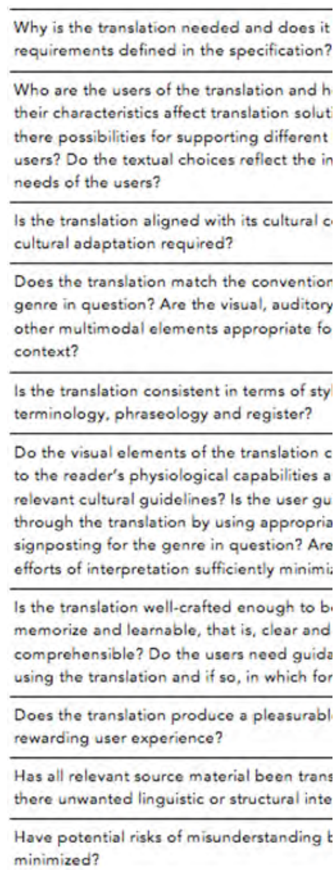
connexions
international professional communication journal

Volume 3 Issue 2 2015

Translation and International Professional Communication

Building bridges and strengthening skills


Why is the translation needed and does it
requirements defined in the specification?
Who are the users of the translation and h
their characteristics affect translation soluti
there possibilities for supporting different
users? Do the textual choices reflect the in
needs of the users?
Is the translation aligned with its cultural c
cultural adaptation required?
Does the translation match the conventior
genre in question? Are the visual, auditory
other multimodal elements appropriate fo
context?
Is the translation consistent in terms of styl
terminology, phraseology and register?
Do the visual elements of the translation c
to the reader's physiological capabilities a
relevant cultural guidelines? Is the user gu
through the translation by using appropria
signposting for the genre in question? Are
efforts of interpretation sufficiently minimi
Is the translation well-crafted enough to b
memorize and learnable, that is, clear and
comprehensible? Do the users need guida
using the translation and if so, in which for
Does the translation produce a pleasurabl
rewarding user experience?
Has all relevant source material been trans
there unwanted linguistic or structural inte
Have potential risks of misunderstanding b
minimized?

BY NC ND

Dep. of Communication, Liberal Arts, Social Sciences
New Mexico Tech

Department of Writing
University of Central Arkansas

connexions • international professional communication journal

published by the Department of Communication, Liberal Arts, Social Sciences, New Mexico Tech, and the Department of Writing, University of Central Arkansas

www.connexionsjournal.org

Editors

Rosário Durão, *New Mexico Tech, United States*
Kyle Mattson, *University of Central Arkansas, United States*

Reviewers

Amparo Hurtado Albir, *Autonomous University of Barcelona, Spain*
Frank Austermühl, *University of Auckland, New Zealand*
Heloisa Gonçalves Barbosa, *Federal University of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (professor emerita)*
Barbara Bonnekessen, *Pittsburg State University, Department of History, Philosophy and Social Sciences, United States*
Deborah Bosley, *University of North Carolina at Charlotte, United States (professor emerita); The Plain Language Group*
Lynne Bowker, *University of Ottawa, Canada*
Richard Brandt, *Department of English, Texas Tech University, United States*
Rebecca Burnett, *Georgia Institute of Technology, United States*
Jody Byrne, *Irish Translators' & Interpreters' Association, Ireland*
Kelli Cargile Cook, *Texas Tech University, United States*
Marjorie Davis, *Mercer University, United States (professor emerita)*
Daniel Dejica-Cartis, *Polytechnic University of Timisoara, Romania*
Julie Ford, *New Mexico Tech, United States*
Mahmoud Galander, *Qatar University, Qatar*
Yves Gambier, *University of Turku, Finland*
Vijai N. Giri, *Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur, India*
Catherine Gouge, *West Virginia University, United States*
Carlos A. M. Gouveia, *University of Lisbon, Portugal*
Maggie Griffin Taylor, *New Mexico Tech, United States*
John R. Hayes, *Carnegie Mellon University, United States (professor emeritus)*
David Katan, *University of Salento (Lecce), Italy*
Manuel Lima, *VisualComplexity.com, United States*
Bernadette Longo, *New Jersey Institute of Technology, United States*
Laura McGrath, *Kennesaw State University, United States*
Ricardo Muñoz Martín, *University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Spain*
Carlos Castilho Pais, *Open University, Portugal*
Anthony Pym, *University Rovira i Virgili, Spain*
Regina Queiroz, *New University of Lisbon, Portugal*
Hermínio Duarte Ramos, *New University of Lisbon, Portugal (professor emeritus)*
Janice (Ginny) Redish, *Redish & Associates, Inc., United States*
Rich Rice, *Texas Tech University, United States*
Hanna Risku, *University of Graz, Austria*
Alexandra Assis Rosa, *University of Lisbon, Portugal*
Ursula Hasler Roumois, *ZHAW Zurich University of Applied Sciences, Switzerland*
Aimee Kendall Roundtree, *University of Houston-Downtown, United States*
Debopriyo Roy, *University of Aizu, Japan*
Jaime Sánchez, *University of Chile, Chile*
Karen Schriver, *KSA Communication Design & Research, Inc., United States*
Kerstin Severinson-Eklundh, *KTH Royal Institute of Technology, Sweden (professor emerita)*
Steve Simpson, *New Mexico Tech, United States*
Ali Simsek, *Anadolu University, Turkey*
David Sless, *Australian National University; Communication Research Institute, Australia*
Clay Spinuzzi, *University of Texas at Austin, United States*
Alcinda Pinheiro de Sousa, *University of Lisbon, Portugal*
Joo-Seng Tan, *Nanyang Technological University, Singapore*
Jean Vanderdonckt, *Catholic University of Louvain, Belgium*
Iris Varner, *Illinois State University, United States*
Sue Walker, *University of Reading, United Kingdom*

Associate Editors

Carol Barnum, *Southern Polytechnic State University, United States*
Karen Bennett, *University of Coimbra, Portugal*
Luis Carriço, *University of Lisbon, Portugal*
Margarita Correia, *University of Lisbon, Portugal*
João Ferreira Duarte, *University of Lisbon, Portugal (professor emeritus)*
António Fidalgo, *University of Beira Interior, Portugal*
Charles Kostelnick, *Iowa State University, United States*
Teresa Malafaia, *University of Lisbon, Portugal*
Vicente Montalt Resurreccion, *University Jaume I, Spain*
David Russell, *Iowa State University, United States*
Helena Sousa, *University of Minho, Portugal*
Kirk St. Amant, *East Carolina University, United States*

Section Editors: Interview Editors

Han You, *Kansas State University, Department of English, United States*
Quan Zhou, *Metropolitan State University, College of Arts and Science, United States*

Regional Editors

Marco A. Fiola, *Ryerson University, Canada*
Anna Ivanova, *Autonomous University of Chile, Chile*
Ricardo Muñoz Martín, *University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Spain*
AnaJulia Perrotti-Garcia, *United Metropolitan Faculties, Brazil*

Consulting Editors

Pedro Estácio, *University of Lisbon, Portugal*
Catherine Gouge, *West Virginia University, United States*
Maggie Griffin Taylor, *New Mexico Tech, United States*
George Hayhoe, *Mercer University, United States*
Kristian Van Haesendonck, *University of Lisbon, Portugal*

Copy-editors

Marta Pacheco Pinto, *University of Lisbon, Portugal*
Ana Hermida Ruibal, *University of Vigo, Spain*

connexions • international professional communication journal (ISSN 2325-6044) is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License to the published issues.

February 2016

connexions • international professional communication journal

Volume 3 • Issue 2 • 2015

From the editors

Research articles

Teaching cases

connexions interviews

From the editors

TRANSLATION AND INTERNATIONAL PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION

Building Bridges and Strengthening Skills

Bruce Maylath

North Dakota State University, U.S.A.

Ricardo Muñoz Martín

University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Spain

Marta Pacheco Pinto

Centre for Comparative Studies, University of Lisbon, Portugal

The globalization, the diversification, and the fast mobility of today's markets—aiming to serve as many heterogeneous settings and audiences as possible—have posited a growing need for high quality products and optimal performance in nearly all areas of everyday life. Specialists in communication play an important, albeit often hidden, role in these processes. Translators and other international professional communicators operate as mediators to facilitate understanding across global and local contexts through diverse communication channels.

In *Translation Goes to the Movies* (2009), Michael Cronin sets out from the premise that "translation always implies that there is something to be articulated, a message to be communicated, and a context that facilities communication" (2009, p. 61). Translating today often involves several agents with different roles, responsibilities and skills. This entails creative work, various innovative procedures, and collaborative networks in highly technological, distributed environments. All these agents can be seen as text producers with an

connexions • international professional communication journal
2015, *3*(2), 3–9
ISSN 2325-6044

increasing expertise in the tools and skills of their trades to find, manage, process, and adapt information to target audiences.

Despite diverse attempts at acknowledging the importance of approaching professional communication as translation or as involving translation-related skills (e.g., Hoft 1995; Weiss 1997, 1999; Melton 2008), translation often remains invisible both in the literature and in the training of (international) professional communicators. The extant literature in communication studies that actually addresses translation usually tends to emphasize, and concentrate on, localization issues, and it often draws from functional approaches to translation as production of a communicative message or instrument (e.g., Vermeer 1996; Nord 1997; Reiss 2000).

In translation studies, on the other hand, there is an increasing awareness of the need to tend bridges to research in communication studies (e.g., Risku 2010; Ehrensberger-Dow & Daniel 2013). Indeed, some research reveals that the fields of translation and professional communication are converging, as practitioners initially trained in one field seek cross-training in the other, in part to capture both ends of the documentation market (Minacori & Veisblat, 2010; Gnecchi, Maylath, Scarpa, Mousten, & Vandepitte, 2011). However, more research and dialogue are needed to grasp fully the implications and commonalities in all areas of multilingual professional communication, not least that they are usually ascribed peripheral roles in business, technical, and scientific endeavors. This special issue is a modest attempt at contributing to both the research and the dialogue.

The Contents of this Issue

This special issue is divided into three sections: research articles, teaching cases, and *connexions* interviews.

The first section includes three selected research articles that focus to different extents on the figure of the translator as a multitasked professional communicator and intercultural mediator, thus raising issues related to professionals' skills and training. This section begins with Anne Ketola's article "Translation Diaries of an Illustrated Technical Text." Ketola adopts a phenomenographic approach to study how a group of informants—translation trainees at MA level—envision the interaction of linguistic and graphic information when translating. The informants' diaries yield two main approaches where linguistic and visual informations are conceived of as either parts of a single, complex (multimodal) communicative artifact, or as different sources of information that compete with each other. Interestingly, the informants seem to be able to hold both visions and to alternate between them as they progress through the task, depending on their interaction with the text. In general, the informants consciously strived to conceptually interweave visual and verbal information, but would switch to the two-source view when information from the visual and the linguistic sources did not seem to totally cohere. In such cases, the informants would assign more importance to one or another source, probably following their own quality or truth-value assessments. In brief, Ketola shows that a text with images may be translated differently from the same text without them, thereby supporting the notion that translating is not (only) a matter of language, but of communication.

The second research article is "Social Inclusion: Text Optimization for Translation and Readability in a Multilingual World." In it, Cathy L. McGinnis and Joleen R. Hanson report the results of a study that they conducted to evaluate the readability of Global English Style (GES), as defined by Kohl (2008) when applied to US government-commissioned translations into English. Notably, the subjects of the study were multilingual readers, either in English and Spanish or English and Vietnamese. The study's results suggest that adhering to GES guidelines does indeed boost texts' readability. Although anecdotal evidence might lead one to say that such results are not a surprise, evidence from empirical studies, such as this one, begins to provide much firmer grounds on which to advocate for the expertise, time, and money required to apply GES guidelines.

The third research article is a position paper. The co-editors of this special issue on translation and professional communication see merit in exposing *connexions*' readers to issues of power differentials when matters of language are involved, including in decisions about translation. The fact that this special issue must be published in English in the early 21st century, in order to reach an international audience, illustrates the degree to which a history of political, social, economic, and—all too often—military power may lie behind choices regarding which language(s) to use and even whether to translate at all. The article "Bridging for a Critical Turn in Translation Studies: Power, Hegemony, and Empowerment," by Yusaku Yajima and Satoshi Toyosaki, is deeply rooted in the authors' own experiences in moving from their native Japan to their current residence in the US. Their experiences and the opinion stemming from them may differ significantly from those of its readers, as indeed it differs from those of *connexions*' editors and this special issue's co-editors. However, this piece does reveal power differentials that native English speakers in particular may take for granted and even exacerbate, if they are not made aware of how their decisions about language(s) can be apprehended by non-native speakers of English—or by those who do not speak English at all.

The second section of this issue comprises two teaching case studies. The first one, by Sleasman, focuses on ethics in professional interpreting; the second one draws on the notion of "user-centered translation," coined by the same authors (Suojanen, Koskinen & Tuominen 2015).

Brent C. Sleasman's article, "A Philosophy and Ethics of International Classroom Translation: Communicative Implications of Oral Mediation in Haiti," is a reflective contribution to the philosophy of communication and communication ethics that focuses on translation understood as an oral process of information access and sharing. It combines a personal teaching case of professional communicators in a multilingual classroom setting within the Emmaus Biblical Seminary in Haiti, which relies on real-time in-class translation and interpretation into Haitian Creole, with a focused commentary on the ethical implications of a dialogic approach to international classroom translation. Sleasman builds on this international setting as a hybrid space of collaboration between communication and translation professionals and an undergraduate target audience. Based on his personal experience, the author draws attention to the visibility of translators by questioning the limits of their mediation and intervention in the communicative process, the ways the directionality of information works, and how cultural patterns interfere with message delivery.

In “Usability as a Focus of Multiprofessional Collaboration: A Teaching Case Study on User-Centered Translation,” Tytti Suojanen, Kaisa Koskinen and Tiina Tuominen argue that the notion of usability may work as a bridge between translators and technical communicators. In their paper, they summarize a series of trials of usability methods in the translation classroom, namely mentally modeling (a) fictive archetypes of users or personas to be used as targeted addressees; and (b) implied readers as hinted at or presupposed in text features; (c) applying a checklist of their own as heuristics to determine usability; and (d) carrying out usability tests in class. Their results show that translation trainees found it positive to mentally model intended and implicit readers as a way to raise their awareness of processes, which they already carry out intuitively. Heuristic evaluation yielded mixed results; while students found the notion appealing, they found some heuristic categories could overlap and were prone to conflate the checklist with other lists they were already familiar with. Usability testing was welcomed by students for certain text types (e.g., games, cooking recipes), but the authors warn that it is also the method that presents more challenges to translation quality assessment.

The third, and final, section includes two interviews with professional communicators, namely Aitor Medrano and Kirk St. Amant, the latter of whom is also a communication studies scholar. ■

References

Cronin, Michael. (2009). *Translation goes to the movies*. London & New York: Routledge.

Ehrensberger-Dow, M., & Daniel, P. (2013). Applying a newswriting research approach to translation. *Target*, *25*(1): 77–92. doi:10.1075/target.25.1.07ehr

Gnecchi, M., Maylath, B., Scarpa, F., Mousten, B., & Vandepitte, S. (2011). Field convergence: Merging roles of technical writers and technical translators. *IEEE – Transactions on Professional Communication*, *54*: 168–184. doi:10.1109/TPC.2011.2121750

Hoft, N.L. (1995). *International technical communication: How to export information about high technology*. New York: John Wiley.

Kohl, J. R. (2008). *The global English style guide: Writing clear, translatable documentation for a global market*. Cary, NC: SAS Institute, Inc.

Melton, J. H. (2008). Lost in translation: Professional communication competencies in global training contexts. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, *52*(2): 198–214. doi:10.1109/TPC.2008.2000346

Minacori, P., & Veisblat, L. (2010). Translation and technical communication: Chicken or egg? *Meta : journal des traducteurs/Meta: Translators' Journal*, *55*(4): 752-768. doi:10.7202/045689ar

Nord, C. (1997). *Translating as a purposeful activity*. Manchester: St. Jerome.

Reiss, K. (2000). Type, kind and individuality of text: Decision making in translation. In L. Venuti (Ed.), *The translation studies reader* (pp. 160–172). London: Routledge.

Reiss, K., Vermeer, H., Nord, C., & Dudenhöfer, M. (2013). *Towards a general theory of translational action: Skopos theory explained*. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.

Risku, H. (2010). A cognitive scientific view on technical communication and translation: Do embodiment and situatedness really make a difference? *Target*, *22*(1): 94–111. doi:10.1075/target.22.1.06ris

Suojanen, T., Koskinen, K., & Tuominen, T. (2015). *User-centered translation*. London and New York: Routledge.

Vermeer, H. J. (1996). *A skopos theory of translation (some arguments for and against)*. Heidelberg: TextconText.

Weiss, T. (1997). Reading culture: Professional communication as translation. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*, *11*(3): 321–338. doi:10.1177/1050651997011003005

—. (1999). The implications of translation for professional communication. In C. R. Lovitt and D. Goswami (Eds.), *Exploring the rhetoric of international professional communication: An agenda for teachers and researchers* (pp. 277–292). New York: Baywood.

About the authors

Bruce Maylath is professor of English and coordinator of the Trans-Atlantic & Pacific Project.

Email. bruce.maylath@ndsu.edu

URL. https://www.ndsu.edu/english/faculty/bruce_maylath/

Contact.

Department of English, #2320
North Dakota State University
P.O. Box 6050
Fargo, ND 58108-6050
USA

Ricardo Muñoz Martín is professor of Translation Studies.

Email. ricardo.munoz@ulpgc.es

URL. http://ulpgc.academia.edu/RicardoMunoz (also http://www.cogtrans.net)

Contact.

Facultad de Traducción e Interpretación
C/ Pérez del Toro, 1
E-35003 Las Palmas de Gran Canaria
Spain

Marta Pacheco Pinto is a post-doctoral fellow from the Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia and a post-doctoral researcher at the Centre of Comparative Studies at the University of Lisbon.

Email. egma@sapo.pt

URL. http://www.comparatistas.edu.pt/en/research-team/full-members/marta-pacheco-pinto.html

Contact.

Centro de Estudos Comparatistas
Faculdade de Letras da Universidade de Lisboa
Alameda da Universidade
1600-214 Lisboa
Portugal

Research articles

TRANSLATION DIARIES OF AN ILLUSTRATED TECHNICAL TEXT
Translation students' conceptions of word–image interaction

Anne Ketola
University of Tampere, Finland

This study set out to characterize the qualitatively different ways in which a group of master's level translation students conceptualized the interaction of verbal and visual information during the translation of an illustrated technical text. The research approach chosen for this purpose was phenomenography, which aims to identify the differences in the ways people conceptualize various phenomena. The data of the study consisted of translation diaries written by the students.

The study identified two qualitatively distinct main categories of conceptualizing the interaction of verbal and visual information: either conceptualizing the combination of modes as an entity to be perceived as a whole, or conceptualizing the modes as competing sources of information. It was concluded that the students conceptualized the images as an important part of the source text, capable of amplifying, specifying and even annulling verbal information.

Keywords. Multimodality, Technical texts, Illustrated texts, Translation students, Translation diaries, Phenomenography.

Translating today often involves engaging with multimodal material (Hirvonen and Tiittula, 2010, p. 1). A multimodal source text conveys meaning through the interaction of modes—written language, spoken language, images, etc. (e.g., Gibbons, 2012, p. 8). The subjects of the present article—illustrated technical source texts—create their message in the interaction of words and images, here referred to as the *verbal source text* and the *visual source text*. The definition of an illustrated technical text adopted in the article builds on Byrne's 2012 (pp. 26–28) description of technical texts, which includes all task–oriented documents that seek to help a particular audience understand how to do something or how something works. By an *illustrated technical text*, the article hence refers to an informative, instructive text that explains how something works by both verbal and visual means. Illustrated technical texts could well be the most common type of illustrated texts being translated today; technical texts constitute a significant share of all translated material (Kingscott, 2002, p. 247, Byrne, 2012, p. 6) and, as remarked by Byrne (2012, p. 26, 54) and Tercedor et al. (2009, p. 143), different types of images are an integral feature of technical documents. Yet, research into the translation of illustrated technical texts so far has been rather scarce, focusing mainly on providing criteria for choosing appropriate images in technical and scientific texts (Tercedor-Sánchez and Abadía-Molina, 2005) and technically-oriented terminological databases (Prieto Velasco, 2009, 2012).

Verbal information in a multimodal text is always interpreted in relation to all modes present (Jewitt, 2009, p. 2), whether consciously or unconsciously. This article sets out to examine how verbal information is interpreted in relation to visual information when translating an illustrated technical text. Naturally, a phenomenon such as this one may be examined from various perspectives. One possible perspective to examining a phenomenon is to describe the distinctively different ways in which people experience and conceptualize it. This article examines the interaction of visual and verbal information within an illustrated technical source text as conceptualized by a group of master's level translation students. The research approach adopted for this purpose is phenomenography, which aims to map the different ways in which a phenomenon or an aspect of the world may be experienced, conceptualized, perceived, and understood by different people (Marton, 1994, p. 4424; 1988, p. 144). Phenomenography sets out to examine *how* people comment on a particular phenomenon, and its aim is to describe the *variation* in the ways of conceptualizing the phenomenon.

