

# DESIGNING THE SYLLABUS OF THE COURSE “INTERNET TECHNOLOGIES IN TRANSLATION” WITH THE REFERENCE TO THE TRANSLATION COMPETENCES AND CHALLENGES OF THE MARKET

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***Abstract:** The paper is aimed to shed the light upon problems of designing the content and syllabus of the course “Internet Technologies in Translation”. By the method of the literature review the study discusses several research questions concerning the key competences of the effective translator, market demands to translators to perform professionally applying ICT tools, milestones in developing technologies for the purposes of the professional translation, enhancing digital competences of the pre-service translators in the context of the formal education. Based on the analysis of the recent publications and successful practices of other institutions the tentative syllabus is designed and presented in the paper. The conclusion of the article discusses solutions for the research questions as recommendations for defining the content and designing the course aimed to develop digital competences of pre-service translators.*

**Keywords:** translator’s key competences, digital competence, syllabus, ICT tools in translation, Internet technologies in translation.

## INTRODUCTION

ICT have already firmly placed themselves in each area of our everyday and professional lives. Translation is not an exception in a view of the rapid development of applications which facilitate conveying a message from one language to another.

While translation ICT tools are numerous and an indispensable part of the Internet users’ routine all round the world, the problem of ICT tools in the professional translation remains to be under the discussion due to the requirements to correlate real professional needs of translators, translation competences and ICT advances which have been developed of the purposes of translation (e.g. translation project management, text analysis) and market demands.

In usual practice the usage of ICT tools for different professional purposes are not commonly and systematically taught within the professional training programs, and the acquaintance with ICT tools and their implementation into the professional routine often occur through informal exchange of information and experience among colleagues, or when facing the urgency to solve some professional tasks with certain technology. As a result, the implementation of ICT tools carries quite a chaotic character that can affect the quality of performance and cause the rigidity in the professional strategies when coping with the text and its translation. Considering the circumstances, the implementation of the course “Internet Technologies in Translation” in the program of training translators is of special need in order to systematise students’ ideas about ICT and computer-assisted translation (CAT) and empower them with the knowledge and skills of selecting and using ICT tools to perform in the profession effectively.

Regarding the actuality of the topic the paper deals with the problems of designing the content and the syllabus of the course “Internet Technologies in Translation” which is going to be implemented in the undergraduate program of training pre-service translators.

In developing the content of the course the main reference is to the translators’ key competences and challenges which they have to deal with in their professional life. Together with that the analysis of the ICT advances in the area of translation is presented with the correlation to the market demands which are put forward to the translators to perform effectively in the modern globalised and ICT-enhanced working environment.

The study is conducted with the application of the literature review methods concerning the problems of a) the translators’ key competences and the role of the digital competence in the system of the required literacies; b) development of technology in the area of translation and its effects on the specifics of the profession; c) the market requirements to translation and translators, ICT tools in the translators’ professional routine, d) contents of the translators’ training programs regarding the development of the digital competences of pre-service translators, appropriate teaching methods.

The speculations based on the findings from the literature allows to develop ideas of how to overcome the gaps between the market demands, required translation competences, ICT advances and current practices in the area of translation. Based on the research conducted, the syllabus is laid out in the complexity of the aims, content, learning outcomes, and methods of teaching.

The research questions of the study include:

- 1) What are the key competences of the professional translator nowadays?
- 2) What are the market demands to translators to perform professionally applying ICT tools?

- 3) What are the milestones in developing technologies for the purposes of the professional translation?
- 4) How is the digital competence of the pre-service translators developed in the context of the formal education?
- 5) What are the key issues to be taught, discussed, and acquired within the course “Internet Technologies in Translation” in order to prepare pre-service translators for the market demands?
- 6) What methods of teaching should be applied in the course “Internet Technologies in Translation” to facilitate developing required digital competences?

## **1. TRANSLATOR’S KEY COMPETENCES AND ICT ADVANCES**

### **1.1 Digital Competences in the System of the Translator’s Professional Competence**

#### **1.1.1 Translator’s Key Competences in Focus**

Translation is a complex activity which involves knowledge of many fields, no matter what type of translation it belongs to, there are two phases: comprehension and presentation (Qingjun L., et al. 2012).

The problems of the translator’s key competences are widely discussed nowadays and approaches to define the content of the translation competences vary to great extent. As Pym (2012) mentions, most of the currently dominant models of “translation competence” are multi-componential. An important example is the model developed for the European Masters in Translation (EMT), where it is argued that the “translation service provider” (since this mostly concerns market-oriented technical translation) needs:

- competence in business (“service provision”),
- languages,
- subject matter (“thematic”),
- text linguistics and sociolinguistics (“intercultural”),
- documentation (“information mining”), and
- technologies (“technological”) (Pym, 2012).

