nem értené. Van, aki értékeli, van, aki bünteti az ilyen betoldást.

Nagyhibákat és kishibákat kell figyelni. A javító néha felülbírálja a kulcsbeli leírást, mert ő máshogyan tanulta. Mindenképpen jó azonban, ha vizsgadolgozatot ketten, és skála alapján javítanak.

I: Most, hogy alaposan megnézted a javítókulcsot, szerinted mi hiányzik belőle? Milyen módosításokat javasolnál, hogy még jobb, még használhatóbb legyen?
R3: Nagy eltérésnél csak úgy lehet közelebb hozni az eltérő értékeket, ha a javítók leülnek egymással, és egy thinking aloud folyamat mentén megbeszélik, miért azt az értékelést adták, és megpróbálják közelíteni az álláspontjukat, esetleg bevonnak egy harmadik személyt. És mindenképpen legyen benne az útmutatóban, hogy hogyan kell számolni az ismétlődő hibákat.
I: Van még valami szerinted, amiről nem beszéltünk?
R3: Csak annyi, hogy gridet én ugyan nem használtam, autodidakta módon javítottam, a tapasztalataimra hagyatkozva, jó, ha vizsgadolgozatot ketten, és skála alapján javítanak.
I: Köszönöm, hogy válaszoltál a kérdéseimre.
R3: Szívesen, bármikor. Ha nem is mondtam sokat, remélem, segíteni fogja a munkádat.
I: Egész biztosan.

Interview with Rater 4
21/01/2020
(The questions /Q/ were sent to the interviewee, who returned the answers /A/ also in writing)

Q: *How do you assess your students during the term at your translation studies classes? How often do you assess them?*
A: The students have to submit 7-8 translations during the course on Neptun. Each class a student gives a presentation of the translation, discusses the hardships encountered, the class collectively comes up with better solutions. The presentation is assessed on a 0-20 scale, based on the quality of presentation, the translation and effort. The students' grades are based on two major translations and a revision of a chosen translation. Students work in pairs, they have to revise a translation and translate and get revised by a peer.
Q: What is your aim with assessment in translation classes?
A: To give grades primarily, and show if the students have difficulties with certain skills.
Q: What criteria do you follow when you evaluate the written assignments?
A: Criteria are set down in a grading sheet available for the exam throughout the course.
Q: What do you focus on/consider important in your assessment?
A: Content and language use.

Q: Do you use any evaluation grids? If yes, what is it like?

A: The exam grid is used.

Q: How do you grade your students' work?

A: See question one. Based on expertise and the sheet.

Q: Although I understand that the final translation exam was cancelled a few semesters ago, I am interested in your opinion on the assessment scale that was used for exam translations.

A: It is still in use, only the revised program canceled the sheet. The scale concentrates on mistakes, which is demotivating.

Q: How is this assessment different from the during-the-term evaluations?

A: Entirely the same.

Q: How does it meet your expectations? Is it appropriate in every respect in your opinion for assessing BA translations?

A: It is good at BA level. Although ideal testing for translations is impossible, the sheet provides a sufficient tool. It is detailed enough to find out if a translation reaches the required level or not.

Q: What are the difficulties/challenges of using it?

A: It does not stipulate the case of repeated errors, whether a mistake should be counted as many times as it is made or not. Does not leave place for giving extra points for creative or better-than-average solutions.

Q: What modifications would you recommend and why to make it more suitable/appropriate for your purposes?

A: Extra points should be given for outstanding solutions, which could lower the final number of errors. Counting only the errors demotivates the students on the long run.

Appendix E: Rater questionnaire on the two (PIER vs. UP) assessment scales

ER1

1. Which of the two scales do you find better for assessing translations? Please, explain your choice.

PIER	UP	Explanation
X		PIER is much more reflective and surprisingly easier to evaluate.

2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each scale?

	Advantages	Disadvantages
PIER	Fair, easy to use, good options offered	Difficult to evaluate if options are not in the key
UP	No advantages	Too rigid, does not evaluate the standard of English as well as PIER.

3. Which of the two scales offers a fairer assessment? Please, explain your choice.

PIER	UP	Explanation
X		I regard PIER as a fair and apt method, however there are options not presented in the key. Yet, the latter offered a wide variety of options ranging from moderate to advanced.

4. Is there anything you would change in the scale you marked better in the first question? If yes, specify it, please.

No, I have found it fair and since I used the method with PROFEX (PROficiency EXamination) is an English for Legal and Administrative Purposes (http://profex.aok.pte.hu/en) for seven years as an interrogator, from results we have seen a steady growth in good solutions.