The data of the study consist of translation diaries—reports on the problems encountered, the strategies employed to solve them, and so on—written about the translation process of an illustrated technical text during a technical translation course from English to Finnish. The students were not specifically instructed to comment on the images or their interaction with the verbal text in their diaries. For this reason, prior to analyzing *how* the students comment on the interaction of verbal and visual information, the analysts must determine *if* the students comment on the issue—do they inspect the images and do they pay attention to their interaction with the verbal text? If the students were to regard the images, for instance, as merely decorative elements, it is unlikely that they would comment on them when discussing their translation strategies. The research questions that the article sets out to answer may hence be formulated as follows: "Are translation students aware of the interaction of verbal and visual information in illustrated technical texts?" and "How do translation students conceptualize the interaction of verbal and visual information within the translation of an illustrated technical text?"

Background of the Research Project

The study presented in this article is a part of a research project investigating how an illustrated technical text is processed in translation. The research data of the project consists of the translations of an illustrated technical text made by translation students as well as the translation diaries examined in this article. The data were produced during a technical translation course at the University of Tampere, Finland. The research subjects were a group of eight master's level translation students who all spoke Finnish as their native language. All of the students had received a bachelor's degree in English translation at the University of Tampere, having therefore completed both theoretical as well as practical translation courses—both from and into English. The students were given one week to finish the translation assignment. The use of dictionaries and other reference resources was allowed. After the students had completed the translation task, a group interview was conducted in which the students were informed of the aim of the research and where they had the chance to comment on the task. The research project was submitted for evaluation by the university's ethics committee for research involving human subjects and it was exempted from the need for a review. All eight students gave written consent to participate in the study.

The source text for the translation assignment presented the illustrated operating principles of two different types of wet magnetic separation devices used in the mining industry for ore beneficiation. The source text, including its illustrations, was produced specifically for the purposes of this research with the help of the staff of the Geological Survey of Finland. It was written in English and proofread by an expert at the Western Australian School of Mines. The source text consisted of just over 500 words and two large colored images, and I consider it to be a representative example of an illustrated technical text as defined above.

A broad range of research has established that, when reading an illustrated text, readers process both words and images, and form their interpretation of the multimodal text based on both verbal and visual information (e.g., Connors, 2013; Hegarty and Just 1993; Mayer, 2002; 2005; Schnotz and Bannert, 2003; Schnotz and Kürschner, 2008; Wasylenky and Tapajna, 2001; Youngs and Serafini, 2013). The information provided by the two modes may hence be deeply intertwined in the reader's mind. When designing the source text for the study, I considered it possible that if the messages conveyed by the two modes were perfectly symmetrical—in other words, they expressed precisely corresponding information—then the students might not be able to distinguish which parts of their interpretation consisted of information derived verbally and which visually. Hence, they could be inclined to underestimate the importance of the visual information within the process even if they had inspected the images with great care; after all, it is words that they undoubtedly acknowledge reading, and it is words that they produce.

For this reason, the relationship between the words and the images in the source text was modified in certain parts of the source text so that the information conveyed by the two modes was, in one way or another, *asymmetrical*. For instance, in one section of the source text, visual information was deleted from the image: the verbal text accurately described a particular part of the operating process—tailings or nonmagnetic particles exiting the separator—but the corresponding information could not be found in the image. On two occasions, the visual and verbal texts were modified so that the information provided by the two was straightforwardly contradictory: the verbal text expressed that the device was submerged under water, while only the bottom–most part of the device was under water in the image, and the verbal text expressed that a certain part of the device was located in the *upper* part of the device while, according to the image, the part was in the *lower* part of the device. Further, the shape of a part of the device called *launder* was modified: while the term typically refers to a trough or a long, narrow container, it was presented in the image as nearly square–shaped. The rationale behind these modifications was that the asymmetry of information might make it easier to distinguish which mode the translation student considered to be of more relevance during translation.

In a pre-translation questionnaire, half of the students estimated their background knowledge of ore beneficiation as "none" and half as "very little." Even though these estimations are rather subjective, the students' level of background knowledge of the subject matter is an important factor to consider: previous research within educational psychology investigating university students' reading comprehension of illustrated scientific texts has established that students with low prior knowledge of the subject matter at hand observe the illustrations in more detail than students with high prior knowledge (Mayer and Gallini, 1990). The fact that none of the students reported being considerably better acquainted with the subject matter than the rest of the group adds to the comparability of the data.

The present article concentrates on examining a relatively small number of translation students. The study does not intend to generalize its observations to all translation students and, even less so, to professional translators who may generally be expected to employ translation strategies differing from those employed by translation students (e.g., Göpferich, 2010). It should be emphasized that in the discussion of the results of the analysis, the term "translator" as opposed to "translation student" is employed; in that context, it is used to refer to "the person who translated something."

Translation Diaries as Research Data

Translation students at the University of Tampere are asked to write translation diaries of a large majority of the translation assignments that they are given during the study program. They are generally instructed to comment on the communicative situation—commissioner of the translation, the target audience, and so on—and on the source text itself—its style, text type, and subject area. They are also asked to describe the translation process—macro and micro level strategies—and to specify the sources consulted, including dictionaries and parallel texts—texts originally written in the target language with a purpose similar to that of the source text. Finally, they are instructed to reflect on the quality of their own work and to assess what they learned during the assignment (UTA käännöskommenttiohje). These translation diaries could be described as *semistructured* as instructions for writing the diaries are generally provided in the first year of the study program and, after the students are accustomed to writing them, the instructions are not regularly reinforced.

This translation diary procedure is highly similar to the Integrated Problem and Decision Reporting (IPDR) procedure introduced by Gile (2004, p. 15): both set "a systematic requirement for written introspective reporting by students whenever they hand in a translation assignment." In both forms of reporting, students discuss the problems they encountered during the translation process, the steps they took to solve them, and the rationale behind their decisions. Students also introduce the sources and references they consulted during the task. The reports are collected in a written form with no strict reporting format or structure except for the initial instructions from the instructors (Gile, 2004, pp. 3–4). Introspective reporting benefits the students and the instructors alike. Gile describes that writing reports increases the students' awareness of their translation process: it emphasizes that translation is a demanding operation requiring intense decision-making, and it encourages the students to devote more effort to their work. It also provides the instructors with a better view to what the students are doing and what they find particularly difficult, as well as how to interpret their translations and to identify their strategies (pp. 4–9).

Gile, too, remarks that apart from having a didactic function, these introspective reports may also be used as data for research (pp. 8–9). Translation process research has employed other introspection methods as well, including think-aloud methods and retrospection (e.g., Tirkkonen-Condit and Jääskeläinen, 2000). Gile (2004, pp. 8–9) emphasizes that IPDR offers "no revolutionary way of accessing information not available through other methods," but that compared to other introspection methods, it does have its benefits: the data is easily gathered and available to the researcher in a directly readable form. Further, IPDR does not include distraction between translating and verbalizing one's thoughts at the same time, nor does it require the students to work under strict time limitations or with a particular software. Gile (p. 10) concludes that the main limitation of IPDR as a data collection method lies in the unpredictable, possibly noncomprehensive nature of the data, and suggests that more complete reports could perhaps be produced with the help of a more structured set of questions posed for the translators. Göpferich and Jääskeläinen (2009, p. 172) make the same observation, stating that the contents of the reports depend entirely on what the translators themselves regard as relevant. Yet, the justification for the use of the data collection method in this particular study lies in that very notion: one of the aims of the study was to elucidate whether the translation students indeed regard visual information as relevant enough to analyse in their diaries. In addition, as discussed in the following section, it would be highly questionable to perform a phenomenographic analysis on translation diaries written in response to a structured set of questions.

Research Approach and Process

The research approach adopted in the analysis of the translation diaries is phenomenography, which sets out to map the different ways in which various aspects of the world are experienced, conceptualized, perceived, and understood by different people (Marton, 1994, p. 4424; 1988, p. 144). Phenomenography was developed and has mainly been applied within an educational context. Yet, its aim transcends the educational context as the approach sets out to identify similarities and differences in the way we experience and comprehend phenomena in the world around us (Marton, 1994, p. 4429).

Rather than a single method of analysis, phenomenography is an integral perspective on research. It is underpinned by the adoption of a second–order perspective, which refers to focusing on how things appear to people instead of focusing on how things "really are" in the world. In other words, within the so-called first-order perspective, research aims to make statements about the world (Marton, 1981, p. 178) and could pose a question such as "How do words and images interact in illustrated texts?" Within the second–order perspective adopted in phenomenography, on the other hand, research aims to make statements about people's conceptions of the world (ibid.), posing questions such as "How do translators themselves experience and conceptualize word–image interaction in illustrated texts?" In order to fully understand the phenomenon of word–image interaction within translation, observations made from the first–order perspective may be complemented by those made from the second–order perspective.

Phenomenographic Analysis and Issues of Data Collection

The data used in phenomenographic research is collected from a group of people individually reflecting on their experience of a phenomenon (Reed, 2006, p. 5). The researcher goes through the data and looks for expressions—direct quotes—that refer to experiencing the phenomenon under study in a certain way. Based on their similarities and differences, these experiences are arranged into groups referred to as *categories of description* (Marton, 1988, p. 145). In other words, the categories are not selected in advance but emerge from the data as expressions are brought together and compared. As the same individual may express more than one way of conceptualizing the phenomenon when in different situations, the individual—in this case, the individual translator—is not the unit of analysis (Marton and Pong, 2005, p. 346). Instead, the categories of description are arrived at by "separating forms of thought both from the thinking and the thinker" (Marton, 1981, p. 196).

Since the categories are the result of reflections about the same phenomenon, they are meaningfully related to each other. Further, as some ways of experiencing a phenomenon may be more comprehensive than others in relation to a particular criterion, it may be possible to establish a *hierarchy* between the categories of description (Marton, 1994, p. 4426). The main aim of phenomenographic analysis is to identify the relationships or the structure between the categories. The structured set of categories of description is called *the outcome space* of the phenomenon in question, and it constitutes the main outcome of phenomenographic research (Marton, 1994, p. 4424). Since phenomenographic research in general—this study being no exception—analyzes a relatively small number of research subjects, the outcome space may never be claimed to be exhaustive. The goal is simply that the outcome space is complete in the sense that nothing has been left out of the collective experience of the particular group (Marton and Booth, 1997, p. 125).

The dominant method of data collection in phenomenographic research has traditionally been the individual interview, but some studies have also employed group interviews, children's drawings, written responses, and historical documents (Marton, 1994, p. 4427), as well as unstructured learning diaries (Prinsloo, Slade, and Galpin, 2011) as research data. As explained above, the data used in this study consists of semistructured translation diaries written by a group of translation students. This type of data has both advantages and disadvantages as research data for phenomenographic inquiry. An obvious disadvantage is that the method of data collection does not offer a chance to ask the students for further clarifications of their reflections. A clear advantage, on the other hand, is that the researcher cannot guide the students' reflections by—consciously or unconsciously—imposing one's own presuppositions of the phenomenon in the form of follow-up questions. Marton (1988, p. 154) emphasizes that any guiding questions used within the process of phenomenographic data collection should be as open-ended as possible, allowing for the subjects to "choose the dimensions of the question they want to answer." The dimensions of the answer reflect what the subject holds relevant and are therefore informative in themselves. Since the translation students of the study were not instructed to comment on the images, it may be concluded that all comments regarding visual information and word-image interaction were made because the students regarded them as relevant issues to discuss.

Procedure of Analysis Followed in the Study

Exact rules of procedure for undertaking phenomenographic analysis cannot be specified: as Marton (1988, p. 154) concludes, finding out the ways in which a phenomenon is conceptualized by different individuals "takes some discovery" for which no algorithms can be provided. Yet, a general way of proceeding can be described; the procedure followed in this study is based on the general guidelines provided by Marton (1988, pp. 154–155), Marton (1994, p. 4428), and Larsson and Holmström (2007, p. 57). Even though the number of steps and the use of some terminological choices differ in these guidelines, the key elements provided remain the same for them all.

The first stage of analysis included reading through the data various times. The data consisted of eight translation diaries ranging from 400 to 900 words. I observed that seven out of the eight translation students had commented on issues relating to visual information and therefore concluded that the analysis was indeed possible. When reading through the data, my aim was first to gain a tentative understanding of what the students said and then, with each rereading, to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of the data as a whole. In the second stage of the analysis, I began to select parts of the data that answered the question "What do the translation students say about images or the interaction of images and words?" This guiding question was deliberately formulated as a rather open one in order to avoid misjudging what the students regarded as relevant. The selected parts ranged from individual phrases to parts of longer reflection. At the end of this stage, I had gathered a collection of quotes—the "data pool" of my study—consisting of 53 quotations. The translation diary, which included no references in regard to the visual, was consequently left outside of the analysis at this point.

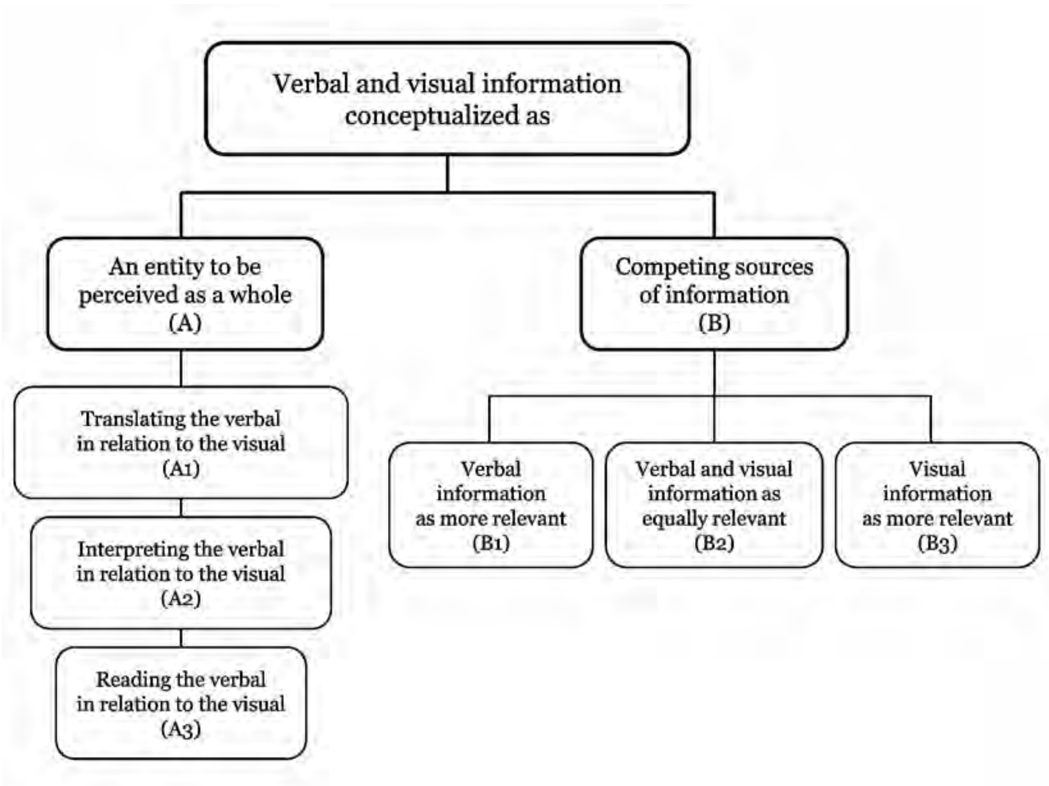
In the third stage of the analysis, my attention shifted from the individual students to the meaning embedded in the data pool as a whole. In other words, at this stage of phenomenographic analysis, forms of thought are conclusively separated from the thinker; beyond this point, the analysis no longer specifies which research subject each quotation belongs to. At this stage, my aim was to identify the different ways of understanding the phenomenon, the guiding question being "What are the different ways in which the translation students conceptualize the interaction of verbal and visual information?" I read through the quotes again and began to perceive some general themes that ran across the pool. The quotations were arranged into (tentative) groups based on their similarities and differences. Eventually, this led to establishing clearer borders between the groups. It was then possible to detect and determine the distinguishing features of each group. These groups now formed the categories of description of my study. Structuring the outcome space, the final stage of analysis proceeded hand in hand with the previous stage. This outcome space constitutes the final result of the analysis; it represents a contrastive comparison of the different ways of conceptualizing the interaction of verbal and visual information in the particular source text by the particular group of translation students.

Results of the Phenomenographic Analysis

The results of the analysis are presented in Figure 1 on page 72 as a set of categories of description in an outcome space, symbolizing the range of the different ways in which the phenomenon under investigation was conceptualized collectively. To demonstrate that the categories of description are indeed supported by empirical data, the categories are presented with example quotes from the data (Francis, 1996, p. 44; Åkerlind, 2005, pp. 331–332). The quotations have been translated from Finnish into English. Since the quotations have been removed from their original contexts, I added contextual information in brackets when considered necessary. Even though elsewhere in the article *a text* consisting

Figure 1

The outcome space of translation students' ways of conceptualizing the interaction of visual and verbal information in the source text.



of verbal information only is referred to as *a verbal text*, the students, quite naturally, refer to verbal text simply as "text" in the quotations.

The analysis identified two qualitatively distinct main categories of description representing the translation students' ways of conceptualizing the interaction of verbal and visual information in the source text:

A. Conceptualizing the verbal and the visual as an entity to be perceived as a whole

B. Conceptualizing the verbal and the visual as competing sources of information

In other words, the first main category represents experiences related to perceiving the combination of word and image as an inseparable whole, and the second represents experiences related to consciously dissecting the combination of verbal and visual information and evaluating the two modes as separate sources of information. Both main categories include subcategories; the subcategories in group A take the form of a linear hierarchy of inclusiveness—the lower categories are logically included in the higher ones—whereas the subcategories in group B are qualitatively exclusive of each other.

Main Category A: Conceptualizing the Verbal and the Visual as an Entity to be Perceived as a Whole

In the first main category, the combination of word and image was conceptualized as an entity to be read, interpreted and translated as a whole. Characteristic of these experiences was that the information conveyed by the two modes was combined into a single message, the integrality of which was not questioned. This was reflected particularly well in experiences related to instances of asymmetry of information. The translators expressed three hierarchically related aspects to conceptualizing the multimodal source text as a whole. The category is hence divided into three subcategories, hierarchically linked based on their inclusiveness and relative completeness: A3 at the bottom of the hierarchy is the most basic category and A1 at the top is the most comprehensive, logically subsuming both lower subcategories of A2 and A1.

Reading the verbal in relation to the visual (A3). This subcategory concentrates on describing how the verbal and the visual are read side by side and how the attention of the translator alternates between the visual and the verbal in different stages of translation. The focus of the subcategory is hence on the external representations: the actual verbal source text and the illustrations. Characteristic of these experiences is that the image is conceptualized as an integral part of the multimodal source text: it is involved within source text inspection in various stages of translation. An example of the source text comprehension stage is illustrated in the quotation below in which the translator describes stopping to check the image after reading small segments of the verbal source text:

> In other words, I read them [*words and images*] side by side; in each part, I stopped to see where it [*the slurry*] really goes.

In the following quotation, the translator reports having spotted an instance of asymmetry between the verbal and visual texts in the revision stage of the translation process:

> I didn't notice it until four hours before the deadline and then I sort of panicked.

The quotation illustrates how the revision stage, too, has included switching attention between the two modes; comparing the verbal text (either the source or the target or both) with the image.

Interpreting the verbal in relation to the visual (A2). Relatively more complete than the previous subcategory, this subcategory represents experiences of interpreting and comprehending the multimodal source text as a whole instead of merely switching attention between the two modes. In other words, the focus of the category is on interpretation and forming an internal or mental representation of the two external representations. This subcategory logically subsumes the lower subcategory introduced above: interpreting the two modes in relation to each other presupposes that the translator has inspected them both. Many of these experiences are related to resorting to images for confirmation of acquired verbal text contents—even though, admittedly, these experiences only describe the students' own subjective understanding of their comprehension process.

> The images acted as elements supporting and confirming my text comprehension.

> Images helped me process and comprehend the text.

Interestingly, these experiences were not limited to the images of the source text at hand but were also related to other visual information the translators had employed within the translation process. These images could be described as *visual parallel texts*—images produced for a similar purpose to that of the images of the source text:

> Google image search was extremely helpful in assuring I had understood certain parts of the equipment somewhat correctly.

The asymmetry of information between the modes of the source text was experienced as hindering source text comprehension. The following quotations are related to the translators reflecting on the part of the source text where information (exit route of the tailings) was missing from the image:

> I understand the operating principle of the equipment rather well, even though I do not understand where the tailings go in the counter current separator.
>
> I still [*after completing the assignment*] do not understand where they [*tailings*] go.

These experiences reflect a clear effort to interpret the multimodal source text as a whole: visual and verbal information are mapped onto each other to a degree that not being able to confirm the verbally acquired information from the image leaves the translator with an impression of not having understood the verbal text at all. Despite the obvious asymmetry of information, the truth value of neither mode is questioned.

Translating the verbal in relation to the visual (A1). The most comprehensive subcategory, this subcategory focuses on translating the internal representation formed from the external representations; in other words, the interaction of visual and verbal information. It is highest up in the hierarchy because translation presupposes interpretation. Even though translation can be described as verbal activity in the sense that it is verbal text that the translator produces, these experiences clearly reflect how images define what the most suitable or "the correct" translation solution is. Translation solutions are based on or justified with visual information, as exemplified by the following quotation:

> Thanks to the images, I had the courage to deviate from the source text more radically. I was more certain that I had understood the text correctly, and was therefore more confident about the suitability of the deviating translation solutions to each given context.