Al-Hadithy (2015) argues for supporting Tan’s model (2008) which focuses on the “person-oriented” approach to the translator’ competency and training a translator as a ‘whole person’. Tan’s fundamental sub-competences integrate to create a “whole-person” in the translation student including: cognitive competence,

communicative competence in the relevant language pairs on the linguistic level, communicative competence in the relevant language pairs on the pragmatic level, transfer competence, technological competence, and instrumental competence. As Al-Hadithy (2015) states, the whole-person translator competence concept is inspired by the whole-person education which aims to make students develop cognitively, intellectually, technologically, psychologically, and physiologically: “During the various stages of their tertiary translation education, they grow as translators/translation specialists in their cognitive competence, bilingual communicative competence, transfer competence, instrumental competence and other competences” (Tan, 2008; Al-Hadithy, 2015).

To stress upon the thematic component in the translator’s professional competence Qingjun L., et al. (2012) argue that usually the difficulties of translation are not caused by the incomprehensible words, but due to the lack of background knowledge, especially when translating unfamiliar materials. Considering the situation when the translator’s personal knowledge and information may be limited to interpreting the text properly, the digital competences in abilities to use effectively reference materials, such as encyclopaedias, dictionaries, etc. can come in use.

### **1.1.2 Technology in the Context of the Translator’s Profession Nowadays**

The Internet has transformed translation from a paper-based activity to a computer-based activity, as a result of which the market now demands faster, more competitive and versatile translators (Byrne, 2007; Gümüş, 2017). In its turn the integration of the technology into the translation teaching has changed the way a translator follows during the translation process, which as a result influenced the skills expected of them (Odacıoğlu & Korkturk, 2015). With the arrival of CAT (Computer-Assisted Translation) tools such as translation memories, electronic corpora, terminology databases, translation management systems or Internet based applications like Nubuto, translators have hugely started benefiting from these resources even before they finalize the translating process, so have the translation students.

According to Gil & Pym (2006), translation, like general text production, becomes more like work with databases, glossaries, and a set of electronic tools, rather than on complete definitive source texts. Emerging electronic tools that extend human capacities in certain ways fundamentally affect - 1) communication (the ways translators communicate with clients, authors, and other translators), 2) memory (how much information we can retrieve, and how fast), and 3) texts (how texts now become temporary arrangements of content):

1. Translator-client communications. Via Internet tools, professionals from all over the world can be in regular contact by email or various forms of instant messaging. Work can be sent and received electronically, across national and cultural borders.

2. Translation memories. Translation memories (TMs) are programs that create databases of source-text and target-text segments in such a way that the paired segments can be re-used. These tools are invaluable aids for the translation of any text that has a high degree of repeated terms and phrases. The memories do not put translators out of work; they ideally do the boring routine parts of translation.
3. Hypertexts or “Texts without ends”. The way translators work is also being affected by the nature of the texts. Hypertexts are texts that have automated cross-references (links) to other documents, which enable the reader to jump from one text to another. The use of these links means that there is now no clear beginning or end to texts, and that readings are no longer expected to be linear. The digital support has radically extended the role of this kind of text. A major extension can be seen in content management systems. These are computer programs designed to manage databases comprising “information chunks” (generically known as “content”), which are combined and updated to create several customized texts according to the user’s needs. The information chunks are regularly updated and re-labeled. This means that there is no final text, but a constant flow of updated, rearranged, re-sized and user-adapted provisional texts based on a large database of content in constant change (Gil & Pym, 2006).

Qingjun L., et al. (2012) note that with the rapid development of Internet and the swift growth of network information, the network search engine has obtained more and more favour of translators. With the network technology, the translator can find related information to get a general understanding of the related subject through search engines, online encyclopedia, electronic dictionary, online terminology and online newspapers and magazines. As a result, the translation quality can be improved by reducing understanding errors.

According to the findings of Gümüş (2017), graduates of the translation departments report on five purposes of using technology in their work: 1) word-processing tools to type a translation, 2) Internet to seek information, 3) social media to remain up-to-date on both global events and progress in the translation world, 4) technologies to communicate with and exchange information with clients and colleagues, 5) using specifically translation technologies.

Gümüş (2017) notes that graduates employed in more competitive settings, i.e. on the freelance market and in translation agencies, apply translation technologies such as CAT tools or translation memories (TMs).

At the same time translators’ employers/professionals (owner and project managers of a translation company) argue that the most important requirements of the translation market today are quality and speed. Translators need translation technologies and advanced word-processing skills to achieve both speed and quality to complete a translation task. The employers suggest that every student planning to be a translator should receive advanced word-processing training to be able to solve problems when working with different file formats (Gümüş, 2017).