5. Any other remark: Looking forward to having the results of the empirical research.

ER2

1. Which of the two scales do you find better for assessing translations? Please, explain your choice.

PIER	UP	Explanation
x		- It is easier to use because of the pre-selected items. - It aims to look for what the candidate knows.

2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each scale?

	Advantages	Disadvantages
PIER	- easy to use - you do not have to identify the errors just have to choose from the list - the evaluation process takes shorter time than other, error-based methods	- the pre-selecting process means extra work and also involving extra people - the pre-selected items can be used for one test only - the pre-selected items do not cover all the errors, so the grade might be misleading
UP	- it is uniform; can be applied any time for any test, so the preparation of the assessment tool does not require extra time - if used in a responsible way, all errors and mistakes can be identified in a test	- as it is error-based, it can have demotivating effect both on the test takers and the raters - although it gives a detailed description for each error type, it still allows subjective choices in error treatment

3. Which of the two scales offers a fairer assessment? Please, explain your choice.

PIER	UP	Explanation
		Both scales can offer fair assessment if they are used in a responsible way, however, the PIER tool offers more objective assessment, as it does not involve the rater's subjective choice in error treatment

4. Is there anything you would change in the scale you marked better in the first question? If yes, specify it, please. ---

5. Any other remark:

   I would define the number or percent of pre-selected items based on the length of the text. I also would welcome a proper training on how to use the tool.

ER3

1. Which of the two scales do you find better for assessing translations? Please, explain your choice.

PIER	UP	Explanation
	X	PIE does not assess the whole text, parts of it remain unchecked with mistakes; therefore, it involves the element of luck. The old scale assesses the whole text; therefore, both major and minor problems in the translation are considered in the process of assessing candidates. All in all, the old scale better assesses the translation performance of examinees than the PIE scale.

2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each scale?

	Advantages	Disadvantages
PIER	Texts are easier to assess, it is more objective. However, it may be time-consuming to keep in mind all the possible answers for the various items in the key.	Parts of the text are not assessed. However, the translator must be able to translate the whole text in the real world where there are no unimportant sentences. The key may not include all possible answers or may include questionable answers; which may question the reliability of the answers in the scale.
UP	It assesses the whole text. Mistakes are discovered and taken into consideration in the final evaluation of the examinee's performance.	It is subjective, it may be hard to classify mistakes; therefore, there may be minor differences between the assessment of various examiners, which may question inter-rater reliability. It is much more time consuming.

3. Which of the two scales offers a fairer assessment? Please, explain your choice.

PIER	UP	Explanation
	X	It reflects real life and takes the whole text into consideration when assessing students' performance. It better reflects students' translation skills regarding the use of terminology, their understanding of structures, and their overall mastery of the second language.

4. Is there anything you would change in the scale you marked better in the first question? If yes, specify it, please.
   More detailed instructions for assessors would be appreciated regarding the type of mistakes (e.g. the same grammar or vocabulary problem occurring in the text multiple times such the use of tenses, articles, or punctuation.)

5. Any other remark: No.

ER4

1. Which of the two scales do you find better for assessing translations? Please, explain your choice.

PIER	UP	Explanation
X		Once the items are selected, it is easy to use. Using the selected items for assessment offers a higher degree of objectivity, and a better agreement between the raters.

2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each scale?

	Advantages	Disadvantages
PIER	Fast; easy to use, Offers more objective assessment.	Does not assess the whole text, leaves error uncorrected. The pre-selection process is long. It can be used only for one specific test; a new pre-selection is necessary for every single test.
UP	It is practically an error list, so every single element in the test must be checked in the assessment process.	Concentrating on errors is demotivating both for the rater and the candidate. Although the errors are listed, it is very difficult to decide what counts as a major, and what counts as a minor error, which can result in disagreement between the raters. The scores are the results of subjective decisions.

3. Which of the two scales offers a fairer assessment? Please, explain your choice.

PIER	UP	Explanation
X		Although the old scale processes the whole text, it is difficult to decide on the type of the identified errors, so the rater's decision is often subjective. Using the PIE list the raters check only the pre-selected elements, however, if is more objective, as every rater must accept what is offered in the list; there is no weighting of mistakes, which makes assessment easier.

4. Is there anything you would change in the scale you marked better in the first question? If yes, specify it, please.

   As the PIER scale neglects big chunks in the text, I would definitely include a holistic part to decide how the translated text reads in the target language, and how true it is to the source text.

5. Any other remark: No.