The following two quotations are excellent examples of how the image may specify the meaning of a particular element in the verbal source text and how the image defines what the correct translation solution is. In the first, the translator compares a list of possible translation choices to the information provided by the image, and in the second, the suitability of the translation solution is assessed in relation to visual information:

> Judging by the image, the part in question is not a funnel, a gearbox, an access door box or a charge pocket.

> "A container" is an easy choice since it is so generic it can be of any shape at all.

Some of these experiences, too, were related to visual parallel texts. The following quotation illustrates how a translation solution is based on visual information found in other images:

> After I checked images of similar devices online, I decided to change it [*the translation solution*].

In the following quotation, the translator reflects on the translation of the word "feedbox," and reports having found a Finnish equivalent for a *similar looking part* labeled in an image describing the production process of biofuel. The external similarity—and, perhaps, the assumed functional similarity—of the parts in the two images is considered to ratify the use of the equivalent in the translation:

> I found an image of a similar feedbox in a text describing the production of biofuel. I believe this validates my choice.

All in all, the experiences in main category A indicate a conscious effort to map visual and verbal information onto each other and to apprehend each mode in terms of the other. This way of conceptualizing the interaction of modes did not include questioning the accuracy of either one, even when there was a clear asymmetry of information between the two.

Main Category B: Conceptualizing the Verbal and the Visual as Competing Sources of Information

Category B represents experiences of consciously dissecting the multimodal source text and conceptualizing word and image as separate sources of information. These experiences were related to evaluating the verbal and the visual modes as sources of information, or assessing their usefulness and trustworthiness in relation to each other. Most—but, interestingly, not all—of the experiences in this category were related to the instances of asymmetry of information between the modes. Some of the experiences in the category—in subcategory B3, to be precise—also included examples of the translator assessing the usefulness and trustworthiness of the modes on a more general level: in other words, when the multimodal source text did not directly prompt a reason to do so. Three qualitatively exclusive subcategories were detected, representing the variation in the ways of conceptualizing the two modes as sources of information in relation to each other.

Conceptualizing verbal information as more relevant (B1). In this subcategory, visual information was experienced primarily as subsidiary to verbal information. Characteristic of these experiences was that the usefulness of the image was questioned when the two modes provided asymmetrical information:

> The second image was not as informative as the text.

These experiences also reflect discrediting the contents of the visual source text when the two modes were contradictory to each other.

> I trusted the contents of the text completely and therefore ignored the inadequacy of the image.
>
> In one part, the information in the source text differed from that claimed by the image.

Conceptualizing verbal and visual information as equally relevant (B2). This subcategory supports a view of considering word and image as sources of information with an equal status, not explicitly identifying either one as more trustworthy than the other.

> There might be a mistake in the paragraph because according to the image, the tailings are collected in the lower part of the machine, and not in the upper part as expressed in the text.

In the above quotation, the asymmetry of information is reported in a somewhat neutral manner: the translator states that one mode expresses this piece of information in one way, and the other mode in another way. The translator does not directly propose that the verbal text is mistaken, but that there *might* be a mistake. This subcategory did not emerge from the data as a prominent one; in fact, the quotation above was the only one representing a view of not directly disregarding either mode. All other quotations referring to conceptualizing the issue reflected a considerably more explicit stance towards privileging either verbal or visual information.

Conceptualizing visual information as more relevant (B3). This subcategory was related to experiencing verbal information as subsidiary to visual. Visual information was conceptualized as both amplifying the verbal, in other words, providing information not available from the verbal text, as well as annulling or discrediting the contents of the verbal text when the two modes were contradictory to each other. Out of the three subcategories in category B, B3 emerged from the data as the most prominent one. Unlike the subcategories of B1 and B2, these experiences were not limited to discussing instances of asymmetry of information between the modes but were also made on a more general level; reflection on the visual mode being more informative than the verbal was often related to the comprehension of the subject matter, in other words, the operating principle of devices the source text describes:

> The image gave me a better overall understanding of the subject, revealed the shape of the parts and the direction of the flow of the substances etc.

Compared to subcategory A2, in which the image was conceptualized as affirming the acquired verbal text contents, the image is here conceptualized as helping in source text comprehension by offering information not retrievable from the verbal text. In fact, visual information was conceptualized as so intrinsic to the comprehension of the operating principle of the device that the translators reported having imagined it in the parts where visual information was missing from the image:

> I looked at the image to assess where they [*particles missing from the image*] actually go.

In this subcategory, the experiences related to conceptualizing the contradiction of information between the two modes reflected conceptualizing the verbal element as mistaken. This was, in fact, the most common way of commenting on the instances of contradiction.

> The contradiction between the text and the image made me question the accuracy/incorrectness of the text.

> …the part which talked about the location of the tailings launders, claiming it to be in the upper part of the equipment, while the image clearly shows that it is one of the bottommost parts of the equipment.

> Another part indicative of the somewhat deficient connection between image and text is the part which says that the drum is submerged in the tank, which I

> understand to mean that the drum is entirely under water – yet, this is not the case.

Some of these experiences were also justified with visual parallel texts:

> In the image (or in other images I saw) it [*part of the equipment*] is not in the upper part.

Interestingly, even though these experiences reflected a clear tendency to identify the verbal component as mistaken, most of these translators also mentioned that they did not, in fact, change the "mistaken" verbal information in their translations: even though they were convinced that the verbal text was wrong, they reported that they did not feel they had the authority to change it. All in all, main category B suggests that the combination of verbal and visual information may be approached with strategies reflecting varying attitudes towards the importance and relevance of both modes.

The group interview conducted a week after the translation assignments had been handed in shed some further light on the translators' thought processes. As mentioned above, one of the students did not discuss the images at all in the translation diary. Yet, in the group interview, this particular student reported having studied the images in great detail—however, this had been done even before reading the verbal source text for the first time. In the student's own words, the student had examined the images first to gain a general idea of the subject matter and had then moved on to read and translate the verbal text, disregarding the images. This illustrates that visual information may be approached with different reading strategies. Further, several students discussed the part of the source text in which visual information had been deleted and mentioned that it had not occurred to them that the image could be faulty in any way—they had simply thought they were "too stupid" to understand the process correctly. Further, one of the students reported having thought that the asymmetry of information could well have been due to difficulties in printing the colors correctly—that, for some reason, the color blue (the color of the deleted information) had not printed correctly. These notions are discussed in the following section in relation to the results of the phenomenographic analysis.

Conclusions

This study set out to elucidate if a group of translation students were aware of the interaction of verbal and visual information in an illustrated technical source text as well as to characterize the different ways in which the students conceptualized this interaction. Visual information—in particular, instances of asymmetry of information between verbal and visual information—was widely discussed in the translation diaries, which confirmed that most students had indeed inspected the images. Further, in the group interview, the one translator who did not discuss the issue in the translation diary confirmed having inspected the images. In other words, all eight translators inspected the images while reading the source text. Moreover, visual information was considered to be a relevant part of the source text; at times the translators concluded that they esteemed verbal information above the visual, but even such a comment indicates that the translator consciously negotiated the relationship between the modes. In answer to the first research question, it may hence be concluded that the translators were principally aware of the interaction of verbal and visual information, even though one of them only inspected the images before starting the actual translation of the verbal text.

In answer to the second research question, the study identified two distinct main categories of conceptualizing the interaction of verbal and visual information in an illustrated technical source text: either making a conscious effort to read, interpret and translate the combination of the modes as a whole, or separating the two modes of the source text for comparison and evaluation. These categories are not meant to describe individual translators: as often happens in phenomenographic research (Marton, 1994, p. 4428), the same individuals expressed more than one way of conceptualizing the phenomenon when approaching it from different angles.

The experiences in the category of perceiving the combination of words and images as an inseparable whole indicated a conscious effort to map visual and verbal information onto each other. When this was impeded by deleting information from the image, the translators seemed to be left with an impression of not having understood the source text at all. Unlike in the second category, the truth value of neither mode was not questioned. These observations—together with the students' accounts of how they did not doubt the information conveyed by the images, expressed during the group interview—suggest that images are considered to have a relatively high truth value; in other words, that they accurately depict the objects they represent. An obvious failure to do so was explained by doubting one's own sense or blaming it on the reproduction rather than production of the image. When referring directly to translation, the experiences in this category illustrated how translation solutions were negotiated from the interaction of the two modes; the verbal source text evoked various different translation solutions, and the image defined what "the correct" solution was.

In the category of evaluating words and images as competing sources of information, three different stances were identified: translators either considered verbal information as more relevant than the visual, considered them both as equally relevant, or considered visual information as more relevant than the verbal. In other words, the combination of verbal and visual information was approached with strategies reflecting varying attitudes towards the importance and relevance of both modes. It may be reasonably assumed that these underlying attitudes may affect subsequent translation choices: for instance, valuing visual information above the verbal could lead to translation choices based more on visual information than the verbal. Once again, it has to be emphasized that these categories did not characterize individual translators: the same translators adopted different stances towards the two modes in different situations.

In their translation diaries, the students concentrated mainly on discussing the features of the target text and describing their translation process. A few, but not all, discussed the communicative situation and reflected upon the quality of their own work. Yet, the most recurring theme in the translation diaries were the difficulties produced by the asymmetry of information between the two modes. This suggests that visual and verbal information challenging or contradicting each other disturbed the translation process considerably. The translator who did not employ visual information during the actual translation stage did not discuss these parts of the source text at all in the translation diary, which may be interpreted as implying two things: first, the fact that the rest of the group singled these parts out as difficult to translate was indeed due to lack of coherence between the modes—as opposed to the verbal source text simply being more difficult in these parts. Second, it implies that a verbal text coupled with images may be interpreted and translated differently than the same text without images; the source text without the images is, in a sense, a different source text.

The most significant conclusion that may be drawn from the present study is that the translation students did not merely assign the visual source text to a decorative or contextual role; instead, they conceptualized it as an important source of information, capable of amplifying, specifying, and even annulling elements of the verbal source text. Further, some of the reflection in both categories was made in reference to images other than those constituting the visual source text, referred to in this article as *visual parallel texts*. This reflection indicated that visual parallel texts were considered as useful and reliable sources of information. All in all, the observations made in the article have great consequences for translation studies—a discipline that has traditionally been heavily language–oriented (O'Sullivan, 2013, pp. 2–3; Kaindl, 2013, p. 257). Hence, this article emphasizes the importance of acknowledging images as an object of inquiry in their own right within the discipline, both in translation research as well as translator training.

The observations made in this article from the second–order perspective can contribute to future research on word–image interaction in translation made from the first–order perspective; in other words, studying illustrated source texts or their translations directly. The main limitation of the findings is that the ways of conceptualizing word–image interaction are not an exhaustive description of all the possible ways of conceptualizing the phenomenon. It is likely that an analysis with a different sample of translation students would result in additional categories of description. An interesting topic for future research would also be to analyse whether professional translators would conceptualize the phenomenon differently than translation students would. Further research could also investigate how translators conceptualize word–image interaction in other illustrated text types, for instance in children's picture books. ■

References

Åkerlind, G. S. (2005). Variation and commonality in phenomenographic research methods. *Higher Education Research and Development*, *24*(4), 321–334. doi:10.1080/ 07294360500284672

Byrne, J. (2012). *Scientific and technical translation explained*. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.

Connors, S. P. (2013). Weaving multimodal meaning in a graphic novel reading group. *Visual Communication*, *12*(1), 27–53. doi:10.1177/1470357212462812.

Francis, H. (1996). Advancing phenomenography – Questions of method. In G. Dall'Alba & B. Hasselgren (Eds.), *Reflections on phenomenography: Toward a methodology?* (pp. 35–47). Göteborg: Kompendiet.

Gibbons, A. (2012). *Multimodality, cognition, and experimental literature*. New York: Routledge.

Gile, D. (2004). Integrated problem and decision reporting as a translator training tool. *Journal of Specialised Translation*, *2*, 2–20. Retrieved from http://www.jostrans .org/issue02/art_gile.pdf

Göpferich, S. (2010). The Translation of instructive texts from a cognitive perspective: Novices and professionals compared. In S. Göpferich, F. Alves, & I. M. Mees (Eds.), *New approaches in translation process research* (pp. 5–55). Copenhagen: Samfundslitteratur.

Göpferich, S., & Jääskeläinen R. (2009). Process research into the development of translation Competence: Where are we, and where do we need to go? *Across Languages and Cultures*, *10*(2), 169–191. doi:10.1556/Acr.10.2009.2.1

Hegarty, M., & Just. M. A. (1993). Constructing mental models of machines from text and diagrams. *Journal of Memory and Language*, *32*, 717–742. doi:10.1006/jmla.1993.1036

Hirvonen, M., & Tiittula, L. (2010). A method for analyzing multimodal research material: Audio description in focus. *MikaEL, Electronic proceedings of the KäTu symposium on translation and interpreting studies*, *4*, 1–12. Retrieved from http://www.sktl.fi/@Bin/40698/Hirvonen%26Tiittula_MikaEL2010.pdf

Jewitt, C. (2009). Introduction: Handbook rationale, scope and structure. In C. Jewitt (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of multimodal analysis* (pp. 1–13). London: Routledge.

Kaindl, K. (2013). Multimodality and translation. In C. Millán & F. Bartrina (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of translation studies* (pp. 257–269). London: Routledge.

Kingscott, G. (2002). Technical translation and related disciplines. *Perspectives: Studies in translatology*, *10*(4), 247–255. doi:10.1080/0907676X.2002.9961449

Larsson, J., & Holmström, I. (2007). Phenomenographic or phenomenological analysis: Does it matter? Examples from a study on anaesthesiologists' work. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being*, *2*, 55–64. doi:10.3402/qhw.v2i1.4945

Marton, F. (1981). Phenomenography: Describing conceptions of the world around us. *Instructional Science*, *10*, 177–200. doi:10.1007/BF00132516

Marton, F. (1988). Phenomenography: A Research approach to investigating different understandings of reality. In R. R. Sherman & R. B. Webb (Eds.), *Qualitative research in education: Focus and methods* (pp. 141–161). London: Falmer Press.

Marton, F. (1994). Phenomenography. In T. Husén & T. N. Postlethwaite (Eds.), *The international encyclopedia of education* (vol. 8), (pp. 4424–4429). Oxford: Pergamon.

Marton, F., & Booth, S. (1997). *Learning and awareness*. Mahwah: Erlbaum.

Marton, F., & Pong, W.Y. (2005). On the unit of description in phenomenography. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *24*(4), 335–348. doi:10.1080/07294360500284706

Mayer, R. E. (2002). Using illustrations to promote constructivist learning from science text. In J. Otero, J. A. Léon, & A. C. Graesser (Eds.), *The psychology of science text comprehension* (pp. 333–356). Mahwah: Erlbaum.

Mayer, R. E. (2005). Cognitive theory of multimedia learning. In R. E. Mayer (Ed.), *Cambridge handbook of multimedia learning* (pp. 31–48). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Mayer, R. E., & Gallini, J.K. (1990). When is an illustration worth ten thousand words? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *82*(4), 715–726. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.82.4.715

O'Sullivan, C. (2013). Multimodality as challenge and resource for translation. *The Journal of Specialised Translation*, *20*, 2–14.

Prieto Velasco, J. A. (2009). *Traducción e imagen: la información visual en textos especializados*. Granada: Ediciones Tragatanto.

Prieto Velasco, J. A. (2012). A corpus-based approach to the multimodal analysis of specialized knowledge. *Language Resources and Evaluation*, *47*(2), 399–423. doi:10.1007/s10579-012-9204-1.

Prinsloo, P., Slade, S., & Galpin, F. (2011). A phenomenographic analysis of student reflections in online learning diaries. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning*, *26*(1), 27–38.

Reed, B. (2006). Phenomenography as a way to research the understanding by students of technical concepts. *Proceedings of NUTAU 2006*, 1–11.

Schnotz, W., & Bannert, M. (2003). Construction and interference in learning from multiple representation. *Learning and Instruction*, *13*(2), 141–156. doi:10.1016/S0959-4752(02)00017-8.

Schnotz, W., & Kürschner, C. (2008). External and internal representations in the acquisition and use of knowledge: Visualization effects on mental model construction. *Instructional Science*, *36*(3), 175–190. doi:10.1007/s11251-007-9029-2.

Tercedor, M., Alarcón-Navío, E., Prieto-Velasco, J. A., & López-Rodríguez, C. I. (2009). Images as part of technical translation courses: Implications and applications. *The Journal of Specialised Translation*, *11*, 143–168. Retrieved from http://www.jostrans.org/issue11/art_tercedoretal.pdf

Tercedor-Sánchez, M. A., & Abadía-Molina, F. (2005). The Role of images in the translation of technical and scientific texts. *Meta: Translators' Journal*, 50(4). doi:10.7202/019857ar.

Tirkkonen-Condit, S., & Jääskaläinen, R. (Eds.) (2000). *Tapping and mapping the processes of translation and interpreting: Outlooks on empirical research.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

UTA käännöskommenttiohje. [Unpublished instructions for writing translation diaries for the translation students at the University of Tampere].

Wasylenky, K., & Tapajna, N. (2001). The effects of positive and negative illustrations on text recall. *Ottawa Papers in Linguistics*, *29*, 105–112. Retrieved from http://artsites.uottawa.ca/clo-opl/doc/The-Effects-of-Positive-and-Negative-Illustrations-On-Text-Recall.pdf

Youngs, S., & Serafini, F. (2013). Discussing picture books across perceptual, structural and ideological perspectives. *Journal of Language and Literacy Education,* *9*(1), 189–200. Retrieved from http://jolle.coe.uga.edu/wp content/uploads/2013/05/ Discussing-Picturebooks.pdf

About the author

Anne Ketola is a PhD candidate at the University of Tampere, Finland, and a member of the MULTI (Multimodality in Translation and Interpreting) research group, investigating the role of multimodality within translation studies. Her doctoral thesis examines the interaction of visual and verbal information during the translation of illustrated technical texts.

Email. anne.ketola@uta.fi

URL. http://www.uta.fi/ltl/yhteystiedot/henkilokunta/ketola_anne.html

Contact.
University of Tampere
Pinni B building, Room B5044
Kanslerinrinne 1
33100 Tampere
Finland

Manuscript received May 21, 2015; revised June 6, 2015; accepted June 18, 2015.

SOCIAL INCLUSION

Text optimization for translation and readability in a multilingual world

Cathy L. McGinnis

Portland State University, USA

Joleen R. Hanson

University of Wisconsin–Stout, USA

Professional communicators in all contexts—from the local to the global—are increasingly called upon to reach multilingual audiences, sometimes with the support of effective translation, and sometimes without such support. When professional translation will not be performed for all members of the target audience, other techniques are needed for crafting texts that readers can comprehend in the source language or translate adequately using free online translation tools. The study reported here tested the usefulness of Kohl's (2008) Global English Style (GES) as one such technique. Specifically, the study examined whether GES could make government–participation web pages more accessible for readers who have limited English proficiency. Ten multilingual readers of English and Spanish and ten readers of English and Vietnamese evaluated machine translations of a government web page that violated GES, and translations of the same text after application of GES. Participants also compared the readability of English text before and after application of GES. Results showed that GES had a neutral or positive effect on the perceived quality of Spanish and Vietnamese translations, with a stronger positive effect noted in the Vietnamese translations. Among all 20 participants, 17 (85%) rated the English text easy to read after GES was applied, while only 5 participants (25%) rated the original text easy to read. In a direct comparison between the original text and the GES version, 16 participants (80%) said the GES version was easier to read, while 2 (10%) noted no difference in reading ease and 2 (10%) found the original version easier to read. The results of this study indicate the promise that GES has for helping professional communicators bridge language barriers for diverse audiences, and suggests that further research into the effectiveness and applicability of GES is warranted.

connexions • international professional communication journal
2015, *3*(2), 41–90
ISSN 2325-6044

Keywords. Technical communication, Global English, Limited English proficiency, Machine translation, Readability.

Technical writers are increasingly called on to prepare texts for translation or to improve readability when translation is not feasible (Batova, 2013; Flammia, 2005; Haara, 1998; Hartley & Paris, 1997; Hayhoe, 2006; Gnecchi, Maylath, Mousten, Scarpa, & Vandepitte, 2011; Maylath, 1997; Melton, 2008; Spyridakis, Holmback, & Schubert, 1997; St. Amant, 2013; St. Germaine-McDaniel, 2010). This paper examines the context, tensions, and a potential solution for the specific case of government professional communicators in the United States (US) who face increasing pressure to reach linguistically diverse audiences in order to be transparent and engage a diverse constituency in participatory governance. Many U.S. government agencies and nonprofit organizations serve communities with limited English proficiency, but may have limited funding for translating their English–language business writing for those audiences. As a result, the organizations may fail to reach communities that are most in need of their services.

This article reports on research that investigated whether applying Kohl's (2008) Global English Style (GES) guidelines might reduce language barriers in the type of government and nonprofit business writing that would not be professionally translated. Using online survey responses from Spanish and Vietnamese bilingual/biliterates, the project explored two specific questions:

1. Would applying GES guidelines improve the readability of English text for native speakers of Spanish and Vietnamese?

2. Would applying GES guidelines to a text improve the quality of its translation into Spanish and Vietnamese by Google Translate?

While applying GES guidelines and using Google Translate does not compare with the efficacy of professional translation, it may be an option of last resort to enhance communication with linguistically diverse audiences for organizations with limited resources.