## **1.2 Development of Technology for the Purposes of Translation: A Brief Insight into the History of the Problem**

According to Esselink (2006), machine translation (MT) is probably the translation technology with the most sway over the popular imagination. The first serious attempts to create MT systems date from the late 1940s. However, the early approaches were based on quite sophisticated concepts of code-breaking, and there is little evidence that the aim was to produce high-quality output that would be of immediate use. The main limitations of the day were on the capacity to store and retrieve huge amounts of lexical, morphological, syntactic and semantic information. Several generations later, MT is readily available and relatively functional, MT systems start producing high quality translations in very restricted contexts. However, it can be achieved by limiting the lexical and grammatical structures of the source text (controlled language) and fine-tuning the system to work only with a specific text type. Therefore, it should be stated that machine translation systems are not replacing human mediators, first of all, because the prime use of MT is only to locate the texts and fragments requiring human translation. In order to use MT output professionally, it requires human revision. The better MT systems work, the more texts will be processed, and the more work will be created for human translators.

As Esselink (2006) indicates with the introduction of desktop computers in the 1980s, and computer technology slowly started to make its way to users who did not necessarily have a background in computer programming or engineering. The shift of computer hardware and software use away from corporate or academic computing departments to “normal” users’ desks called for a shift in product features and functionality. Not only did desktop computer users now need software that would enable them to do their work more efficiently, but the software also had to reflect business processes in tune with local standards and habits, including local language.

Technological changes brought about a series of new terms for the language industry. Most prominently, from the 1980s the need to translate and adapt software to new markets led to common use of the term “localisation” rather than “translation”(Gil & Pym, 2006). This term has been defined by LISA (the Localisation Industry Standards Association) as follows: “Localisation involves taking a product and making it linguistically and culturally appropriate to the target locale (country/region and language) where it will be used and sold” (Esselink, 2006; Gil & Pym, 2006).

Technology, through the Internet and access to a world-wide market, has played a major part in the birth of the localization industry. It has made large corporations aware of cultural details that mainly remained unseen until the end of the 1980s (Drouin, 2006).

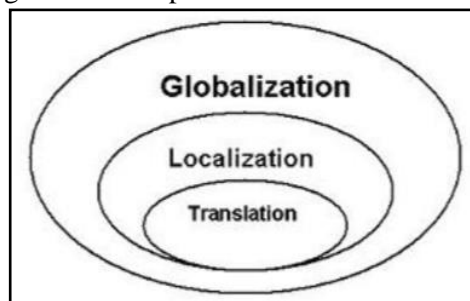
Software publishers increasingly realized that localization was not part of their core business and should ideally be outsourced to external service providers.

One of the first companies to realize there was a service offering to be built around this need was INK, a European translation services network established in 1980. INK became one of the first companies in the world to offer outsourced localisation services. In addition to translation into all languages required by software publishers, this service included localisation engineering and desktop publishing and, most importantly, the project management of these multilingual localisation projects. INK was also one of the first companies to create desktop translation support tools, called the INK TextTools, the first technology commercially developed to support translators.

In 1987, a German translation company called TRADOS was reselling the INK TextTools and a year later released TED, the Translation Editor plug-in for TextTools. Shortly thereafter, TRADOS released the first version of its Translator’s Workbench translation memory (TM) product. Throughout the 1990s, a large number of localisation service providers were born, many of which were little more than rebranded translation firms (Esselink, 2006).

Apart from localisation, internationalisation refers to the adaptation of products to support or enable localisation for international markets. Key features of internationalisation have always been the support of international natural language character sets, separation of locale-specific features such as translatable strings from the software code base and the addition of functionality or features specific to foreign markets. Without internationalisation, localising a product can be very challenging (Esselink, 2006; Gil, Pym, 2006).

By the end of the 1990s the Internet had changed many things in localisation, such as the introduction of globalisation management systems (GMS). Riding the dot-com wave, various companies offered revolutionary new ways of managing translation and localisation projects, storing and publishing multilingual content and fully automating localisation processes.



**Figure 1. Interrelation between globalisation, localisation and translation**

*Source: after O’ Hagan, 2006*

Although this new technology had some impact on existing outsourcing models and processes in the localisation industry, it became rapidly clear that although a GMS could be useful for content globalisation programs (for example multilingual

Web sites), the world of software localisation still required a lot of “traditional” expertise and dedicated teamwork.

With Web sites containing more and more software functionality and software applications increasingly deploying a Web interface, we can no longer make a clear distinction between software and content when we discuss localisation. The traditional definition in which localisation only refers to software applications and supporting content is no longer valid. Today, even producing a multilingual version of an on-line support system, e-business portal or knowledge base could be defined as a localisation project (Esselink, 2006; Gil & Pym, 2006).

Thus, localisation is closely linked to the technology that is enabling new kinds of content such as computer software and web pages. The content imposes the use of new technology, i.e. localisation tools, if it is to be localised adequately. This industrial process was developed more or less independently of traditional translation and directly in response to market needs (O’Hagan, 2006).

While Machine Translation (MT) has not yet made a significant contribution to localisation, tools such as translation memories (TM) and content management systems have affected the entire workflow in which the translation process has to fit.

With the connection to the translation memory, the project Translation Memory for the Acquis Communautaire, DGT-TM, launched by the European Commission in 2007, should be mentioned (DGT-Translation Memory, 2007). It is publicly accessible in order to foster the European Commission’s general effort to support multilingualism, language diversity and the re-use of Commission information. According to the description, provided at the official website, DGT’s Translation Memory as the extraction of aligned sentences can be used to produce a parallel multilingual corpus of the European Union’s legislative documents (Acquis Communautaire) in 24 EU languages. The aligned translation units have been provided by the *Directorate-General for Translation* of the European Commission by extraction from one of its large shared translation memories in EURAMIS (European advanced multilingual information system). This memory contains most, although not all, of the documents which make up the Acquis Communautaire, as well as some other documents which are not part of the Acquis (DGT-Translation Memory, 2007).

### **1.3 Developing Digital Competences of Pre-Service Translators in the Context of Formal Education**

#### **1.3.1 Programs, Contents and Methods**

As Altanero (2006) indicates, academia is often responsive to industry needs. New curricula now pay more attention to the industry’s needs for multilingual skills. According to O’Hagan (2006), for any students who are hoping to work in a commercial translation environment, at least an awareness of what localisation entails is essential. This is not only because students are necessarily going to be



involved in localisation projects but also because various dimensions of the localisation model (e.g. translation tools, workflow, etc.) are spreading into the translation industry in general. So, a certain basic knowledge of localisation is becoming more and more relevant. Therefore, as O’Hagan emphasises, at least a general overview of the localization industry and what localisation entails should be part of the curriculum for translators. Tools such as TMs and terminology management systems are becoming widespread in the translation industry as a whole and therefore should ideally be taught as part of translator programs. On top of being able to manage these tools, basic computing knowledge is important, such as different file formats, file management, tags and character sets that are essential for localisation.

Due to Drouin (2006), we need to familiarise students with the specific challenges of the new media (software interface, websites, multimedia documents, etc.). This type of translation has challenges and constraints— mainly the tools used in the process—just like audiovisual translation or interpretation, which we usually include in a standard curriculum.

Thus, localisation tools should obviously play an important part in the curriculum. However, as Drouin (2006) notes, teaching students how to handle specific localisation tools is not the most important aspect, as these tools and the technical aspects of the material to be translated continuously evolve. We should help students understand the capabilities and, more importantly, the limits of such tools. It is also crucial that they understand when, and in which context, they should or should not use electronic tools. This view is shared by Bernardini (2004), pointing that the role of technology is crucial but not that straightforward. Practice in the use of the latest electronic tool or translation aid should not be considered as a means toward the educational goals. The educational aims are defined as:

- Awareness, an ability to see through language to the ways in which messages are mediated and shaped, to construct the meaning and mediate the culture;
- Reflectiveness, a capacity to practice, store and use specific strategies and procedures involved in translation;
- Resourcefulness, an ability to exploit finite resources indefinitely to cope with new and unexpected challenges, to acquire new resources autonomously, as the need arises (Bernardini, 2004).

In the close stream with the positions expressed above is the message of Pym (2010): “This is a very basic message that comes from general experience, current educational philosophies of life-long learning, and the recent history of technology: whatever tool you learn to use this year will be different, or out-of-date, within two years or sooner. So students should not learn just one tool step-by-step. They have to be left to their own devices, as much as possible, so they can experiment and become adept at picking up a new tool very quickly, relying on intuition, peer support, online help groups, online tutorials, instruction manuals, and occasionally

a human instructor to hold their hand when they enter panic mode (the resources are to be used probably more or less in that order). According to Pym, specific aspects of this “learning to learn” might include: 1) ability to reduce learning curves (i.e. learn fast) by locating and processing online resources; 2) ability to evaluate the suitability of a tool in relation to technical needs and price; 3) ability to work with peers on the solution of learning problems; 4) ability to evaluate critically the work process with the tool.

Stressing on the importance of collaboration of education and industry, i.e. theory and practice, O’Hagan (2006) notes that the industry can feed vital information about practice into academia, where the theorisation of practice can take place. In the long run, theorisation could help practice to advance, as well as help train people in the most effective manner. The industry needs to obtain immediately useful graduates, which are adept at the constant changes that face the industry. The objective in education is to incorporate a long-term view to give students the ability to cope with changes effectively.