Engaging Diverse Audiences Online

Professional communicators who work for government agencies in the US are confronted with a double challenge that demands practical solutions: agencies are increasingly pressed to rely on their websites to increase participatory governance, and government audiences increasingly include individuals who have limited English proficiency (LEP). Pandya, Batalova, and McHugh (2011) report that between 1990 and 2010, the LEP population in the United States grew by 80% (p. 3). Despite the growing need to engage linguistically-diverse audiences, government agencies continue to rely on English-language websites that offer few translation options for LEP audiences. In a study of 90 federal agency websites, Rowland-Seymour (2001) found that only 15% of the sites had mirror websites in Spanish, and only one agency had a mirror website in a language other than Spanish. Only eight agencies provided translated text documents in any language other than Spanish on their website (slides 7–8). When English is used as the primary communication tool, professional communicators need new approaches for accommodating linguistically-diverse audiences.

Multilingual encounters between agencies and constituents have burgeoned due, in part, to executive directives to expand participation and to harness the Internet to make government more accessible (Orszag, 2009; U.S. Government Publishing Office, 2009). For example, state legislatures publish electronic information about upcoming public hearings. City planning departments use web content to solicit input on city development plans, and state departments of transportation use the web to solicit public comments on transportation plans. Although many agencies solicit input through combined approaches, for example, by hosting town hall meetings that include interpreters, or using websites that emphasize visual information rather than text, English-language text is often used in tandem with these approaches. For example, town hall meetings may be publicized on a website, and websites that use visuals may include text that explains interactive visual features of the site.

However, expanded electronic outreach does not ensure equitable opportunities to participate in governance. If language diversity is not taken into account, government reliance on English-language web content may improve access by non-LEP individuals while excluding LEP individuals, thereby perpetuating or even aggravating an imbalance of input and influence, rather than fostering inclusive public discourse.

The limitations of government efforts to reach LEP website audiences fuel a growing need for professional communicators to fill the gap when translation is not an option. Indeed, scholars in the field of translation studies have identified a growing convergence of the roles of translators and technical writers, as demand increases for English texts that are prepared in a manner that reduces the cost of translation (Gnecchi, Maylath, Mousten, Scarpa, & Vandepitte, 2011). Likewise, in order to help LEP readers of even the least-common local languages to have a voice in governance, government writers need to produce text that is easier for LEP audiences to read in English or that produces higher quality translations for LEP users who rely on free online translation tools.

The Executive Mandate to Engage Diverse Audiences

While effective writing has long held an important role in advancing participatory democracy, government writers' responsibility to write comprehensibly has grown more acute as participatory governance has received more emphasis from the nation's highest office. For example, in 2009, President Obama directed executive agencies to "offer Americans increased opportunities to participate in policy-making and to provide their Government with the benefits of their collective expertise and information" (U.S. Government Publishing Office, p. 4685). The memorandum directed the Office of Management and Budget to issue a directive in which Orszag (2009) instructed agencies to "promote informed participation by the public . . . by making [government information] available online in open formats" (p. 2). What these directives fail to address, however, is the importance of writing website content that is comprehensible to LEP readers.

When LEP readers' needs are not addressed, language differences result in imbalanced public participation and inequitable social outcomes. In its comprehensive analysis of data gathered in national studies and statewide surveys, the Public Policy Institute of California (2004) looked at public participation rates of various demographic groups. The institute determined that "those who have the most to say in elections are those who are . . . white, older, more affluent, homeowners and more highly educated" (p. 1). The authors went on to attribute the disparity in civic involvement to "differences in economic conditions, English language proficiency, and education attainment" (p. 2). Likewise, researchers Birnback, Chavez, Friedman, and Rowlett (2009), who argued that "Latinos are less likely to be critically involved in their communities" (p. 2), explained that "the most obvious obstacle to Latino involvement in public deliberation and broad-based community problem-solving process is language" (p. 8). The limited involvement of traditionally-marginalized language groups raises social justice concerns because, as Ramakrishnan and Baldassare (2004) argued, "group inequalities in political participation often lead to disparities in citizen influence over legislation and the distribution of policy benefits" (p. v).

Although President Obama's 2009 directive regarding open government did not expressly address the needs of LEP persons who use government websites, the federal government had previously taken steps aimed at improving LEP individuals' access to government. In 2000, President Clinton issued Executive Order No. 13166 directing all recipients of federal funds to provide LEP members of society with "an adequate opportunity to provide input" (p. 50122). According to U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ) policy guidance, which augments guidance published in 2000, and which guides implementation of Executive Order No. 13166 (2000), failure to address the needs of LEP readers may constitute discrimination under Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act (DOJ Guidance, 2002, p. 41457). In a 2005 DOJ pamphlet, the agency explained that "the United States Supreme Court in Lau v. Nichols (1974) stated that one type of national origin discrimination is discrimination based on a person's ability to speak, read, write, or understand English" (U.S. Department, para. 5). Government agencies and organizations that receive federal funding have not only an ethical responsibility and practical need to address the needs of LEP audiences, they have a legal obligation as well.

As DOJ guidance suggests, in order to be truly inclusive, government must be accessible to *every* constituent. Magnini, Not, Stock, and Strapparava (2000) clearly articulated the nature of government inclusion when they wrote that "the fundamental requisite for *transparent* communication is that information is available and reaches every citizen with the same clarity, to avoid disparity" (p. 2). DOJ (2000), in its initial policy guidance regarding implementation of Executive Order No. 13166, acknowledged government's imperative to communicate effectively with *every* member of society when it stated that "programs that serve a few or even one LEP person are still subject to the Title VI obligation to take reasonable steps to provide meaningful opportunities for access" (p. 50124). However, despite this explicit directive to address the needs of every LEP individual, DOJ's (2000) policy guidance established a four-factor test for determining "reasonable steps" for reaching some, but not necessarily all, LEP readers. Those factors include

> the number or proportion of LEP persons in the eligible service population, the frequency with which LEP individuals come in contact with the program, the importance of the service provided by the program, and the resources available to the recipient [of federal funding] (p. 50124).

So, although overlooking the needs of even one LEP person is probably discriminatory, federally-funded agencies, due to tight budgets, are authorized to make communication decisions based on criteria that may favor the largest minority language groups while excluding the most marginalized groups, simply because the latter groups are a small proportion of the "LEP persons in the eligible service area," or because those groups access the agency infrequently, a behavior that might itself be due to language barriers.

As with many government mandates, funding shortages are an obstacle to implementing Executive Order No. 13166. DOJ has legitimized cost as a reason for agencies to limit efforts to accommodate the needs of LEP readers. DOJ (2000) guidelines specify that "a small recipient [of federal assistance] with limited resources may not have to take the same steps as a larger recipient to provide LEP assistance" (p. 50125). Nonprofit organizations, which often fit in the category of "small recipients of federal assistance," provide a case in point. A study by McGinnis (2013) revealed that more than 70% of nonprofit organizations in the state of Oregon rarely or never use translation services (p. 12) and nearly half of the organizations reported that they found translation costs prohibitive (p. 14). Suggestions offered by LEP.gov emphasize reliance on human translation and human interpretation as tools for meeting the requirements of Executive Order No. 13166. However, many recipients of federal funding may be small public bodies and nonprofit organizations with limited resources—and, hence, limited legal obligation—to provide services as comprehensive as translation of their websites. Yet, these organizations may have few alternatives for reaching LEP audiences.

Other obstacles to addressing LEP readers' needs may include agencies' ignorance of audience composition, and limited awareness of approaches for serving LEP readers. According to McGinnis (2013), 32% of Oregon nonprofits reported that they were deterred from taking steps to make documents readable for LEP audiences because they did not know their audiences' proficiency level or primary languages (p. 15). The magnitude of the impact of these barriers may be suggested by the fact that, although 89% of respondents reported that building relationships with LEP audiences is important for fulfilling their organization's mission, only 8% of the organizations reported that they were "very satisfied" with the readability of their communications, and 30% were not at all satisfied (p. 8). If the response of these nonprofit organizations is any indication, implementation of Executive Order No. 13166 may have been hampered for the very reasons that DOJ (2000) cited: cost of services, unfamiliarity with audiences, and a lack of awareness about needs.

So, although Executive Order No. 13166 has laid a foundation for reaching LEP audiences, it is doing too little to provide access for LEP readers, especially the smallest and most-marginalized language groups, despite DOJ's ideal that no LEP person should be excluded. There are largely unavoidable obstacles to inclusiveness; facilitating language access for everyone is probably not achievable. All the same, federally-funded agencies and organizations might employ additional tools in order to broaden their efforts to make websites more accessible for LEP audiences.

Options for Making Government Communication More Accessible

A variety of potential solutions to the challenges of communicating with LEP audiences online can be considered. For example, efforts associated with the Plain English movement may begin to address the needs of LEP audiences. Similarly, translation may help some LEP audiences. But as yet, few approaches provide practical solutions for professional communicators in the government sector.

Federal plain language guidelines. Government efforts to improve the clarity of government writing for native English speakers have run parallel to government efforts to improve LEP services. Explicit directives to make English text more readable have filtered down from the nation's highest office since the early 1970s. According to Schriver (1997), the Plain English movement was propelled forward by President Carter's 1974 Executive Order No. 12044. At that time, proponents of Plain English Style "called for an end to 'gobbledygook' in government and business documents, demanding communications that citizens could understand" (p. 27). The Plain English tide ebbed in the early 1980s when President Reagan rescinded Carter's order (p. 28). According to Locke (2004), President Clinton revived the movement in 1998 when he issued a Presidential Memorandum requiring all federal employees to use plain language (para. 8).

President Obama gave additional impetus to the Plain English movement with creation of the Plain Writing Act of 2010. The purpose of the Act is "to improve the effectiveness and accountability of Federal agencies to the public by promoting clear Government communication that the public can understand and use" (U.S. Government Publishing Office, 2010, [2] 2861). Although the Act defines Plain Writing as following best practices that are "appropriate to the subject or field and intended audience" ([2] 2861), it does not explicitly address the issue of communicating with LEP audiences. The law either neglects to consider these audiences, or assumes that Plain English Style will serve LEP audiences well.

Whether Plain English Style even meets LEP readers' needs is questionable. Thrush (2001) points out that "most of the 'principles of clear writing' were developed through research with native speakers of American English" (p. 290). Based on her study of the impact of certain Plain English guidelines on the readability of documents for LEP readers, Thrush (2001) concluded that some outcomes of applying Plain English guidelines—the increased use of phrasal verbs and non-Latinate vocabulary—can make texts more difficult to understand for some nonnative speakers of American English (p. 295). In other words, guidelines that clarify meaning for native English speakers may have the opposite effect for LEP readers.

Translation. Translation may seem to be an obvious solution for addressing language barriers in government communications, and translation, along with interpretation and education in English as a Second Language, have been a focal point of government LEP directives (DOJ Guidance, 2002), but translation is fraught with challenges. Funding limitations hamper many agencies' ability to maintain translation staff, contract for human translation services, or purchase machine translation software. The short life span of website text, especially time-sensitive text about public comment periods, demands an ongoing—and potentially costly—cycle of writing and translation. And since the linguistic make-up of website audiences is difficult to determine, government agencies are unlikely to be able to provide translations for all possible readers.

As a result, translation is not being used broadly to enhance public participation. According to Ryan (2013), the U.S. Census Bureau's language research supports estimates that there are nearly 7,000 languages spoken worldwide. Based on that research, the Census Bureau identified the 381 languages that are most-commonly spoken in the United States (p. 2). The website LEP.gov provides evidence that, despite this vast diversity of language users, federal agencies currently supply translations in only a small fraction of represented languages. The site includes links to the translated materials of 17 agencies, and of these, 10 provide translations in fewer than 10 languages, and four of those agencies provide only Spanish translations. The remaining seven agencies offer between 12 and 50 languages, with one agency translating into 85 languages (LEP.gov, "Resources by Subject," para. 1). (It is interesting to note that even these links to translated government materials are provided on an LEP.gov web page that is entirely in English.) So, although some government agencies are translating some content into some of the most-commonly spoken languages in the United States, no agencies are reaching all 381 language groups that the U.S. Census Bureau recognizes, and many agencies are translating no materials at all.

The website LEP.gov was established as a tool for implementing Executive Order No. 13166 (LEP.gov, "Mission," para. 1). Although LEP.gov urges agencies to provide translations, it does so within the framework of DOJ's standard of reasonableness under Executive Order No. 13166. Based on DOJ's four-factor test of reasonableness, only *vital* documents need to be translated, not necessarily in their entirety, and only for the most common minority languages. Navigating English-language sites to access select portions of translated texts could be an insurmountable barrier for many LEP readers. The most-marginalized language groups are likely to fall through the cracks when translation decisions are based on DOJ's standard of reasonableness.

Tailoring translations to the multitude of language groups that could be represented in a website audience would be cumbersome and not feasible for government agencies. And government mandates to meet LEP readers' needs do not call for such thorough efforts anyway. Also limiting is the fact that LEP mandates govern only federal agencies and federally-funded entities. Many state agencies do receive federal funds and, therefore, would be governed by LEP mandates, but not all public bodies fall in that category. Consequently, government as a whole has few drivers and few solutions for creating a more transparent and inclusive government process by translating website content. Government professional communicators are left to harness other approaches that may help fill the gap when translation will not.

Editing for efficient translation and LEP readability. Because government professional communicators are taking on a more pivotal role in cross-language communication, as noted by Hartley & Paris (1997) and Gnecchi et al. (2011), and in light of the reality that translation is often not feasible, professional communicators need techniques for crafting English text that is comprehensible to LEP readers and well-suited to translation with free online translation tools that readers can use on their own. One such technique is offered by Kohl (2008) in his book *The Global English style guide: Writing clear, translatable documentation for a global market*. Kohl (2008) describes Global English as "written English that an author has optimized for a global audience by following guidelines that go beyond what is found in conventional style guides" (p. 2). Kohl (2008) argues that Global English Style "makes documents that are not slated for translation more readable for nonnative speakers who are reasonably proficient in English" (p. 3). Unlike the *Federal Plain Language Guidelines*, Kohl's guidelines specifically target LEP audiences.

Kohl (2008) is not alone in suggesting that writing techniques used to prepare documents for translation could make English texts more comprehensible for LEP readers. Momen (2009), in his discussion of linguistic barriers to knowledge transfer in medical scholarship, suggests that "Publishers could make their websites machine-translation friendly" and include "a device (widget) on a website that would allow readers to translate articles into their mother tongues without leaving the webpage" (p. 655). Momen's suggestion may be equally applicable to government websites where LEP-friendly English text could be supplemented with a website link to a free translation tool such as Google Translate. The combination of Global English Style (GES) and website translation widgets could provide a valuable means for government professional communicators to create content that allows LEP readers to participate in web-based public engagement efforts.

However, additional testing of GES is needed in order to assess its value for LEP readers of government websites. Kohl (2008) points out that "relatively little research has been done on the effect of specific style guidelines and terminology guidelines on machine-translation output" (p. 6). One translation industry study by Thicke (2011) looked at the impact of Kohl's guidelines on the quality of machine translations produced from translation engines that had been trained on target terminology, compared to engines that had not been trained. The study used an 880-word passage of text that was well-written but violated several of Kohl's (2008) guidelines. An unedited version of the text and a version that had been edited to conform to GES were each fed into a trained and an untrained translation engine. The study measured translation quality based on the amount of time translation editors needed to spend correcting errors in the post-translation text. The edited versions of the text fared slightly better than the unedited versions when translated by the untrained engine (p. 39). However, when the trained engine was fed the edited text, the output quality improved greatly. Thicke (2011) reports that "post-editors were able to get away with just a small tweak here and there to bring the sentences up to fully human quality" (p. 40). Thicke (2011) concluded that "the unedited text, breaking the rules of Global English, was more difficult for the machine to understand, just as it would have been for a human reader" (p. 39).

Kohl (2008) describes a pilot project conducted in 2004 by SAS Institute. SAS Institute is Kohl's employer and the publisher of Kohl's (2008) book. The project examined the quality of a machine translation produced from source text that did not conform to GES compared to a machine translation of the same source text after it had been edited to conform to the guidelines. The translations were evaluated by professional translators, who rated the translations as excellent, good, medium, or poor. Kohl (2008) reported that

> the translations of the Global English versions of the document were significantly better than the translations of the unedited version. The percentage of sentences

> that were rated as either Excellent or Good increased from 27% to 68%. The percentage of sentences that were rated as either Medium or Poor decreased from 73% to 32% (p. 6).

Aside from the Thicke (2011) study, and the SAS pilot project (Kohl, 2008), no research has been published on the impact of GES on the quality of translations produced by machine translation engines, particularly machine translation tools that are available free online. Also, no testing of Kohl's (2008) guidelines has been done using text from outside the technology field. Although Thicke's study (2011) used source text that included conceptual language, it relied on instructional text from the technology field. The SAS case study used software documentation as source text (Kohl, 2008, p. 2). Text produced for government websites, particularly text used to explain policies or invite participation in policy-making may be more abstract and conceptually dense than instructional text and software documentation, and therefore warrants separate testing. Kohl (2008) asserted that while

> the Global English guidelines were developed with technical documentation in mind . . . most of the guidelines are also appropriate for marketing materials and for other documents in which language must be used more creatively, informally or idiomatically (p. xiv).

Kohl's claim—although reasonable—is yet untested. Also, Kohl suggested that "Global English makes documents clearer and more readable for native speakers, too" (p. 3). That claim would also benefit from testing.

Methodology

In order to emulate the way government writers write, and the way government website users experience a page of website text, the study was designed to do the following:

1. Evaluate translated text and English text at the passage level, rather than at the sentence or word level, since website users encounter full passages of content, and government writers produce web content expecting that it will be consumed as a single unit expressing multiple ideas.

2. Test the overall impact of multiple GES guidelines when applied to a full passage of text, rather than test individual guidelines in isolation, since a writer who edits text to conform to a particular style—especially a style intended to improve overall readability of text—would not alter individual sentences in isolation, or apply only one style guideline per sentence, but would likely apply multiple guidelines and make a variety of changes to improve the overall passage.

3. Test a source text that is based on an actual government web page that invited public input on proposed policy changes, since the purpose of the study is to examine whether GES could make government-participation web pages more accessible for LEP readers.

4. Produce translations using Google Translate because it is a free, widely-used online translation software tool. According to Shankland (2103), "Google Translate provides a billion translations a day for 200 million users" (para. 1).

Survey Design

Feedback about the impact of using GES guidelines on a government text was obtained through four online surveys that were sent to four groups of bilingual readers (Appendix C). Two reader groups were highly-literate in Vietnamese and English, and two were highly-literate in Spanish and English. Each survey contained questions about the readability of an English-language text, and questions about the content and quality of a translation produced by Google Translate of a different English-language text. For each target language, one group of readers evaluated a translation of a source text that had been optimized to conform to GES, while the other group evaluated a translation of the original, nonoptimized source text. All four surveys were conducted using Survey Monkey.

Source texts for the translations were based on a passage from the website of a United States city that was soliciting public input on its proposed development plan (Appendix A). The first author created the original source text—nonoptimized—by editing the passage to fictionalize the identity of the city. Additional violations of GES were introduced in order to provide opportunities to test more of the GES guidelines. The resulting source text remained typical of what an experienced government writer might produce. The first author created a second source text—optimized—by editing the original source text to conform to GES. She then translated both source—nonoptimized and optimized—into Vietnamese and Spanish using Google Translate. All translations were produced within the same five-minute period. The following versions of translated text were produced:

- Nonoptimized source text translated into Spanish
- Optimized source text translated into Spanish
- Nonoptimized source text translated into Vietnamese
- Optimized source text translated into Vietnamese

The survey asked participants to read the translated passage of text and answer comprehension questions about the content. The questions were designed to measure the type of information a reader would need to grasp in order to respond to a website invitation to submit comments about a public policy change.

The survey then asked participants to rate the quality of the translation as a whole using a five-point Likert-type scale. The survey defined a high standard for translation quality: "A very good Vietnamese translation accurately conveys the meaning of the original English text, and does not sound wrong or awkward to you as a reader of Vietnamese." An analogous definition was used in the Spanish surveys.

The final section of the survey tested nonoptimized and optimized versions of a different English text (Appendix B). The first author selected this new text from a government agency website that was inviting public comment on a proposed change to a federal rule about food safety. She altered the text to fictionalize the identity of the agency and to introduce additional GES violations. She then created a second, optimized version of the same text by applying the GES guidelines. These passages were not translated. All four surveys asked participants to compare the same optimized and nonoptimized English texts and to rate the reading ease of each text on a five-point Likert-type scale. Finally, the survey asked participants which of the two passages was easier to read.

Survey Participants

Survey participants were recruited after the project was approved by the Institution Review Board (IRB). Four groups of survey participants were recruited through university colleagues and several nonprofit organizations that serve Hispanic and Vietnamese communities in Portland, Oregon, where the study took place. Recruitment inquiries invited adults who self-identified as highly literate in English and Vietnamese or in English and Spanish to contact the first author by email to request a survey invitation. Survey participants were given the option to receive a $10 gift card as a thank you for completing the survey.

Participants were randomly assigned to a survey type within each language group. Half of the Vietnamese invitees received an invitation with a link to the survey that included the optimized Vietnamese translation. The remainder of the Vietnamese invitees received the survey with the nonoptimized translation. The Spanish surveys were disseminated in the same way. No invitee was asked to review both the edited source text and unedited source text versions of a translation in order to avoid the possibility that seeing the translation twice would allow the participant to become too familiar with the content and less sensitive to the quality of the translation.

Response Rate

Of 45 people who requested the Vietnamese survey invitation, 14 (31%) took the survey. Of 22 people who requested the Spanish survey, 11 (50%) took the survey.