In the line of openness of learning and discussing current methods of training translators, Al-Hadithy (2015) criticises traditional classrooms, which are characterised as being teacher-centered, uncreative, rigid, and out of date. Under these conditions the learner passively absorbs the passed on knowledge rather than becomes actively engaged in the learning process, learner’s autonomy and self-confidence are sapped by this focus on the translation product rather than the translation process. Referring to the positions of Zhong (2002) and Kiraly (2000), Al-Hadithy (2015) claims that students are usually trained to be ‘accurate language facilitators’ rather than ‘thinking translators’, the ‘non-thinking’ teaching environment shackles them to follow blindly a set of standards and criteria, the traditional teacher-centered and exercise ridden classroom alone “cannot equip translators-in-training with the wide range of professional and interpersonal skills, knowledge and competence they will need to meet the requirements of an increasingly demanding language mediation market” (Kiraly, 2000; Al-Hadithy, 2015).

Considering the methods of assessments, Al-Hadithy (2015) stresses the importance of rethinking traditional approaches and procedures which focus on the accuracy of the translation product but to implement and use more broadly the methods of a learner-centred approach to assessment that incorporates high-order thinking and life-long learning. Such assessment procedures can include teacher’s observation records, student’s documentation (linguistic and extralinguistic) records, student self-assessment records, translation diaries (in which the student keeps a record of the problems encountered, errors, documentation sources used, time invested, global evaluation of results), online discussion boards to create a forum of real-time formative feedback.

As Al-Hadithy (2015) notes, many studies on translator education point out that today’s translation training programs should go above and beyond improving

students’ linguistic-cultural skills, university-trained translators should be equipped with IT skills, documentation, desktop publishing skills, problem-solving, and marketing skills.

Analysis of the recent publications dwelling on the educational practices in the area of localisation and developing digital competences of pre-service translators allows to highlight strong tendencies for increasing implementation of specially designed programs and courses in the context of the formal education. As Altanero (2006) mentioned, from practically no programs in 1995, there are now many institutions offering courses on localisation, primarily in North America and Europe. As the core of localisation revolves around language, translation and international business, institutions specialising in such areas have integrated localisation topics into their language curricula. Although the focus is still on translation, from the second year onwards localisation is explored in greater detail, alongside pure translation issues and in all translation courses and assignments. Students are trained in specific translation techniques for localisation and become familiar with a number of software applications.

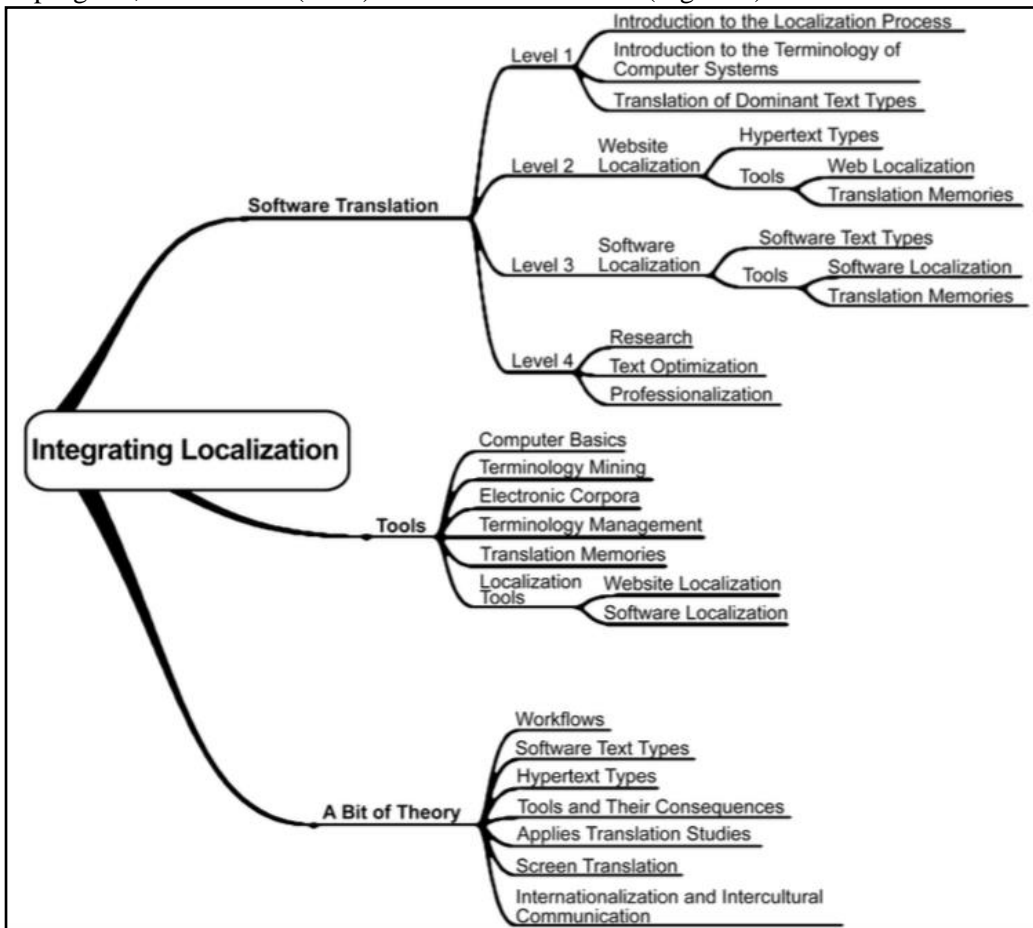
Due to O’Hagan (2006), in the case of Dublin City University, Software Localisation is offered in the second semester as an optional module for Graduate Diploma/MA in Translation Studies course. The backgrounds of the students in this course are varied in terms of professional experience, which is reflected in their computing skills as well as knowledge of translation. However, a Translation Technology module is compulsory and is taught in the first semester. This formula seems to work well, as the students who take the Software Localisation module are those who have particular interest in localisation. They may consider they are able to cope with its technical aspects because they have previously done the Translation Technology module, which touches on some generic aspects of localisation.