Figure 1

Composition of Survey Groups with Survey Type

Group A—Nonoptimized Spanish • Five English/Spanish bilingual participants • English Source Text One—*not optimized* to conform to Global English Style • Spanish translation produced by Google Translate	Group B—Optimized Spanish • Five English/Spanish bilingual participants • English Source Text Two—optimized to conform to Global English Style • Spanish translation produced by Google Translate
Group C—Nonoptimized Vietnamese • Five English/Vietnamese bilingual participants • English Source Text One—not optimized to conform to Global English Style • Vietnamese translation produced by Google Translate	Group D—Optimized Vietnamese • Five English/ Vietnamese bilingual participants • English Source Text Two—optimized to conform to Global English Style • Vietnamese translation produced by Google Translate

The response rate for the study as a whole was 37%. Incomplete surveys were excluded. The survey groups are described in Figure 1.

Data Analysis

Survey Monkey compiled verbatim answers to comprehension tests, and calculated the number and percent of respondents who assigned a given rating to a particular translation. Survey Monkey also provided weighted averages for the Likert scale ratings.

Data Analysis

Survey Monkey compiled verbatim answers to comprehension tests, and calculated the number and percent of respondents who assigned a given rating to a

particular translation. Survey Monkey also provided weighted averages for the Likert scale ratings.

Results

Likert scale ratings of translation quality were similar for the two groups of Spanish-language participants—weighted average of 3.2. For Vietnamese, the group who read the translation of the optimized text gave it higher ratings—weighted average of 3.2—than the group who read the translation of the nonoptimized text—weighted average of 2.4. Weighted averages indicate the average Likert scale choice among the five participants in each group. Table 1 shows the number of participants who made each Likert scale choice in each group.

Table 1

Frequency of Likert Scale Choices for Translation Quality

Likert Scale	1 Very Poor	2 Below Average	3 Average	4 Above Average	5 Very Good	0 Not sure	Likert Weighted Average
Spanish Text Nonoptimized n=5	0	1	3	0	1	0	3.2
Spanish Text Optimized n=5	0	1	2	2	0	0	3.2
Vietnamese Text Nonoptimized n=5	0	3	2	0	0	0	2.4
Vietnamese Text Optimized n=5	0	1	2	2	0	0	3.2

After reading the translated passages, all twenty participants gave correct answers to the following comprehension questions:

1. What is the text about?
2. Who is the text intended for?
3. What does the text tell the reader to do?
4. What will happen if the reader does what the text tells the reader to do?

Among all 20 participants, 17 (85%) rated the English text easy to read after GES was applied, while only 5 participants (25%) rated the original text easy to read. Responses are shown in Table 2.

Survey participants were then asked to rate the relative readability of the nonoptimized and optimized English passage of text. Of 20 respondents, 10% found the nonoptimized text easier to read, 80% found the optimized text easier to read, and 10% found neither version of the text easier to read than the other (these final respondents had rated the readability of both texts as "average").

Table 2

Frequency of Likert Scale Choices for Readability of English Text

Likert Scale	1	2	3	4	5	Likert Weighted Average
	Very Difficult	Difficult	Average	Easy	Very Easy	
Nonoptimized English n=20	0	6 (30%)	9 (45%)	5 (25%)	0	2.9
Optimized English n=20	0	1 (5%)	2 (10%)	12 (60%)	5 (25%)	4.0

Note. *All 20 respondents rated both text types.*

Discussion

The central purpose for the study was to gauge whether GES might allow government writers to produce text that linguistically-diverse audiences would find easier to read in English and more effective for translating using free online translation tools such as Google Translate. The study tested two hypotheses: (1) that English text that has been optimized using Kohl's (2008) guidelines produces better Spanish and Vietnamese translations from Google Translate than text that has not been optimized, and (2) that multilingual readers find English text easier to read when it has been optimized than when it has not been optimized.

The most notable result of the study confirmed the second hypothesis: The participants—highly-literate speakers of two notably different languages—were nearly unanimous in their perception that the optimized English text was easier to read than the nonoptimized English text. The results were consistent with an earlier study by McGinnis (2013) in which leaders from nearly 40 nonprofit organizations compared an optimized version and nonoptimized version of an English website text related to applying for a government grant. More than 90% of respondents in that study preferred the optimized version of the text (p. 17). The results of both studies take on greater meaning in light of the fact that both studies drew sample text from government websites. The data show that optimization made English text more readable. Furthermore, they suggest that optimization can make government writing more readable for people with a variety of backgrounds.

The other hypothesis of the current study—that optimization improves the quality of Vietnamese and Spanish translations produced by Google Translate—was supported in part. The data showed that Spanish-language readers perceived no difference in the quality of a nonoptimized Spanish translation and an optimized Spanish translation. They gave a median quality rating of 3.2 for both the optimized and nonoptimized translations. However, results for the Vietnamese-language readers indicated that text optimization improved translation quality. The median quality rating for the optimized

Vietnamese translation was nearly a full point higher than for the nonoptimized translation. Those results suggest that Vietnamese readers of the optimized translations found the translations comprehensible and less awkward than did their Vietnamese counterparts who reviewed the nonoptimized translation. To the extent that impenetrable English text or awkward machine-translated text cause readers to abandon a website, optimization offers hope that readers will remain engaged in a website and take advantage of opportunities to participate in government comment periods and other forms of participatory governance.

Due to the small sample size, the results of this study are only suggestive, but they support further testing. The survey was long and complex; yet, those participants who worked through the survey to the final screen skipped no questions. Such thorough responses suggest that participants were highly-motivated to participate and, consequently, gave well-considered answers.

The small sample size may have magnified the influence of participants' idiosyncrasies. For example, participants' may have had distinctly different standards for translation quality, and some may have had strong attitudes toward Google Translate or machine translation in general. Some participants may have had very little previous exposure to government website content, while other participants were government employees. Those idiosyncrasies would be expected to have a leveling effect on the results, which made the improvement in the quality rating of the Vietnamese translations more noteworthy.

A second limitation of the study was that the survey respondents did not represent the audiences that might benefit most if government agencies made their websites more readable for LEP individuals. The first author did not attempt to recruit LEP readers in this exploratory study because of the complexities of measuring participants' reading levels and the challenges of providing informed consent disclosures to LEP readers in languages other than English. In addition, the survey required participants to compare an English source text to a translation, so the design of this study required that participants be able to read both languages well. However, while the current study did not use LEP readers, it did move beyond the earlier studies by taking a step closer to the type of nonexpert, general audience that might visit a government website.

Other studies of GES (Kohl, 2008; Thicke, 2011) used professional translators and translation editors to evaluate optimized translations.

Conclusions

For government writers who wish to cast a broader net to draw in LEP readers, the two-fold opportunity that GES presents is valuable. That GES might improve the quality of some machine translations is important; that it may improve the readability of English that is not translated is crucial, precisely because human translation is so often not feasible. By conforming their web content to GES, government writers can improve the likelihood that LEP individuals who can read some English or who use Google Translate will understand and act on opportunities to get involved in public decisions that impact their lives. The results of the current study suggest that GES provides a means for keeping some LEP readers from falling through the cracks in government communication efforts whenever human translation is not a practical solution.

GES could be used routinely throughout an organization with little added expense other than the cost of a book and the labor costs associated with writers and editors familiarizing themselves with a new style. Applying the guidelines may require extra effort from writers since—as many writers and editors know—writing clearly and concisely requires more effort than writing less precisely. But the labor costs of spending time optimizing text might be offset by avoiding the costs of repeating a failed communication effort or responding to a flood of phone calls for clarification. A particular benefit of GES is that, because it is less costly than translation, it could be applied comprehensively to entire documents or websites, avoiding the piecemeal approach supported by DOJ's four factor test that authorizes agencies to translate only vital portions of vital documents (LEP.gov, "When Developing Plans and Guidance," para. 1). GES could relieve some LEP readers of the frustration of navigating a patchwork of incomplete information within the context of a website that may be, as a whole, written in an

English that is difficult for LEP readers to understand and clumsy to translate using free tools that these readers have access to.

An important next step would be to expand this study to involve a statistically significant sample of actual LEP readers. Doing so will present challenges. Recruiting a large number of bilingual readers would require substantial outreach conducted in non-English languages, requiring a linguistically-diverse research team. LEP readers might be reluctant to self-identify as having limited English proficiency if they are self-conscious about their English skills. For similar reasons, organizations that represent diverse communities might be reluctant to pinpoint their constituents who have limited proficiency. Recruiting online might be ineffective since LEP readers may not be frequent users of the Internet for socioeconomic reasons or for the simple reason that so much website content is in English. Evaluating the reading level of study participants to ensure that they meet a standard of limited English proficiency would be a monumental task that might present even greater barriers to study participation, since it would demand more time from participants, and perhaps amplify any feelings of insecurity they might have about their communication ability. And, all other things aside, the task of evaluating translation quality is not a simple one, and might deter many potential participants. Because it is the first of its kind, the current study was crafted more simply in order to facilitate the process of launching further study of the potential for GES to improve government communication—potential that this study has confirmed.

Testing the ability of government technical writers to apply GES guidelines would also be valuable. Kohl's (2008) book *The Global English style guide: Writing clear, translatable documentation for a global market* provides detailed information that, in some cases, may require significant familiarity with English grammar. It would be important to know the extent to which the average government writer could successfully apply Kohl's guidelines, and how long it might take such a writer to adapt to using GES. Gauging government writers' attitudes toward addressing LEP readers' needs and their motivation to implement GES would also be important. These are all necessary issues to explore if government is to evaluate the costs and benefits of training writers in new techniques.

The results of this study present great promise that text optimization may help bridge the policy gaps between the parallel efforts set in motion by Executive Order No. 13166, the Open Government Directive, and the Plain Writing Act of 2010. Where the government website plainlanguage.gov focuses on general readability for English-language readers and overlooks LEP readers, the government website LEP.gov focuses heavily on the use of translation, which offers little help to LEP readers since, as scholars and public leaders have acknowledged, translation has limited feasibility for government agencies. GES, however, pushes beyond the Anglo-centric vision of the plain English movement and the narrow directives of the Plain Writing Act of 2010, and instead offers a tool that can help level the playing field for LEP readers of any government document on any day at little cost. GES demands more work from English-language writers than they may be accustomed to investing, but this extra effort represents a show of good faith to traditionally-marginalized language groups. Those groups, in turn, will bring their communicative resources to bear when reading GES-optimized English text or taking the extra step of using a tool like Google Translate. Consequently, GES presents an opportunity to improve the balance in public participation in an age when Internet outreach is increasingly important and government's ability to understand its multilingual audiences is lagging. ■

References

Batova, T., & Clark, D. (2014). The complexities of globalized content management. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*, *29*(2), 221–235. doi:10.1177/1050651914562472

Birnback, L., Chavez, M. M., Friedman, W., & Rowlett, I. (2009). *Public engagement and America's growing Latino population: A working paper*. Center for Advances in

Public Engagement. Retrieved from http://www.publicagenda.org/media/public-engagement-and-americas-growing-latino-population

Flammia, M. (2005). Preparing technical communication students to play a role on the translation team. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, *48*(4), 401-412. doi:10.1109/TPC.2005.859724

Gnecchi, M., Maylath, B., Mousten, B., Scarpa, F., & Vandepitte, S. (2011). Field convergence between technical writers and technical translators: Consequences for training institutions. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, *54*(2), 168–184. doi:10.1109/TPC.2011.2121750

Haara, B. (1998). Challenging the way we learn to write for a global audience. In *IPCC 98. Contemporary Renaissance: Changing the Way we Communicate. Proceedings 1998 IEEE International Professional Communication Conference (Cat. No.98CH36332)* (Vol. 2, pp. 293–303). IEEE. doi:10.1109/IPCC.1998.722111

Hartley, A., & Paris, C. (1997). Multilingual document production from support for translating to support for authoring. *Machine Translation*, *12*(1–2), 109–129. doi:10.1023/A:1007986908015

Hayhoe, G. F. (2006). The globalization of our profession. *Technical Communication, 53*(1), 9-10.

Horner, B., Lu, M.-Z., Royster, J. J., & Trimbur, J. (2011). Opinion: Language difference in writing—toward a translingual approach. *College English*, *73*(3), 303–321. Retrieved from http://www.ncte.org/cccc/ccc/

Kerrey, B. (2005). Introduction. In *Writing a powerful message from state government.* The College Board. Retrieved from http://www.collegeboard.com/prod_downloads/writingcom/powerful-message-from-state.pdf

Kohl, J. R. (2008). *The Global English style guide: Writing clear, translatable documentation for a global market.* Cary, NC: SAS Institute, Inc.

LEP.gov (2002). DOJ Guidance to Federal Financial Assistance Recipients Regarding Title VI Prohibition Against National Origin Discrimination Affecting Limited English Proficient Persons. 67 Fed Reg. 41455 (June 18, 2002). Retrieved from http://www.lep.gov/guidance/guidance_DOJ_Guidance.html

LEP.gov (2000). DOJ Enforcement of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 National Origin Discrimination Against Persons with Limited English Proficiency. 65 Fed. Reg. 50123 (August 11, 2000). Retrieved from http://www.lep.gov/guidance/guidance_DOJ_Guidance.html

LEP.gov. (n.d). Mission of the federal interagency working group on limited English proficiency. Retrieved from http://www.lep.gov/index.htm

LEP.gov. (n.d). Resources by subject: Agency multilingual websites and materials. Retrieved from http://www.lep.gov/resources/resources.html

LEP.gov (n.d). 9. Q. When developing plans and guidance regarding translation of documents. In *Frequently asked questions*. Retrieved from http://www.lep.gov/faqs/faqs.html

Locke, J. (2004). A history of plain language in the United States government. Retrieved from http://www.plainlanguage.gov/whatisPL/history/locke.cfm

Magnini, B., Not, E., Stock, O., & Strapparava, C. (2000). Natural language processing for transparent communication between public administration and citizens. *Artificial Intelligence and Law*, *8*(1), 1–34. doi:10.1023/A:1008394902165

Maylath, B. (1997). Writing Globally: Teaching the technical writing student to prepare documents for translation. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*, *11*(3), 339–352. doi:10.1177/1050651997011003006

McGinnis, C. L. (2013). *Nonprofit sector writing in a multilingual world: opportunities for technical writers*. (Unpublished independent research project). Department of English and Philosophy, University of Wisconsin-Stout, Menomonie, WI.

Melton, J. H. (2008). Lost in translation: Professional communication competencies in global training contexts. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, *51*(2), 198–214. doi:10.1109/TPC.2008.2000346

Momen, H. (2009). Language and multilingualism in scientific communication. *Singapore Medical Journal, 50*(7), 654–656. doi:19644617

Orszag, P. (2009). *Open government directive* [Memorandum]. Washington, DC: Office of Management and Budget. Retrieved from https://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/omb/assets/memoranda_2010/m10-06.pdf

Pandya, C., Batalova, J., & McHugh, M. (2011). *Limited English proficient individuals in the United States: Number, share, growth, and linguistic diversity*. Migration Policy Institute. Retrieved from http://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/limited-english-proficient-individuals-united-states-number-share-growth-and-linguistic

Public Policy Institute of California. (2004, April). *Participating in democracy: Civic engagement in California* (Research Brief No. 86). San Francisco, CA: Public Policy Institute of California.

Ramakrishnan, K., & Baldassare, M. (2004). *The ties that bind: Changing demographics and civic engagement in California*. Public Policy Institute of California. Retrieved from http://www.ppic.org/main/publication.asp?i=410

Rowland-Seymour, P. (2007). *Communicating with a multilingual public: Snapshot of federal agency websites and hotlines* [PowerPoint slides]. Retrieved from http://www.google.com/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=4&ved=0CEgQFjAD&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.migrationpolicy.org%2Fsites%2Fdefault%2Ffiles%2Fpublications%2FLP_CommunicatingWithAMultilingualPublic.ppt&ei=V6I6VbyxF8HcoASW9YH4DA&usg=AFQjCNG3z8fW-YsqdL7tju_gPFl9pS1WoA&bvm=bv.91665533,d.cGU&cad=rja

Ryan, C. (2013). *Language use in the United States: 2011*. (American Community Survey Reports ACS-22). Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/hhes/socdemo/language/

Schriver, K. A. (1997). *Dynamics in document design*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Shankland, S. (2013, May 18). Google Translate now serves 200 million people daily [Web log post]. Retrieved from http://www.cnet.com/news/google-translate-now-serves-200-million-people-daily/

Spyridakis, J. H., Holmback, H., & Shubert, S. K. (1997). Measuring the translatability of Simplified English in procedural documents. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, *40*(1), 4–12. doi:10.1109/47.557512

St. Amant, K. (2013). Understanding the process of language translation: A primer for medical writers. *AMWA Journal 28*(1): 3–7.

St. Germaine-McDaniel, N. (2010). Technical communication in the health fields: Executive Order 13166 and its impact on translation and localization. *Technical*

Communication Online, *57*(3). Retrieved from http://echcomm.stc.org/2010/08/applied-research-technical-communication-in-the-health-fields-executive-order-13166-and-its-impact-on-translation-and-localization/

Thicke, L. (2011). Improving MT results: A study. *Multilingual. 22*(1), 37–40. Retrieved from http://www.multilingual.com

Thrush, E. A. (1993). Bridging the gaps: Technical communication in an international and multicultural society. *Technical Communication Quarterly*, *2*(3), 271–83. doi:10.1080/10572259309364541

Thrush, E. A. (2001). Plain English? A study of Plain English vocabulary and international audiences. *Technical Communication: Journal of the Society for Technical Communication*, *48*(3), 289–96. Retrieved from http://www.stc.org/publications/technical-communication

U.S. Department of Justice (2015). Exec. Order No. 13166, 65 C.F.R. 50121 (2000), *reprinted as amended in* 42 U.S.C. 2000d–1 at 3857–59. Retrieved from http://www.justice.gov/crt/about/cor/13166.php

U.S. Department of Justice (2005). *Limited English proficiency: What federal agencies and federally assisted programs should know about providing services to LEP individuals* [Pamphlet]. Retrieved from http://www.lep.gov/lepbrochure.pdf

U.S. Government Publishing Office (2010). Plain Writing Act of 2010, 5 U.S.C. § 105. Retrieved from https://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/PLAW-111publ274/pdf/PLAW-111publ274.pdf

U.S. Government Publishing Office (2009). Transparency and Open Government: Memorandum for the Heads of Executive Departments and Agencies. 74 Fed. Reg. 4685–4686 (January 21, 2009). Retrieved from http://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/FR-2009-01-26/pdf/E9-1777.pdf

Appendix A

English Source Text for Translations

Included below are the source texts used to produce the translations used in the surveys. All translations created by Google Translate for this study were produced within the same five-minute period. The nonoptimized source text has not been conformed to Global English Style. The optimized source text has been conformed to Global English Style.

Nonoptimized Source Text

(250 Words. Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level 13.8)

The City of Carlsburg has been tasked with updating its Comprehensive City Plan, a long-range, 20-year plan that sets the framework up for the physical development of the city. Carlsburg originally developed its Comprehensive Plan in 1970; periodic plan updates are mandated by the State Legislature. The Comprehensive Plan update will help implement the city's strategic plan for a prosperous, educated, healthy, equitable and resilient Carlsburg.

The city has appointed a committee chair, which will ensure opportunities will be provided for open, meaningful community participation in the Comprehensive Plan update process. The committee is responsible for prioritizing. They have also been tasked with defining criteria and principles for engaging Carlsburg residents in a public involvement process, identifying benchmarks and timelines to measure success, and serving as the eyes and ears of Carlsburg's many and diverse communities, ensuring that the perspectives of all Carlsburg residents are reflected in the updated plan.

Have your say by staying informed and getting involved. Read the draft Comprehensive Plan update, which describes proposed changes to land use, transportation, and infrastructure that will help us grow, create more jobs, close city service gaps, and help make Carlsburg a more livable city.

Participate by submitting your comments to plan@carlsburg.ci.us, or attending a workshop, open house or other event. The public comment period will be closing on March 1, 2015. Based on public input, changes will be made to the proposed plan. If you are unsure how to participate, we recommend you call the Mayor's Office at 345-789-1234.

Optimized Source Text

(232 Words. Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level 10.2)

The City of Carlsburg is updating its Comprehensive Plan. The Comprehensive Plan is a 20-year plan that guides decisions about how the city changes or grows.

Carlsburg originally developed its Comprehensive Plan in 1970. The State Legislature requires Carlsburg to update the plan periodically. The city will use the Comprehensive Plan to implement the city's strategic plan. The goal of the Comprehensive Plan is to make Carlsburg prosperous, educated, healthy, equitable, and resilient.

City officials appointed a committee chairperson, who ensures that opportunities exist for community members to help update the Comprehensive Plan. The committee will do the following:

- Prioritize tasks
- Identify ways to involve residents
- Identify benchmarks and timelines to measure success
- Monitor residents' concerns
- Ensure that the updated plan reflects all residents' opinions

Share your ideas. Stay informed and get involved. Read the draft update of the Comprehensive Plan, which proposes changes to land use, transportation and infrastructure. The plan will help the city grow, create more jobs, and close gaps in city services. It will help us make Carlsburg a better place to live.

Submit your comments to plan@carlsburg.ci.us, or attend a workshop, open house or other event. The public comment period will close on March 1, 2015. City planners will revise the proposed plan in response to public comments. If you are unsure about how to participate, we recommend that you call the Mayor's Office at 345-789-1234.