Drouin (2006) notes that in the University of Montreal there are two localisation programs, one at the graduate level, the other at the undergraduate level. The graduate program is targeted at translators who want to acquire good knowledge of what localisation is and what it involves. The undergraduate program is geared towards people who have been trained in translation, computer sciences or project management. There is a core group of classes in which students with different backgrounds learn to work together.

It is also stressed that the biggest challenge for the institution is obtaining localisation tools to train the students. The tools are expensive and budgets tend to be very small. In the University of Montreal the solution was found through establishing relationships with small vendors of localisation tools than with the well-established ones. In this way the vendors save money by not providing training institutions with their technology, but the university students, who once they hit the market, would want to keep using the tools on which they had been trained (Drouin, 2006).

In this respect the initiative “Translate Online” provided by the European Commission should be mentioned as well (Translate Online, 2016). MT@EC is an online machine translation service provided by the European Commission (EC). If one works in public administration in an EU country, Iceland or Norway, or in an EU institution or agency, they can use this product free of charge until the end of 2020. Apart from individual users, the MT service is also available to EC information systems and online services. The features of the product are 1) high security - all data processed by the system stay within the Commission's firewalls and can't be seen by outsiders; 2) translating from and into any official EU language; 3) working best with texts on EU-related matters; 4) free of charge. eTranslation is officially launching on 15 November 2017.

Considering the ways of integrating localisation into the translator training program, Austermuhl (2006) focuses on three areas (Figure 2).



**Figure 2. Integrating localisation - General Approach**

*Source: after Austermuhl, 2006*

1. Translation for localisation, takes place within traditional translation practice classes and focuses on software and website localisation.
2. The second type deals with electronic tools for translators.
3. The third part of the general approach on introducing localisation regards seminars dealing with theoretical issues of localisation, e.g. workflow analyses, text typologies or translational constraints derived from, for example, the use of content management systems, translation memories, or localisation tools.

One of the goals of these more theory-oriented courses is to find ways of applying existing translation studies paradigms (for example Skopos theory or Holz-Mänttari’s Theory of Translational Action) to localisation. Courses in the theory part of the model also deal with issues of internationalisation (Austermuhl, 2006).

While researchers from the European countries and USA report on significant advances in the area of teaching localisation and developing digital competences of translators in the context of the university education, the findings by Gümüş (2017), based on the research in Turkey, demonstrate different situation. Thus, according to the study on training translators to meet needs for the market in Turkey, recent and older graduates of the translation departments are not completely satisfied with the provision of the technological training at their departments. The complains concern the following issues:

- 1) the lack of computer laboratories (noted by older generations of graduate);
- 2) technology-related knowledge was limited to the knowledge of the instructors, no systematic training on technology was offered;
- 3) they needed to acquire basic technology skills during the training in order to enter the market more confidently and not to waste time gaining basic skills after being employed, - employers or colleagues in the work place are usually reluctant to help novice translators learn these skills (Gümüş, 2017).

Considering the issues mentioned, Gümüş (2017) notes that a four-year training program may not guarantee the inclusion of the technological component in the curriculum of the translator training program, due to lack of competent trainers or time constraints related to the curriculum. However, trainers should at least inform students that this is one of the main requirements of the modern translation market. At the same time it is stated that translator-training programs are expected to teach the basics of translation-specific technologies, including translation memories and terminology management software. They can also teach how to make effective use of the Internet in the translation process and for secondary purposes such as seeking work, communicating with colleagues or self-improvement through online programs.

## 2. DESIGNING THE SYLLABUS OF THE COURSE “ICT IN TRANSLATION”

Considering findings, ideas, and recommendations of the recent publication, the tentative syllabus of the course “Internet Technologies in Translation” can be presented as in Table 1.