Appendix B

Nonoptimized and Optimized English Test Passages

Included below are the English texts used for comparison—in English—in the surveys. The texts were not translated. The nonoptimized source text has not been conformed to Global English Style. The optimized source text has been conformed to Global English Style.

Nonoptimized Test Passage

(130 Words. Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level 17.0)

The Bakery Rule is one of seven proposed government-mandated rules that will be finalized by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in 2015, which will implement the Food Safety Modernization Act. This will lead to creation of a prevention based, modern, bakery food safety system ensuring consumers are safe from foodborne illness. A supplemental rule (Dairy) was later proposed to make certain provisions, including milk quality standards and testing, more flexible reducing potential health impacts.

The FDA will consider comments from the public and other government agencies received during the comment period before drafting the final Environmental Impact Statement (EIS). The FDA will evaluate the potential alternatives the final EIS presents and the environmental impacts of each, which includes related socioeconomic and human health effects, before finalizing the food-safety rules.

Optimized Test Passage

(135 Words. Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level 11.8)

The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has proposed the Bakery Rule, which modernizes the food-safety system for bakeries. The rule is among seven government-mandated rules that implement the Food Safety Modernization Act. The Bakery Rule focuses on prevention to protect consumers from foodborne illness. The FDA also has proposed the supplemental Dairy Rule. It reduces health risks by making the standards for milk quality and testing more flexible. The FDA will finalize the rules in 2015.

The FDA will consider comments from government agencies and the public before drafting the final Environmental Impact Statement (EIS). Comments must be received during the comment period to be considered. Before finalizing the food safety rules, the FDA will evaluate the environmental impact of each alternative that appears in the EIS, including impacts on human health and the economy.

Appendix C

Survey Sample

All four surveys were conducted using Survey Monkey. The following is a sample of the survey used for the study. Actual source texts and translations were updated upon distribution of the surveys, and differ from the content below. The actual source texts are available in Appendices A and B.

Social Inclusion: Text Optimization for Government Organizations
Researcher: First Author, Masters Candidate, Institution Name
Research Advisor: Second Author, Associate Professor, Institution Name

---

This research has been reviewed by the UW-Stout IRB as required by the Code of Federal Regulations title 45 Part 46

Purpose

This survey explores methods for government agencies and nonprofit organizations to write websites and documents that are easier for global audiences to read. As a result of these methods, people who find it difficult to read English may have more opportunities to use public services and to give input on public policy decisions that affect their lives.

Length

The survey takes about 10 minutes to complete. The survey is hosted by Survey Monkey.

Thank-You Gift

All participants will receive a $10 Amazon.com gift certificate by email as a thank you for participating in the survey. The survey will ask you to provide an email address where you would like to receive your gift certificate.

Survey Tasks

The survey asks you to evaluate the quality of a Spanish translation created by Google Translate. It also asks you to compare two versions of an English paragraph and rate how readable each version is. Tasks are described in more detail at the start of the survey.

Confidentiality

All survey data will be password-protected. The survey will ask you to provide an email address where you would like to receive a gift certificate for participating in the survey. I will not share your email address with anyone. I will delete the email address from my records before the survey data is compiled. At that point, your responses will not be connected to you in any way.

Benefits of Participating

Data from this survey may help improve government and nonprofit writing. As a result, people who find it difficult to read English may have more opportunities to use public services and to give input on new laws or policies.

Risks of Participating

The survey presents no more than minimal risks to participants. Some survey participants could feel uncomfortable if the translations are difficult to read. However, the survey does not measure reading ability. It measures translation quality. Some participants could feel uncomfortable providing an email address to receive a thank you gift. However, accepting the gift and providing an email address is optional.

Consent to Participate

Your participation in this survey is voluntary. If you choose to complete the survey, you consent to participate in this study called "Social Inclusion: Text Optimization for Government Organizations." The study includes only this survey. Nothing else will be asked of you after the survey. You can withdraw from the study at any time before you finish the survey. However, you will not be able to withdraw your responses after you finish the survey, because I will not know which responses are yours.

IRB Approval

This study has been reviewed and approved by the Institution Name Institutional Review Board (IRB). The IRB has determined that this study meets the ethical obligations required by federal law and University policies. Please contact the Researcher or Advisor if you have questions or concerns about this study. Please contact the IRB Administrator if you have any questions, concerns or reports regarding your rights as a research subject.

Contact

Researcher: Name and contact information

Research Advisor: Name and contact information

IRB Administrator: Name and contact information

________________[End of Screen]____________________________

HOW THE SURVEY WORKS

In this survey we will work with a passage of text that I translated from English to Spanish using Google Translate. (Google Translate is a free online translation tool.) During the survey, you will do the following:

1. Read the translated text with some words removed, and guess what the missing words are.

2. Read the full translated text (with no words removed) and answer questions about the text.

3. Compare the English text and the Spanish translation and answer one question about the quality of the translation.

4. Compare two versions of an English paragraph and decide which version is better.

5. Enter your email address if you wish to receive a $5 Amazon.com gift certificate

_______________[End of Screen]___________________________

GUESS THE MISSING WORDS

Here is the translated text that we will use for this survey. I have removed words from the text. In place of each missing word, you will see a line with a number on it. After the text you will see a numbered list where you will type in the missing words. This survey does *not* test or measure your reading or writing ability. The survey measures the quality of the translation that Google Translate produces.

Please read the text and guess what words are missing. Write the missing words in the numbered list that follows the text. *<u>Please do not continue to the next screen of the survey until you have completed this task.</u>*

La Ciudad de Carlsburg está actualizando su Plan Integral, un plan de largo alcance de 20 años que ____1____ el marco para el desarrollo físico de la ciudad. Carlsburg originalmente desarrollado su Plan Integral en 1970; actualizaciones ____2____ del plan están obligados por la Legislatura del Estado. La actualización del Plan Integral ayudará a implementar el ____3____ estratégico de la ciudad para un educado, Carlsburg próspera, saludable, equitativa y resistente.

La ciudad ha nombrado un ____4____ para garantizar oportunidades abiertas y significativas para la participación comunitaria en la actualización del Plan Integral. El comité ____5____ responsable de la definición de criterios y principios para los residentes participar carlsburg en un proceso de participación ____6____, la identificación de puntos de referencia y plazos para medir el éxito, y que sirve como los "ojos ____7____ oídos" de muchas y diversas comunidades de carlsburg, asegurando que las perspectivas de todos Carlsburg residentes se reflejan ____8____ el plan actualizado.

Manténgase informado y participar. Leer el proyecto de propuesta para la actualización del Plan Integral, ____9____ incluye cambios en el uso del suelo, el transporte y la infraestructura que nos ayudará a crecer, crear ____10____ puestos de trabajo, cerrar las brechas en servicios de la ciudad, y ayudar a que Carlsburg una ciudad ____11____ habitable. El período de comentarios públicos está abierto actualmente. Envíe sus comentarios a carlsburgplan@carlsburg.ci.us. o asistir a un taller, ____**12**____ casa abierta o cualquier otro evento. Su regeneración se incluirá con el testimonio público sobre esta fase del ____**13**____ de planificación.

Please type the missing word that corresponds with each number in the text above. If you are unsure, just guess.

1. ____________________________
2. ____________________________
3. ____________________________
4. ____________________________
5. ____________________________
6. ____________________________
7. ____________________________
8. ____________________________
9. ____________________________
10. ____________________________
11. ____________________________
12. ____________________________
13. ____________________________

____________[End of Screen]____________________________

ANSWER QUESTIONS ABOUT THE TRANSLATION CONTENT

Here is the same translated text with no words removed. (*Please do not return to the previous screen to change your responses.*)

Please read the text and answer the questions below it.

La Ciudad de Carlsburg está actualizando su Plan Integral, un plan de largo alcance de 20 años que establece el marco para el desarrollo físico de la ciudad. Carlsburg originalmente desarrollado su Plan Integral en 1970; actualizaciones periódicas del plan están obligados por la Legislatura del Estado. La actualización del Plan Integral ayudará a implementar el plan estratégico de la ciudad para un educado, Carlsburg próspera, saludable, equitativa y resistente.

La ciudad ha nombrado un comité para garantizar oportunidades abiertas y significativas para la participación comunitaria en la actualización del Plan Integral. El comité es responsable de la definición de criterios y principios para los residentes participar carlsburg en un proceso de participación pública, la identificación de puntos de referencia y plazos para medir el éxito, y que sirve como los "ojos y oídos" de muchas y diversas comunidades de carlsburg, asegurando que las perspectivas de todos Carlsburg residentes se reflejan en el plan actualizado.

Manténgase informado y participar. Leer el proyecto de propuesta para la actualización del Plan Integral, que incluye cambios en el uso del suelo, el transporte y la infraestructura que nos ayudará a crecer, crear más puestos de trabajo, cerrar las brechas en servicios de la ciudad, y ayudar a que Carlsburg una ciudad más habitable. El período de comentarios públicos está abierto actualmente. Envíe sus comentarios a carlsburgplan@carlsburg.ci.us. o asistir a un taller, una casa abierta o cualquier otro evento. Su regeneración se incluirá con el testimonio público sobre esta fase del proyecto de planificación.

Please enter your responses in English. (The researcher cannot read Spanish.)

1. What is this text about?

2. Who is the text intended for?

3. What does the text tell the reader to do?

4. How will the reader benefit if he or she does what the text suggests?

________________[End of Screen]____________________________

COMPARE THE ORIGINAL TEXT AND THE TRANSLATION

Here are the original English text and the Spanish translation. Please compare the English and the Spanish texts, and answer the question at the bottom of the screen.

<u>Original English text:</u>

The City of Carlsburg is updating its Comprehensive Plan, a long-range 20-year plan that sets the framework for the physical development of the city. Carlsburg originally developed its Comprehensive Plan in 1970; periodic updates of the plan are mandated by the State Legislature. The Comprehensive Plan update will help to implement the city's strategic plan for a prosperous, educated, healthy, equitable and resilient Carlsburg.

The city has appointed a committee to ensure open and meaningful opportunities for community participation in the Comprehensive Plan update. The committee is responsible for defining criteria and principles for engaging Carlsburg residents in a public involvement process, identifying benchmarks and timelines to measure success, and serving as the "eyes and ears" of Carlsburg's many and diverse communities, ensuring that the perspectives of all Carlsburg residents are reflected in the updated plan.

Stay informed and get involved. Read the proposed draft of the Comprehensive Plan update, which includes changes to land use, transportation and infrastructure that will help us grow, create more jobs, close gaps in city services, and help make Carlsburg a more livable city. The public comment period is currently open. Submit your comments to carlsburgplan@carlsburg.ci.us. or attend a workshop, open house or other event. Your feedback will be included with the public testimony on this phase of the planning project.

<u>Translation:</u>

La Ciudad de Carlsburg está actualizando su Plan Integral, un plan de largo alcance de 20 años que establece el marco para el desarrollo físico de la ciudad. Carlsburg originalmente desarrollado su Plan Integral en 1970; actualizaciones periódicas del plan están obligados por la Legislatura del Estado. La actualización del Plan Integral ayudará a implementar el plan estratégico de la ciudad para un educado, Carlsburg próspera, saludable, equitativa y resistente.

La ciudad ha nombrado un comité para garantizar oportunidades abiertas y significativas para la participación comunitaria en la actualización del Plan Integral. El comité es responsable de la definición de criterios y principios para los residentes participar carlsburg en un proceso de participación pública, la identificación de puntos de referencia y plazos para medir el éxito, y que sirve como los "ojos y oídos" de muchas y diversas comunidades de carlsburg, asegurando que las perspectivas de todos Carlsburg residentes se reflejan en el plan actualizado.

Manténgase informado y participar. Leer el proyecto de propuesta para la actualización del Plan Integral, que incluye cambios en el uso del suelo, el transporte y la infraestructura que nos ayudará a crecer, crear más puestos de trabajo, cerrar las brechas en servicios de la ciudad, y ayudar a que Carlsburg una ciudad más habitable. El período de comentarios públicos está abierto actualmente. Envíe sus comentarios a carlsburgplan@carlsburg.ci.us. o asistir a un taller, una casa abierta o cualquier otro evento. Su regeneración se incluirá con el testimonio público sobre esta fase del proyecto de planificación.

Please rate the overall quality of the translation. An excellent Spanish translation accurately conveys the *meaning* of the original English sentence, and does not sound wrong or awkward to you as a reader of Spanish. The translation is:

- ☐ Very Poor
- ☐ Below Average
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Above Average
- ☐ Very Good
- ☐ Not sure

________________[End of Screen]____________________________

RATE THE TRANSLATION ERRORS

Please compare the 10 English sentences and their Spanish translations. Rate the quality of the translation. An excellent Spanish translation accurately conveys the meaning of the original English sentence, and does not sound wrong or awkward to you as a reader of Spanish.

1. Sentence one:

Original: The City of Carlsburg is updating its Comprehensive Plan, a long-range 20-year plan that sets the framework for the physical development of the city.

Translation: La Ciudad de Carlsburg está actualizando su Plan Integral, un plan de largo alcance de 20 años que establece el marco para el desarrollo físico de la ciudad.

The translation is:

- ☐ Very Poor
- ☐ Below Average
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Above Average
- ☐ Very Good
- ☐ Not sure

_______________[End of Screen]_____________________________

2. Sentence two:

Original: Carlsburg originally developed its Comprehensive Plan in 1970; periodic updates of the plan are mandated by the State Legislature.

Translation: Carlsburg originalmente desarrollado su Plan Integral en 1970; actualizaciones periódicas del plan están obligados por la Legislatura del Estado.

The translation is:

- ☐ Very Poor
- ☐ Below Average
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Above Average
- ☐ Very Good
- ☐ Not sure

______________[End of Screen]__________________________

3. Sentence three:

Original: The Comprehensive Plan update will help to implement the city's strategic plan for a prosperous, educated, healthy, equitable and resilient Carlsburg.

Translation: La actualización del Plan Integral ayudará a implementar el plan estratégico de la ciudad para un educado, Carlsburg próspera, saludable, equitativa y resistente.

The translation is:

- ☐ Very Poor
- ☐ Below Average
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Above Average
- ☐ Very Good
- ☐ Not sure

______________[End of Screen]___________________________

4. Sentence four:

Original: The city has appointed a committee to ensure open and meaningful opportunities for community participation in the Comprehensive Plan update.

Translation: La ciudad ha nombrado un comité para garantizar oportunidades abiertas y significativas para la participación comunitaria en la actualización del Plan Integral.

The translation is:

- ☐ Very Poor
- ☐ Below Average
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Above Average
- ☐ Very Good
- ☐ Not sure

______________[End of Screen]___________________________

5. Sentence five:

Original: The committee is responsible for defining criteria and principles for engaging Carlsburg residents in a public involvement process, identifying benchmarks and timelines to measure success, and serving as the "eyes and ears" of Carlsburg's many and diverse communities, ensuring that the perspectives of all Carlsburg residents are reflected in the updated plan.

Translation: El comité es responsable de la definición de criterios y principios para los residentes participar carlsburg en un proceso de participación pública, la identificación de puntos de referencia y plazos para medir el éxito, y que sirve como los "ojos y oídos" de muchas y diversas comunidades de carlsburg, asegurando que las perspectivas de todos Carlsburg residentes se reflejan en el plan actualizado.

The translation is:

- ☐ Very Poor
- ☐ Below Average
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Above Average
- ☐ Very Good
- ☐ Not sure

________________[End of Screen]____________________________

6. Sentence six:

Original: Stay informed and get involved.

Translation: Manténgase informado y participar.

The translation is:

- ☐ Very Poor
- ☐ Below Average
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Above Average
- ☐ Very Good
- ☐ Not sure

______________[End of Screen]__________________________

7. Sentence seven:

Original: Read the proposed draft of the Comprehensive Plan update, which includes changes to land use, transportation and infrastructure that will help us grow, create more jobs, close gaps in city **services**, and help make Carlsburg a more livable city.

Translation: Leer el proyecto de propuesta para la actualización del Plan Integral, que incluye cambios en el uso del suelo, el transporte y la infraestructura que nos ayudará a crecer, crear más puestos de trabajo, cerrar las brechas en servicios de la ciudad, y ayudar a que Carlsburg una ciudad más habitable.

The translation is:

- ☐ Very Poor
- ☐ Below Average
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Above Average
- ☐ Very Good
- ☐ Not sure

_____________ [End of Screen]__________________________

8. Sentence eight:

Original: The public comment period is currently open.

Translation: El período de comentarios públicos está abierto actualmente.

The translation is:

- ☐ Very Poor

- ☐ Below Average
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Above Average
- ☐ Very Good
- ☐ Not sure

_______________[End of Screen]_____________________________

9. Sentence nine:

Original: Submit your comments to carlsburgplan@carlsburg.ci.us. or attend a workshop, open house or other event.

Translation: Envíe sus comentarios a carlsburgplan@carlsburg.ci.us. o asistir a un taller, una casa abierta o cualquier otro evento.

The translation is:

- ☐ Very Poor
- ☐ Below Average
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Above Average
- ☐ Very Good
- ☐ Not sure

_______________[End of Screen]_____________________________

10. Sentence ten:

Original: Your feedback will be included with the public testimony on this phase of the planning project.

Translation: Su regeneración se incluirá con el testimonio público sobre esta fase del proyecto de planificación.

The translation is:

- ☐ Very Poor
- ☐ Below Average
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Above Average
- ☐ Very Good
- ☐ Not sure

________________[End of Screen]____________________________

This is your final task.

Here are two versions of the same English paragraph, written in slightly different ways. Please read the paragraphs and answer the questions below.

Version 1

The Bakery Rule is one of seven proposed government-mandated rules that will be finalized by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in 2015, which will implement the Food Safety Modernization Act. This will lead to creation of a prevention based, modern, bakery food safety system ensuring consumers are safe from foodborne illness. A supplemental rule (Dairy) was later proposed to make certain provisions, including milk quality standards and testing, more flexible reducing potential health impacts.

The FDA will consider comments from the public and other government agencies received during the comment period before drafting the final Environmental Impact Statement (EIS). The FDA will evaluate the potential alternatives the final EIS presents and the environmental impacts of each, which includes related socioeconomic and human health effects, before finalizing the food-safety rules.

Please rate how readable Version 1 is.

Version 1 is:

- ☐ Very difficult to read
- ☐ Difficult to read
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Easy to read
- ☐ Very easy to read

Version 2

The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has proposed the Bakery Rule, which modernizes the food-safety system for bakeries. The rule is among seven government-mandated rules that implement the Food Safety Modernization Act. The Bakery Rule focuses on prevention to protect consumers from foodborne illness. The FDA also has proposed the supplemental Dairy Rule. It reduces health risks by making the standards for milk quality and testing more flexible. The FDA will finalize the rules in 2015.

The FDA will consider comments from government agencies and the public before drafting the final Environmental Impact Statement (EIS). Comments must be received during the comment period to be considered. Before finalizing the food safety rules, the FDA will evaluate the environmental impact of each alternative that appears in the EIS, including impacts on human health and the economy.

Please rate how readable Version 2 is.

Version 2 is:

- ☐ Very difficult to read
- ☐ Difficult to read
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Easy to read
- ☐ Very easy to read

Overall, which of the two versions is easiest to read? (Select one)

- ☐ Version 1 is easiest to read
- ☐ Version 2 is easiest to read
- ☐ Neither version is easier to read than the other version
- ☐ Not sure

_______________[End of Screen]____________________________

You are done! Thank you very much for participating in this survey!

If you would like to receive a $10 Amazon.com gift certificate, please enter your email address.

I will delete your email address after I send your gift, and before I compile the survey results.

Thank you.

________________[End of Survey]____________________________

About the authors

Cathy McGinnis, MS, is developmental editor for the College of Urban and Public Affairs at Portland State University (Portland, OR). For 25 years she has been a researcher, writer, and editor in government and higher education with a focus on stakeholder engagement and Plain English writing for literacy-challenged audiences.

Email. c.l.mcginnis@pdx.edu

URL. http://www.pdx.edu/directory/name/cathy_mcginnis

Contact.
Portland State University
College of Urban & Public Affairs - Deans Office
PO Box 751
Portland, OR 97207
USA

Joleen Hanson is associate professor of English at the University of Wisconsin-Stout (Menomonie, WI) where she teaches courses in linguistics, transnational professional communication, and first year writing for multilingual students. Her research focuses on written communication in multilingual environments, language awareness among professional communicators, and writing pedagogy.

Email. hansonjo@uwstout.edu

URL. http://www.uwstout.edu/faculty/hansonjo/

Contact.
University of Wisconsin–Stout
P.O. Box 790
Menomonie, WI 54751-0790
USA

Manuscript received May 30, 2015; revised August 3, 2015; accepted September 2, 2015.

BRIDGING FOR A CRITICAL TURN IN TRANSLATION STUDIES

Power, hegemony, and empowerment

Yusaku Yajima and Satoshi Toyosaki

Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, USA

The purpose of this critical essay is to meaningfully complicate the classical understanding of translation. In so doing, we, joining some critical translation scholars, contend that translation is not simply linguistic but also political, that translation participates in global hegemony, and that translation can only be partially just or justice-oriented at best. Given this framing, we discuss two interdisciplinary bridges that help us contemplate a critical turn for translation studies. The first bridge explains translation as intercultural communication; we resituate translator as relational and narrative emergent in a process of translation. The second bridge understands translation as critical pedagogy; we focus on the relationship between translators and the translated as a critical site for empowerment. A critical turn for translation that we endorse in this essay directs researchers' and translators' attention toward the politically complex nature of translation and toward minute potentiality for social justice-oriented translation practices.