<b>Course Description</b>	<p>“Internet Technologies in Translation” is an elective course for the fourth year students of the undergraduate program of the department “Translation and Interpreting”. The course is delivered during the autumn and spring terms. The main aim of the course is to develop digital competences of pre-service translators in the context of their professional area.</p> <p>The course is designed as a combination of theory and practice in order to develop abilities:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) to learn and translate by locating and processing online resources;</li> <li>2) to evaluate the suitability of the ICT tool in relation to professional needs and price;</li> <li>3) to work with peers on the solution of learning problems;</li> <li>4) to evaluate critically the translation process with the application of ICT tool.</li> </ol>
<b>Course Organisation</b>	<p>The course is going to be delivered in two parts - “Internet Technologies in Translation I” (the autumn term) and “Internet Technologies in Translation II” (the spring term). Both terms last approximately for 14 - 15 weeks including weeks of the midterm and final examination. The classes are given 3 hours per week.</p>
<b>Course Learning Outcomes</b>	<p>By the end of this course students are expected to know:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• basic terminology of the course and operate it when discussing related issues;</li> <li>• place and role of the digital competences in their profession;</li> <li>• how technologies have been developing through time to meet the needs of professional translation;</li> <li>• what is internationalisation and localisation;</li> <li>• the role of culture and strategies of localising the product according to the cultural context;</li> <li>• how to localise websites, software, and other products which require localisation when entering the market;</li> <li>• how to manage translation project;</li> <li>• specifics of freelancing in translation.</li> </ul> <p>Students will be able to:</p>

- 
- test, evaluate and analyse ICT tools for different professional purposes;
  - apply ICT tools effectively to facilitate translation and speed up the process;
  - use ICT tools for effective professional communication.

Students will get skills in:

- managing translation memories;
- applying tools of machine translation;
- using electronic corpora for translation purposes;
- using ICT tools for processing texts of different formats;
- managing the tools of terminology mining and terminology databases;
- managing translation projects;
- applying social media for professional purposes.

### **Methods of Teaching**

Methods of teaching within the course are purposed to reinforce student-centeredness of learning, by constructing dialogical and interactive learning environment. Interactivity and constructive knowledge formation are going to be organised in the following strata:

1. Peers interactivity. By the fourth year of the university education and being exposed to translation as a process and a professional activity, the students are expected to have certain level of the digital literacies together with the experience of using ICT tools for translation purposes. Therefore, it is intended to provide opportunities for the students to share their experiences with peers, learning from each other and preparing to learn about new ideas and practices in the area of ICT tools for translation.
  2. Lecturer-students interactivity. Theoretical material is going to be provided in a form of interactive lectures which implies discussion of technological advances and professional challenges in the area of translation, testing ideas and theoretical assumptions through interacting with ICT technologies and professional communities.
  3. Technological interactivity. The students are supposed to interact with ICT tools by testing and evaluating their capacities and specifics in solving professional tasks of translation. While practically interacting with several ICT tools designed to solve the same or similar tasks, the students will gain skills of managing the tools together with the skills of the critical analysis of the ICT technologies on their applicability and appropriateness to solve certain types of
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problems in order to be able in to find the best decision among the existing varieties.

4. Interactivity with the professional communities and markets of the translation services. In order to gain a broader idea of the real market demands, specifics of the professional communities functioning, and to develop a sense of the place of ICT technologies in the real professional settings, it is intended to provide the students with the opportunities of interacting with translation experts, translation managers, and other translation stakeholders via organising project works and mini case studies.

**Learning Environment and Means of Communication**

The main learning environment is face-to-face teaching, enhanced with the computer equipment and Internet connection for demonstrations of ICT tools functioning, practicing and evaluating them. The interaction with outer communities is supposed to be conducted via social media tools and professional forums for the purposes of the project works and mini case studies. The classroom interactivity is going to be reinforced with the interactivity through emailing and establishing online group in one of the social media tools according to the choice of the classroom participants.

**Project Works and Case Studies**

The topics and specific aims of the project work and case studies are going to be conditioned by the content of the course, level of the students' digital literacies, and learning needs. In the most general terms the project work is going to be targeted to the following problems:

- Localisation: comparing websites / advertisements / goods / services / etc in English and Turkish in order to find out strategies of localising the product;
- Language Corpora: How it can be used for the purposes of translation? (research on language items, translation solutions, translation analysis, etc);
- ICT tools in professional translation: Which ICT tools are the most favourable among in-service translators in different subject areas?
- Analysing capabilities of ICT tools: Comparing and evaluating similar ICT tools designed to solve the same translation problems, defining plusses and minuses in their functioning;
- Terminology databases: How are they applied? What is their place in the real professional world of translators?
- ICT tools in managing a professional translation project: Which tools are applied? How do they function?