Keywords. Critical approach; Power; Hegemony; Intercultural communication; Critical pedagogy.

"Language follows power," Maylath (2012, p. 3) teaches his students in his linguistics courses. This is how Maylath opened his president's address at the 2011 conference of Languages & Cultures Circle of Manitoba & North Dakota. Attention to power in translation studies has been discussed sparsely. For example, Jacquemond's (1992) germinal work explicates how global translation practices are organized in accordance to the global economy and calls power into

connexions • international professional communication journal
2015, *3*(2), 91–125
ISSN 2325-6044

question in translation studies. Müller (2007) suggests a shift towards "critical translation" (p. 212); he insists that a traditional/classic approach to translation neutralizes or does not take into account the hegemonic nature of languages and that a critical approach is to attend to it more consciously in understanding translation as a political act. This special issue in *connexions* also directs our attention to power. It is entitled, "Translation and International Professional Communication: Building Bridges and Strengthening Skills." In their call for papers, Drs. Bruce Maylath, Ricardo Muñoz Martín, and Marta Pacheco Pinto explicitly mention power and ethics and write, "Translators . . . operate as mediators to facilitate understanding across global, international, national and local contexts through diverse communication channels" (*connexions • international professional communication journal*, n.d.). Such mediation necessarily brings with it an ethical component, in addition to the necessity for meaning accuracy/ linguistic equivalency.

These scholars together seem to point to a critical turn in translation studies. Invoking Müller's (2007) "critical translation," we use a "critical turn" to emphasize scholarly attention paid to power, ethics, and hegemony in translation studies. This emphasis is significant because translators are mediators of socially constructed realities that facilitate materialistic consequences for the translated. What ethical responsibilities do translators have? How does ethical mediation look and feel? What skills do translators need to develop to become ethical mediators in the global hegemony of languages? These are just a few questions that beg our attention.

Our interest in this critical turn is found in our hope for (re)imagining translation as a global enterprise for social justice. Freysinger, Shaw, Henderson, and Bialeschki (2013) explain social justice as follows:

> a vision of society where the distribution of resources is equitable and all members are physically and psychologically safe and secure. In this society, individuals are both self-determining and interdependent. Justice involves a sense of one's own agency and a sense of social responsibility towards others, and for society as a whole. (p. 553)

Orienting toward this vision of social justice, we hope that translation studies takes a critical turn, searching to construct a figure of translators as ethical mediators of/for social justice.

The critical turn we envision in this essay is not mistaken as a departure from the traditional and functionalist approaches to translation studies. Rather, we intend it to mean a productive extension and meaningful complication of translation studies, dialectically situating a critical turn in relation to the instrumentality of translation (Boyden, 2011). Following the lead of Muñoz Martín (2013), we hope to advance an understanding of a critical turn from interdisciplinary perspectives—merging translation studies, namely, with critical intercultural communication studies and critical pedagogy.

Critical Framing of Translation

Situating a critical turn in translation studies requires revisiting how we conceptualize translation. Traditionally, translation is understood as "the replacement of text in a source language by text in a target language *equivalent* in meaning" (Müller, 2007, p. 207). Considering a critical turn, we understand that the classic conceptualization of translation does not fully capture its complexity and contextuality. Translation scholars such as Baker (2006), Gentzler (2002), Jacquemond (1992), Robinson (1997), Tymoczko (2000, 2003, 2007), and Venuti (1993, 1995, 1998, 2000) argue that translation is not simply linguistic but also political. Following their lead, we elaborate on translation as a global and political act.

Global Economy

In *Translation and cultural hegemony: The case of French-Arabic translation*, Jacquemond (1992) argues that translation "takes place in a specific social and historical context that informs and structures it" (p. 139). In other words, translation is a socially and historically situated act; hence, it is political. Jacquemond continues:

> A political economy of translation is consequently bound to be set within the general framework of the political economy of intercultural exchange, whose tendencies follow the global trends of international trade. Thus it is no surprise that the global translation flux is predominantly North–North, while South–South translation is almost non-existent and North–South translation is unequal: cultural hegemony confirms, to a great extent, economic hegemony. (p. 139)

That is, Jacquemond (1992) observes that cultural, economic, and political power lies in the Northern hemisphere. Further, global translation behaves as the very lubricant for the circulation of power by making particular information available in particular ways to particular people in the world.

Robinson (1997) succinctly summarizes Jacquemond's (1992) hypotheses that explain a critical relationship between translation and hegemony. We cite him at length:

> 1. A dominated culture will invariably translate far more of the hegemonic culture than the latter will of the former.
> 2. When the hegemonic culture does translate works produced by the dominated culture, those works will be perceived and presented as difficult, mysterious, inscrutable, esoteric and in need of a small cadre of intellectuals to interpret them, while a dominated culture will translate a hegemonic culture's works accessibly for the masses.
> 3. A hegemonic culture will only translate those works by authors in a dominated culture that fit the former's preconceived notions of the latter.
> 4. Authors in a dominated culture who dream of reaching a large audience will tend to write for translation into a hegemonic language, and this will require some degree of compliance with stereotypes. (Robinson, 1997, p. 1)

These hypotheses point to the significance of examining global translation and how it landscapes the global circulation of power. Given this critical framing of translation, we discuss in what follows a particular language—the English language—and its active roles in the global and political economy of translation.

English Hegemony

Globally, the English language, as the current lingua franca, privileges the worldview constructed through the English language, simultaneously advancing intercultural and international communication functionally (Sorrells, 2013; Tsuda, 1999, 2010). Such a worldview others and subjugates non-English speaking and non-Western subjects. This global phenomenon is described as "English hegemony" (Pennycook, 1994; Tsuda, 2008a, 2008b, 2010). English hegemony conditions "inequality, injustice, and discrimination in intercultural and international communication" (Tsuda, 2010, p. 248). English hegemony facilitates Westernization and, specifically, USAmericanization (Tsuda, 2008a, 2008b, 2010).

Tsuda (2008b) explains that English hegemony becomes reified as linguistic identity politics in various ways. English hegemony disadvantages and discriminates the speakers of other languages and people "who are not proficient in English" (p. 168). It consequently colonizes "the consciousness of non-English-speakers, causing them to develop linguistic, cultural, and psychological dependency upon . . . English, its culture and people" (p. 168). Thus, English hegemony is "not a purely linguistic matter, but it is directly connected with 'power,' namely, 'who controls the world?'" (Tsuda, 2010, p. 249). English hegemony in global translation requires careful interrogation of knowledge/information production and circulation, the Western gaze, and English education in non-English-speaking countries.

Knowledge/Information Production and Circulation. Kaplan (2001) shares a telling reality of the English language and its global effect: "Nearly 85% of all the scientific and technological information in the world today is written and/or abstracted in English" (p. 12). Thinking through this statistic, we become cautious of two primary issues in relation to English hegemony. First, knowledge production is imbued with English hegemony. Scholars who investigate Western domination warn that Eurocentric scholarship has been "understanding" through othering non-Eurocentric subjects by applying Eurocentric theoretical assumptions (e.g., Bartlett, Iwasaki, Gottlieb, Hall, & Mannell, 2007; Burney, 2012; Miike, 2008; Smith, 1999), while imposing English structures and categorical ways to code observations and realities. See, for example, Denzin's (2005) and Denzin & Lincoln's (2005) characterization of Western research as a "colonial" intellectual enterprise. Because of this colonial nature, "research" is "one of the dirtiest words in the indigenous worlds' vocabulary" (Smith, 1999, p. 1). Second, translation provides the linguistic infrastructure for the global circulation of colonial knowledge and information. Global translation, as characterized by Jacquemond (1992), distributes "Western" research that represents and privileges Western or Western-trained researchers' concerns—often supported by grants and capitalistic drives—voices, and benefits over others'.

The Western Gaze. English hegemony in global translation situates the general direction of "gaze" from the West to non-West. In other words, images of the non-West have been constructed through the Western gaze linguistically, intellectually, and ideologically. Said's (1978) *Orientalism*, for example, explains the ways through which the East becomes reified globally through the Western gaze. Through such a manner, the non-West often becomes constructed and represented as exoticized, unfavorable, and profitable/exploitable (Burney, 2012; Krishna, 2009; Loomba, 2005). Relationally, such image constructions of the non-West uphold the images of the West as credible, superior, and valuable (Said, 1978).

English Education in Non-English-Speaking Countries. Many non-English-speaking countries have put into place educational policies that foster and promote English among their citizens for intellectual and economic growth, prompted by English hegemony and global translation. English hegemony does not make English hegemonic; it is a human-made global phenomenon. Examining English taught as a second language in various countries helps paint the complex picture of human activities that uphold English hegemony. Such activities include but are not limited to an unquestioned imposition of English in education (Macedo & Bartolomé, 1999) and voluntary political and educational acquiescence into the hegemony of English (Phillipson, 1992, 2009). "Glocal" adaptations and global pervasiveness of educational programs such as English as a Second Language and Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages are not simple accidents; they mirror and perpetuate English hegemony. The global educational availability of English invites unnamed assumptions. Consider how many of us "automatically" use English at international events and meetings (i.e., conferences) and how we attribute credibility to speakers of particular Englishes over the others. Observe how and when, in the history of English hegemony, doctoral programs in English-speaking countries have stopped requiring their students to have second language proficiency. As indicated earlier, there are benefits of English as the global language; however, it is not advisable for us to shy away from critiquing the hegemonic nature of English.

In sum, we contend that, in the global economy of information and translation, not everyone works toward producing and sharing information with equality in mind. Global translation continues to champion and promise the English language to be the globally hegemonic linguistic system of information production and exchange, which has situated a global network of educational policies and practices that uphold English hegemony. Many live in the linguistically translated world and continuously negotiate their translated identities in order for them to be functional and competitive; others live in the world described and understood in their own language while developing their own identities.

Please excuse us for our superficial modification of Jacquemond's (1992) hypotheses, later summarized by Robinson (1997) below. We acknowledge that more detail work is necessary; however, it effectively captures our argument.

> A [non-English-speaking] culture will invariably translate far more of the [English-speaking] culture than the latter will of the former . . . when the [English-speaking] culture does translate works produced by the [non-English speaking] culture, those works will be perceived and presented as difficult, mysterious, inscrutable, esoteric and in need of a small cadre of intellectuals to interpret them, while a [non-English speaking] culture will translate a[n English-

> speaking] culture's works accessibly for the masses . . . a[n English-speaking] culture will only translate those works by authors in a [non-English-speaking] culture that fit the former's preconceived notions of the latter . . . [and] authors in a [non-English-speaking] culture who dream of reaching a large audience will tend to write for translation into [the English] language, and this will require some degree of compliance with stereotypes. (Robinson, 1997, pp. 31-32).

These modified hypotheses point at ways in which global translation may facilitate English hegemony.

The global effect of English hegemony situated and assisted within the global economy of translation shows no sign of slowing down. Maylath (2013), particularly, identifies a current trend in translation—"less cost and more accuracy." This trend has been taken up in inventing various technological devices and automated services, which promise cost performance by reducing and bypassing human labor. This current trend further promotes English as the most practical language for global information exchange. English, due to its global practicality and political power, will eventually "replace the weaker languages" (Tsuda, 2010, p. 252). English hegemony helps construct the global hierarchy of languages while sustaining English as the most powerful of all.

Partially Just at Best

Joining others (Boyden, 2011; Denzin, 2005; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Freysinger et al., 2013; Jacquemond, 1992; Kaplan 2001; Maylath, 2012, 2013; Müller, 2007; Muñoz Martín, 2013; Robinson, 1997; Smith, 1999; Tsuda, 1999, 2008a, 2008b, 2010), we have been discussing concerns with global translation and English hegemony. However, we readily accept that global translation is necessary for working toward global peace, justice, and intercultural collaboration while facilitating cultural and individual misunderstandings and conflicts, promoting intercultural understandings, and providing global citizens accessibility to various resources, such as economic, intellectual, technological, social, and communicative capitals. That is, global translation is hegemonic and holds potentiality for becoming counterhegemonic. Since global translation participates in the global economy and the hegemony of languages, it can participate in them differently to oscillate them. Translation can be performed in justice-oriented manners. However, just like other activisms, translation can only be partially just or justice-oriented while it cannot be fully just for everyone.

Here we find that translation is uniquely situated in relation to justice, a concept to which a critical turn of translation studies is directed. Angrosino (2005) explains the typology of justice, conceptualized by traditional moral philosophy. The four different types are 1) commutative justice, 2) distributive justice, 3) legal justice, and 4) social justice. Briefly, Angrosino (2005) discusses commutative justice as "the contractual obligations between individuals involving a strict right and the obligation of restitution" (p. 739). Distributive justice is referred to as "the obligation of a government toward its citizens with regard to its regulation of the burdens and benefits of social life" (p. 739). Legal justice "is related to citizen's obligation toward the government or society in general" (p. 739). Social justice is "the obligation of all people to apply moral principles to the systems and institution of society" (p. 739).

Theoretically interpreting and critiquing translation in terms of justice, we find translation almost always located within an ethical dilemma in its effects. Translation can only be "justice-oriented," suspended within a liminal space between justice and injustice due to the economic and hegemonic natures of translation that we have discussed thus far. For example, translating technological information from a developed nation to an underdeveloped nation provides the underdeveloped nation "better" access to global wealth, while still reinforcing global economic power relations (see Jacquemond's discussion earlier). It participates positively in terms of distributive justice but negatively in terms of social justice. Here is another example: Translating legal documents for accessibility provides people a condition through which they can embody their legal justice; however, such translation predicated upon linguistic accuracy does not help them question and/or challenge culturally unfair documents (e.g., implicit and embedded racism, classism, sexism, homophobia, ableism, xenophobia, etc.). Thus, unjust social practices and assumptions remain unchallenged. Again, translation helps people access and enact their legal justice while acquiescing to the hidden social injustice.

A Critical Turn

We have demonstrated that the classic definition of translation as a replacement of one language to another, whose quality is evaluated against meaning equivalency (Müller, 2007), does not encompass translation holistically. The classic definition of translation ignores the contextuality of translation. Translation in action in context does more than make linguistic replacements: it participates in global hegemony. Moreover, translation can, at best, be only partially just or justice-oriented but not fully just in many cases. The critical turn that we envision is not an epistemological takeover of the traditional and functionalist approach to translation studies. Rather, it is an axiological shift from the linguistic micro-focus on meaning equivalency to a more holistic approach. In so doing, we call translation scholars and practitioners to carefully understand and meaningfully complicate translation in its complex communicative, social, cultural, economic, political, and global contexts with an eye open for ephemeral and sometimes minute potentiality for justice.

Interdisciplinary Potentiality

In the following, we discuss two interdisciplinary bridges that help us contemplate a critical turn for translation studies—understanding translation *in context*. The first bridge realizes translation as intercultural communication; we use critical intercultural communication studies to resituate translation, or translator in particular. The second bridge understands translation as critical pedagogy; we focus on the relationship between translators and the translated as a critical site for empowerment. Translation studies, critical intercultural communication, and critical pedagogy can benefit from each other. Interdisciplinary work is important as it renders a unique intersection of inquiry beyond disciplinary boundaries. In order for this current interdisciplinary work to become meaningful, we discuss three premises below.

First, our work is predicated upon a theoretical premise that there exists a global hierarchy of languages, in which each language is situated against other languages and occupies its place relationally. In Jacquemond's (1992) terms, there are hegemonic languages and dominated languages representing hegemonic cultures and dominated cultures, which promote particular flows and directions of global translation and indicate that some people are hegemonic while others are dominated in any translation process. Second, translation by nature participates in the global hierarchy of languages but can be employed in counterhegemonic manners. In other words, translation is not only a receiving end of the global hegemony of languages but is also an active participant in it. This signifies translation's potentiality in challenging global hegemony by participating in it differently. Finally, translation takes place through a face-to-face interpersonal/intercultural communication medium. Thus, for the remainder of this essay, we regret that we exclude translation activities that do not require face-to-face interactions, such as translating a movie without audience inputs. Overall, for our interdisciplinary essay, we understand that translators are face-to-face mediators between speakers of hegemonic languages and speakers of dominated languages who *labor toward* social justice while acknowledging that translation cannot be *fully* socially just. We begin with the first interdisciplinary bridge.

Translation as Intercultural Communication

Sorrells and Sekimoto (2015) state that language is constitutive of our identity, relationship, culture, communication, ideology, and power. Tsuda (2008b) explains that non-English speakers develop some sort of inferiority associated with their cultural/linguistic identity in the context of English hegemony. Norton (1997) asserts that linguistic code-switching, such as language learners speaking a language other than their own, is not a succession of simple linear linguistic replacements; it is a site of their identity construction and negotiation. Norton (1997) writes,

> Every time language learners speak, they are not only exchanging information with their interlocutors; they are also constantly organizing and reorganizing a sense of who they are and how they relate to their social world. They are, in other words, engaged in [cultural] identity construction and negotiation. (p. 410)

Taken together, translators and the translated negotiate their cultural identity constructions while participating in the global hegemony of languages. Thus, translation is intercultural communication.

Translating one language to another is necessarily predicated upon multiple simultaneous (re)negotiations of cultural identities of translators and the translated from a particular language to another within particular social contexts that are situated particularly within linguistic, historical, economic, and ideological politics of power. As is evident here, detailed attention paid to contextuality and particularity of translation is important in thinking of a critical turn in translation studies. Epistemological attention to complex contextual particularity sheds light on the political nature of translation and helps us examine how the macro-political structures become reified at the meso- and micro- levels of translation practices.

Understanding critical intercultural communication, Sorrells (2010) poses three questions to ponder:

1. Who benefits materially and symbolically from existing relations of power and who is served by how we make sense of inequitable power arrangements?
2. How are current inequities linked to colonial, postcolonial and imperial conditions?
3. What role can each of us play within our spheres of influences to challenge inequities and create a more socially just world? (p. 173)

Responding to these questions, we envision a critical turn in translation studies with hope/potentiality located on the "who" of translating—translators' critical selfhood. Before we do that, we would like to take a brief moment to introduce critical intercultural communication.

Critical intercultural communication studies interrogates and critiques various systems of power (Halualani & Nakayama, 2010; Sorrells, 2013) in message production and consumption at various temporal contexts and in the macro-/meso-/micro-layers of human experience (Alexander et al., 2014a, 2014b, 2014c; Sorrells, 2010), orienting toward social justice in everyday communication (Alexander et al., 2014a, 2014b, 2014c; Kudo, Motohashi, Enomoto, Kataoka, & Yajima, 2011; Sorrells & Sekimoto, 2015). A critical turn strengthens areas of translation research and practices that fail to scrutinize the complex and power-laden nature of translation (see, for example, Melton, 2008; Nord, 1997; Reiss, 2000). Critical intercultural communication studies privileges communicative contexts and people's lived experiences and accounts over concepts and theories (Halualani & Nakayama, 2010). However, in contemplating a critical turn in translation studies, we highlight two theoretically significant entries in critical intercultural communication. They are reflexive selfhood and dialogical relationship (Hummel & Toyosaki, 2015; Toyosaki & Pensoneau-Conway, 2013).

Reflexive selfhood. Critical intercultural communication scholars (Fassett & Warren, 2007; Hummel & Toyosaki, 2015) understand selfhood as a site of critical labor toward social justice. Being socially constructed, selfhood is a narrative construction that relies on linguistic and communicative codes in rendering itself. This narrativity signifies its temporal movement as narration moves from the past, comes to be uttered at the present, and signals the future of the self (Schrag, 1986, 1997); selfhood is a temporal construct. This temporality suggests that selfhood is always narrative-becoming, a constant state of renewing/redefining and changing/shifting. Hence, while it may *appear* stable in homeostasis at times, selfhood is, in reality, always unstable (Toyosaki & Pensoneau-Conway, 2013), constantly renewing and changing itself. This nature of unstable selfhood renders transformative potentiality; we are changing constantly and can be transformative intentionally.

Selfhood is not simply a receiving end of social conditionings of its narrativity and temporality but also a transformative agent of those social conditionings; it can respond to those social conditionings by narrating differently and transforming itself while participating in the temporal contexts (Schrag, 1986). Considering selfhood this way, critical intercultural communication scholars discuss the significance of "reflexivity." In a simple sense, reflexivity is "a back-and-forth process of thinking about how we act, why we act, what that means, who it enables, who it hurts, and so forth" (Warren & Fassett, 2011, p. 46). It challenges people to "be more fully conscious of the ideology, culture, and politics" (Hertz, 1997, p. viii) in their own selfhood-making. Being reflexive is a conscious action that helps people recognize that they are historical, socio-cultural, economic, and political beings situated in a particular time and place.

What does reflexive selfhood do for translation studies and translators? Reflexive selfhood challenges the notion and practice of translation free of contexts. That is, a particular translator has come to have a particular professional job that requires him/her to speak the particular languages situated within the global hegemony of languages at this particular time and in/for this particular world. Translators who (1) narrate their cultural identity, (2) situate their cultural identity in history, and (3) see their cultural identity as a site of possible transformation, can no longer see their professions as merely replacing text in one language with the text of another. Here their professional identity and cultural identity become blurred. Reflexive translators can evaluate their professional and cultural identities—blurred in their reflexive selfhood—in their contexts of ideological wars, power relations, global economy, English hegemony, and so on. Reflexive translators come to know how their cultural identities are implicated in the process of translating and world-making; that is, participating in the global hegemony of languages, global economy, global circulation of knowledge. In narrating their coming to know, reflexive translators can identify both the good and the bad and that which sits between.