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<b>Evaluation</b>	<p>Which tools are dominating in the market?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Demands and expectations of the market: What are the requirements of the employers to translators and interpreters? What is the place of the ICT competences in the whole system of expectations and demands?</li> <li>• Social media tools in translation: How social media is used by professional translators? What tools are the most preferable? What are the purposes of applying social media tools? What are the most effective strategies of managing social media tools to reach professional purposes?, etc</li> </ul> <p>The evaluation of the course is intended to be a combination of the formative and summative approaches. The students are going to have midterm and final exams in a form of tests to evaluate their knowledge of the subject. Together with that they are going to be evaluated on their participation in the classroom discussions, fulfilment of the project work and case studies, and other activities which will be developed due to the learning needs.</p>
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### TENTATIVE COURSE CALENDER

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<b>Week</b>	<b>Autumn Term: Topics</b>
1	Introduction to Course I: Syllabus Overview
2	Digital Competences in the System of the Translator’s Professional Competence
3	Development of the Translation Technologies and Modern Advances
4	Internalisation, Intercultural Communication and Internet Technologies
5	Translation and Localisation
6	Overview Discussion
7	<b>Midterm Exam</b>
8	Computer Basics
9	Localisation Tools
10	Machine-Based Translation
11	ICT tools of processing the text

12	ICT tools of processing video and audio texts
13	Translation Memories
14	Overview Discussion
<b>Final Exam</b>	
<b>Spring Term: Topics</b>	
1	Introduction to Course II: Syllabus Overview
2	Electronic Corpora
3	Terminology Mining
4	Terminology Management
5	ICT tools in Managing a Translation Project
6	Overview Discussion
7	<b>Midterm Exam</b>
8	Website Localisation
9	Software Localisation
10	Advertisement Localisation
11	Freelancing in Translation
12	ICT tools in professional translators' communication
13	Social Media in Profession of a Translator
14	Overview Discussion
<b>Final Exam</b>	

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*Source: Own work*

## CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis of the recent publications and considerations on designing the syllabus of the course “Internet Technologies in Translation” it is possible to conclude the following:

1. Despite the diversity of the approaches to defining the content of the translator’s key competences the common issues for the most of the studies are highlighting the necessity to train translators according to the needs of the market, and stressing that the professional translator’s competences reach beyond the language proficiency and include thematic, cultural, social and managerial components. The indispensable part of the translator’s professional competence is the digital competence which cover abilities not only to use some ICT tools to facilitate translation but to be able to evaluate ICT applications in order to find the most effective decision concerning the requirements to translation and available means.
2. The market of nowadays require from translators quality and speed together with an ability to respond to the customers’ needs for different types of translation. It implies flexibility and openness to life-learning in order to be able to follow the pace of the technological advances and changes at market. The context of professional translation require mostly skills: 1) to operate word-processing tools to type a translation, 2) to seek and critically process information on the Internet, 4) to remain up-to-date on both global events and progress in the translation world through social media, 5) to operate technologies for communication and exchange information with clients and colleagues, 6) to use effectively specific translation technologies.
3. The milestones in developing technologies for the purposes of the professional translation can be presented as a chain of the events and processes: machine translation in the 1940s - introduction of desktop computers in the 1980s and development of CAT tools - localisation of software - availability of the Internet and localisation bringing to internationalisation - networking and hypertexts - translation databases and other Internet-based technologies.
4. The formal education put considerable efforts to meet the needs of the market concerning the skills and competences of translators to function effectively. Translators training programs include courses designed to develop necessary technical skills and digital competences of pre-service translators. Though the endeavours of academicians are accompanied with certain problems, among them: 1) scarcity of the computer equipment, 2) unavailability of ICT tools for practicing due to their high costs, 3) lack of the required digital competences among instructors and their inability to teach recent trends in the area of translation technologies, 4) scarcity of the course hours for developing digital competences among students till the required level, 5) rather theorising than practicing with ICT tools; etc.
5. The content of the course aimed to develop digital competences for the professional purposes of the translators should reflect on the market demands, competences required for the professional translator to perform effectively at work, successful education practices of other institutions and modern technological advances. Due to the rapid changes at the market of ICT tools the

- course should not target the skills of operating specific tools but to develop students' abilities: 1) to learn and translate by locating and processing online resources; 2) to evaluate the suitability of the ICT tool in relation to professional needs and price; 3) to work with peers on the solution of learning problems; and 8) to evaluate critically the translation process with the application of ICT tool.
6. The teaching methods in the course designed to develop digital competences of pre-service translators should follow the principles of student-centered learning, providing opportunities for different types of interaction within the class and with the outside communities in order to facilitate social construction of targeted knowledge and skills.

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