However, this reflexive labor should not be an isolated and individual act when it comes to social justice. It needs to be dialogically relational. Ontologically speaking, it is so because selfhood is always already dialogical and relational. Toyosaki and Pensoneau-Conway (2013) explain, "Our being is both social (in relationship with others) and fluid (capable of changing at any moment), and always already intersubjective" (p. 565). The condition of intersubjectivity renders self and other as coemergents. Thus, the idea that one can think of one's own identity alone and in isolation is a false consciousness. The labor of reflexivity should not be confined within any one individual, particularly when thinking of reflexivity and its potential in social justice. We are reminded that, in considering social justice, "individuals are both self-determining and interdependent. Justice involves a sense of one's own agency and a sense of social responsibility towards others, and for society as a whole" (Freysinger, et al., 2013, p. 553).

Dialogical relationship. Fassett and Warren (2007), Hummel and Toyosaki (2015), Norris and Sawyer (2012), and Toyosaki and Pensoneau-Conway (2013) understand a dialogical relationship as a concept and practice that challenges power politics through collaboratively negotiating realities through relating with others. We become excited in conceptualizing dialogical translation, exploring its implications on critical translation studies, and reframing a "professional" relationship between translators and the translated. Dialogue here should not be understood simply as two people chatting. As Sorrells (2013) articulates, dialogue functions "as an entry point into intercultural praxis" (p. 19), "a process of critical, reflective thinking and acting . . . that enables us to navigate the complex and challenging intercultural spaces we inhabit interpersonally, communally, and globally." (p. 15). Thus, being dialogical is the condition for relationship building in interpersonal/intercultural contexts. According to Deturk (2010), dialogue can create a space for the marginalized to be heard by the privileged, connect cultural groups of people and "foster mutual understanding and even collective action" (pp. 578-579), and "interrupt relations of domination" (p. 578).

What does it mean to build a translator-translated relationship dialogically? The classic definition of translation does not take into account a dialogical, relational emergence of professional/cultural identity constructions and negotiations that takes place between translators and the translated. Translators' professional/cultural identities emerge in relations with professional/cultural identities of the translated in the particular context of translation in the context of the global hegemony of languages and global economy. So do professional/

cultural identity constructions and negotiations of the translated. Professional/cultural identities of translators and the translated coemerge intersubjectively in the global hegemony of languages, rendering the politics of both the speakers of hegemonic languages as well as the spoken-about within hegemonic languages. In this political context of identity construction and negotiation, a dialogical relationship can be utilized to challenge the political nature of translation. A dialogical translator-translated relationship creates a space for the speaker of dominated languages to be heard by the speakers of hegemonic languages (translators included). This potentially fosters "mutual understanding" of how translation is situated in the global hegemony of languages, and leads to a greater awareness of, and effort to challenge, the privileges that hegemonic language speakers are granted. Thus, an effort can be made to embody collective and relationally organic action to engage a translator's own professional and cultural identity constructions and negotiations more ethically than remaining blind to power relations between hegemonic language speakers and dominated language speakers.

Translation as Critical Pedagogy

Translation, as we have argued thus far, is simultaneously hegemonic and holds potentiality for being counterhegemonic and partially just in practice. In other words, translation perpetuates the global hegemony of languages; while doing so, translation can make the global hegemony of languages visible, demystify it, and challenge it from within. The relationships between translators and the translated locally function locally as a site both for perpetuation and challenge. Here we are reminded of educational critique: education schools students of various identities in order to uphold the values and practices of the dominant and mainstream (Delpit, 1995; Macedo & Bartolomé, 1999; McLaren, 1999; Sensoy & DiAngelo, 2012; Warren, 2003). We use pedagogy in order to metaphorically situate the relationship between translators and the translated with that of teachers and students/the taught. We acknowledge that they are not identical in practice and thus are metaphorical. However, we believe that critical pedagogy—as a collection of educational critiques of and responses to education as a practice of domination known—informs our call for a critical turn in translation studies with attention paid to the relationship between translators and the translated.

In particular, Freire's (1970) educational critique is useful for understanding the translated and translator relationship in the global hegemony of languages. In order to create a frame for a critique against the global hegemony of languages, we apply Freire's critical pedagogy from his germinal work, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, to translation practices. Here we take a small detour in order to introduce critical pedagogy. Paulo Freire, Brazilian educational scholar, is recognized as the philosophical founder of critical pedagogy. Freire writes:

> Education as the practice of freedom—as opposed to education as the practice of domination—denies that [people are] abstract, isolated, independent, and unattached to the world; it also denies that the world exists as a reality apart from [people]. (p. 69)

Invoking critical pedagogy, Peter McLaren, Henry A. Giroux, bell hooks, and Ira Shor have been engaging critical pedagogy in order to transform neoliberal USAmerican education—see, for example, McLaren's (2001) revolutionary pedagogy, hooks' (1994) education as the practice of freedom, and Shor's (1992) empowering education.

Freire's educational critiques and critical pedagogy. Freire's (1970) educational critique is aimed at a predominant and neoliberal education paradigm, which he calls the "banking" concept of education. In this metaphor, Freire critiques education as an institutionalized social practice where teachers deposit knowledge into students. In such educational practices, students are deemed to exist as entities that are capable of only "receiving, filing, and storing the deposit" (p. 53). Freire claims that such education oppresses and dehumanizes students, as it cannot view students as fully human, capable of their own agency and voice. Freire, discussing social oppression and its influence on education, understands both oppressors and the oppressed as dehumanized. Obviously, oppressors do dehumanize the oppressed through their participation in social oppression. For Freire, oppressors are also dehumanized through their oppressing Others because it constrains ways to realize their humanity fully in/through their living. *Banking* education fails to challenge social oppression because it legitimizes institutionalized and oppressive knowledge without questioning and renders students to be voiceless agents. Teachers, in banking education, function as silent, acquiescent, and complicit—government-licensed—mediators who uphold the status quo of social oppression.

Freire's collection of transnational work during the 1960s and 1970s helped mark this critical shift in understanding education and reimagining education as a practice of freedom and hope. He sees that one site for such reimagining is the labor of reconstructing the teacher-student relationship and its classroom potential through live interactions between teachers and students. In the educational system that Freire critiques, a dichotomous relation exists between teachers and their students; teachers are subjects who speak and act while students are passive objects who are spoken to or about and acted upon. There is a one-way relationship that is power-driven. Freire retheorizes the relationship, while viewing both teachers and students as active learners/teachers for each other; that is to say, participating in collaborative knowing—teaching and learning from each other. For Freire, teachers and their students need to be understood as human beings with experience and knowledge, meaning their backgrounds—economic, political, historical, educational, etc.—matter in the learning/teaching process. Freire empowers the students as knowing, agentic subjects, and this new understanding of *student* and *teacher* transforms classroom interactions.

Considering a critical turn for translation studies, what can we learn from Freire's (1970) educational critiques and critical pedagogy? First, just as banking education upholds social oppression through teaching, the classic definition of translation—one text to another—fails to recognize its participation in upholding the global hegemony of languages.

Second, in the classic understanding of what translation is as a profession, translators are deemed, similar to banking teachers, to function as silent, acquiescent, and complicit mediators that reproduce the status quo because the classic approach explicitly focuses on meaning equivalency and is not intended to engage social problems and structures in which translation takes place. Continuing on the metaphor of banking as education, we can see translation as currency exchange. Regulations and rates of currency exchange are not neutral in the global market. Some translators rebut by saying that they have nothing to do with the regulations and rates, and that they just exchange as directed or trained. We agree somewhat; however, thinking so unreflexively does not accomplish anything but to uphold the status quo.

Third, hegemonic language speakers and dominated language speakers are both dehumanized in global translation in the context of the global hegemony of languages. This is so because they come to understand others and to be understood within the limitations of politically, economically, and culturally driven flows and directions of global information circulations (Jacquemond, 1992). Sure, there are many pros to global translation; however, we have to remember that language does follow power (Maylath, 2012). So, critical pedagogy asks to whom those pros are directed, how, and at whose expense. We certainly agree with the instrumentality of global translation (Boyden, 2011) for cross-cultural understandings and managing cultural conflicts, and we understand that we cannot eliminate the global hegemony of languages overnight or forever; however, this does not keep us off the hook from keeping on trying to find minute ways to study and challenge it.

Finally, critical pedagogy encourages us to explore the critical potentiality of translator-translated relationship—both professional and cultural—in order to explore minute ways in which we can interrogate, question, and possibly challenge the global hegemony of languages and its byproducts, ranging from the macro-level of global political and economic consequences to the micro-level of identity politics of speakers of various languages. Translation studies, much as critical pedagogy has already been retheorized, can retheorize the translator-translated relationship that can potentially humanize and empower all participants in translation, dehumanized and implicated by the global hegemony of languages.

Empowering translation. One successor to Freire's critical pedagogy, Ira Shor (1992), explores a teacher-student relationship that *empowers* both educational participants through their interactions. We believe that translation studies can borrow at least a part of Shor's idea of empowering education in order to commence theorizing what empowering translation may be like. In his *Empowering education: Critical teaching for social change*, Shor characterizes empowering education as "a critical-democratic pedagogy for self and social change," that is, "a student-centered program for multicultural democracy in school and society" (p. 15). Invoking Shor, empowering translation is a democratic, translated-centered approach for social change. Shor offers the eleven values/characteristics that invite, promote, and possibly situate such education within and from a teacher-student relationship. Those values/characteristics are participatory, affective, problem-posing, situated, multicultural, dialogic, desocializing, democratic, researching, interdisciplinary, and activist. Below, we look at each of the eleven values and their implications for translation studies.

The first value is participatory. In empowering education, students' active participation "is essential to gain knowledge and develop intelligence" (Shor, 1992, p. 17). Shor explains how he, as an—inspiring—empowering pedagogue, engages this value in his classrooms:

> To help myself and the students develop participatory habits, I begin teaching from the students' situation and from their understanding of the subject matter . . . [S]tudents should start out by questioning the material and the process of schooling. (p. 27)

Translation studies can benefit from his approach to this value and focuses on *participation* in translation. Borrowing from Shor, empowering translation starts with translators trying to understand the contexts of translation into which they are about to enter from the perspectives of the translated. Valuing the participation from the translated, translators make a space for the translated to "question . . . the material [to be translated] and the process of [translating itself]" (Shor, 1992, p. 27).

The second value is affective. It is important for empowering pedagogues to affirm students, while encouraging students' positive emotions in their learning/teaching process that help them obtain critical awareness. For Shor (1992), "critical thought is simultaneously a cognitive and affective activity" (p. 23). He explains:

> An empowering educator seeks a positive relationship between feeling and though . . . In a participatory class where authority is mutual, some positive affects which support student learning include cooperativeness, curiosity, humor, hope, responsibility, respect, attentiveness, openness, and concerns about society. (p. 24)

Shor's (1992) empowering education challenges the orthodox education of objective knowing and signals the importance of personal and emotional knowing combined with cognitive knowing in order to critically engage in socially constructed and *lived* realities. Interrogating their own emotional engagements, empowering translators actively invites emotional responses from the translated in order for them to understand in personally proximate and emotional manners how the global hegemony of languages is experienced by the translated in the context of translating. From this (inter)personal place, translators can engage in more personalized critiques of the hegemonic nature of their translating more self-reflexively while (re)narrating and relating their professional/cultural identities in context with the translated.

The third value is problem-posing. Shor (1992) understands that empowering education, contrasted against the idea that teachers are curriculum decision-making agents, is to "diversify subject matter and use students' thought and speech as the basis for developing critical understanding of personal experience, unequal conditions in society, and existing knowledge" (pp. 32-33). That is, building on the first two values discussed thus far, empowering education requires students' problem-posing in collaboratively deciding the class curriculum and contents. Empowering translation as well asks the translated to voice their concerns and issues that they experience while being translated in the social contexts when and where they are being translated. In this way, translators can actively look for inputs and collaboration from the translated in order to understand contextual problems that translators may be blinded from their lack of contextual knowledge about the time, the place, the political landscape—i.e., the global hegemony of languages—and, most importantly, the translated. Such participation from the translated helps translators modify and, sometimes, challenge their context-free, ahistorical, and linguistic-based professional training and render translation *in context* empowering the translated in the process of translating.

The fourth value is situated. Shor (1992) explains that empowering teachers "situate . . . learning in the themes, knowledge, cultures, conditions, and idioms of students" (p. 44). What does it mean for translation to be situated in "the themes, knowledge, cultures, conditions, and idioms of" the translated? Situated translation privileges the lived experiences of the translated over the comprehension of the speakers of the target language while both are important. This shift signals that translators need to develop ethnographic skills in order to understand not only languages but also culturally/personally specific, situated meanings, codes, and speeches that the translated use while expressing their thoughts and explaining their lived experiences. Being situated, empowering translation also needs to reflect and take the concerns of the translated into account while translators make particular decisions while translating them.

The previous values culminate in the fifth value. They bring the condition of empowering education, which is multicultural. Shor (1992) understands that empowering education develops organically from the classroom climate where students can share their lived experiences and concerns in their own culturally authentic words, expressions, and speeches and through their culturally authentic perceptional processes. Hence, when and if students share their voices with each other, teaching is always already multicultural, which renders a condition for empowering education to be collaboratively explored, experimented, and experienced. Empowering translation, similarly, can be envisioned only in a translating climate where the translated feel welcomed and free to share with their translators in their own culturally authentic ways their concerns about the particular contexts in which translation takes place and their lived experiences on being translated by their translators in the contexts. Their culturally authentic sharing of their concerns and experiences renders the translation process necessarily culturally diverse, which conditions a possibility of empowering translation to emerge/be labored because the multicultural condition helps translators to do situated translation for the translated.

The sixth value is dialogic. Shor (1992) explains that dialogue is a student-centered process of discussion during which teachers facilitate students' democratic participations while they themselves take part in the discussion as dialogical participants. In this process, students and teachers collaboratively develop their critical thinking about the problems posed. (We will visit Shor's idea of democratic shortly). In empowering translation, translators can be understood as active participants in the dialogical process with the translated in order to understand the context of their translating—ranging from texts to people (i.e., the translated) in source languages—while playing a facilitator role for the democratic dialogue between and among those who participate in the translation—translators themselves included.

The seventh value is desocializing, which:

> refers to questioning the social behaviors and experiences in school and daily life that make us into the people we are. It involves critically examining learned behavior, received values, familiar language, habitual perceptions, existing knowledge and power relations, and traditional discourse in class and out. (Shor, 1992, p. 114)

Contrasted against the banking education, empowering education suggests that both teachers and students reflexively question their taken-for-granted perceptions and behaviors in their personal, social, and educational contexts. Empowering translation similarly challenges the currency-exchange translation when translators and the translated collaboratively question their own socialization as translators and the translated in their own translator-translated relationships. That is, translators and the translated, through their dialogic engagements, challenge their own "learned behavior, received values, familiar language, habitual perceptions, existing knowledge and power relations, and traditional discourse" (Shor, 1992, p. 114) regarding what it means to translate others and be translated by others in the global hegemony of languages and global economy.

The eighth value is democratic. By democratic, Shor (1992) means that empowering education privileges students' participation as an essential element of teaching over standardized and imposed educational curricula and structures. That is, Shor sees that empowering education is for and by educational participants. As a result, educational participants, becoming democratic, become accountable for their own teaching/learning. Empowering translation can also be democratic when translators privilege active participations from the translated in the process of translating. For this to happen, translators have to develop a set of skills that help them utilize their formalized training and the instrumentality of translation simultaneously questioning—or desocializing—them in their translating in order to democratize their translation procedures and appreciate active participations from the translated.

The ninth value is researching. Shor (1992) explains, "Research implies detailed investigation, an extensive exploration of subject matter, thought, and language. Because the critical-democratic classroom involves in-depth scrutiny, it defines students as active researchers who make meaning, not as passive receivers of knowledge" (p. 169). For Shor, research activities vary from self-reflection and casual information gathering about the cultural backgrounds of educational participants to more elaborated examination of a particular subject—i.e., history—that has emerged from classroom interactions. In empowering education, both teachers and students are active researchers that drive their critical and democratic learning. Empowering translation, likewise, asks translators and the translated to engage in various research projects, being accountable and responsible for their own and collaborative empowerment.

The tenth value is interdisciplinary. Shor (1992) says, "Crossing disciplinary lines deploys multiple approaches and bodies of knowledge" (p. 185) and "a critical-interdisciplinary teacher also draws on themes and texts from student culture as well as from academic disciplines" (p. 186). Interdisciplinary ways of knowing help educational participants better understand problems posed in class, meaningfully interpret complex behaviors, and also effectively express their own ideas in equally interdisciplinary ways. In empowering translation, translators and the translated draw on "multiple approaches and bodies of knowledge" (p. 185) in order to collaboratively engage in their translation process. For instance, they utilize interdisciplinary knowledge—i.e., histories, politics, cultural studies, economics, etc.—to examine the experiences of the translated. Translators should not understand the translated only from their translation-specific perspective. Critical-interdisciplinary translators supplement their specialization in translation with other disciplines to understand the translated more holistically.

The eleventh value is activist. Shor (1992) states:

> Critical pedagogy is activist in its questioning of the status quo, in its participatory methods, and in its insistence that knowledge is not fixed but is constantly changing. More than just dynamic and filled with contending perspectives, critical knowledge offers a chance to rethink experience and society. (p. 189)

In empowering education, teachers and students take an active role in their critical knowing process; they desocialize themselves while posing "knowledge and history as unfinished and transformable" (Shor, 1992, p. 189). Empowering translation as well requires both translators and the translated to actively participate in their translating processes. For instance, they research and act on their world-making process reflexively, while understanding, questioning, and possibly transforming social, economic, and political conditions in which their translation takes place, such as the global hegemony of languages and its material consequences (see Jacquemond's [1992] hypotheses). Translators and the translated may not challenge the global structure; however, by engaging in these characteristics of empowering translation, they may challenge it in minute ways through and within their translating processes and, as a result, dialogically and relationally participate in the global structure differently.

Thus far, we have visited Shor's (1992) eleven values of empowering education. We see these values as instructive in thinking of and envisioning a critical turn for translation studies and practices. We have done so because we think that translation is an integral part of the global economy and the global hegemony of languages, that translation can potentially dehumanize the translated, and that the linguistic-based translation studies alone cannot account for the global effects of translation and how they hinge upon other global structures. In order to confront translation's global effects on the research and professional fronts of translation studies, what we have proposed above is to empower translation that challenges the dehumanizing nature of translation. We envision that a critical turn of translation studies is to confront and possibly remedy the dehumanizing effects of global translation in minute ways by understanding and theorizing the translator-translated relationship as a site of critical labor.

The eleven values of empowering education that we borrowed to begin theorizing empowering translation signal some ways through which translation researchers and practitioners can challenge their taken-for-granted understanding of translation and start seeing translation from different and hopefully critical perspectives. Thus, we do not propose these eleven values as necessary conditions upon which empowering translation can only be theorized, built, and practiced. Instead, we see them as reference points or conversation starters for us to open up and pioneer different spaces in the field of translation studies. We are sure that some conversations along these lines have already begun. In that case, by writing this essay, we join and energize those conversations that have already been taking place. We hope that these eleven values of empowering translation are productive entry points for us to collectively contemplate our—interdisciplinary—critical turn for translation studies.

Opening the Space

We understand a critical turn of translation studies to be a productive extension of the current research of translation. We readily agree on the importance of meaning equivalency in, and instrumentality of global translation. Invoking critical intercultural communication, a critical turn dialectically examines the political and social nature of global translation by studying translation in context with special attention paid to its particularity. In so doing, we advocate studying professional/cultural blurred identity constructions and negotiations of translators and the translated in particular contexts with particular political backdrops of the particular translation. Further, assisted by critical pedagogy, we see a translator-translated relationship as an essential site for critical labor that helps us interrogate and challenge, in minute ways, the global hegemony of languages by humanizing their subjectivities that have been dehumanized by it.

The final point we would like to make before we close this essay is to urge that translation studies pay close attention to voices that derive at the site where a translation happens in a particular context beyond issues of meaning equivalency and the instrumentality of translation. How do translation participants—both translators and the translated—experience hegemonic and dominated languages? How does the politics of hegemonic and dominated languages act in professional and cultural identity constructions and negotiations of translators and the translated during their face-to-face interactions? How does the global hegemony of languages materialize their bodies and feelings? Opening our translation studies to include such interpersonal and intercultural communication research in order to study human lived experiences during translation at the site of translation is going to be beneficial for both translation studies and the field of intercultural communication. Such a critical turn of translation studies also helps advance critical pedagogy as the politics of languages has so far been undertheorized, and much critical pedagogy research is predicated upon monolingual contexts.

In order to open up translation studies, we propose a few ideas. The process through which translation researchers theorize the critical turn needs to be justice-oriented. The critical turn ought to be a ground-up movement rather than a top-down enforcement. It is important to engender research that reveals often-hidden voices from the professional fields—translation trainers, translators in the field, the translated, government officials who need translating services, and so on. Research that explores their lived experiences and feelings of translation processes, instead of the effectiveness of translation, is important in learning multiple emerging voices in the field. Related to the notion of hidden voices, translation researchers need to cultivate spaces—conferences, focus-groups, special journal volumes, etc.—in order to collaboratively labor toward theorizing and actualizing the critical turn for translation studies. Orienting translation studies toward social justice is a grand task. And we—translation scholars, critical intercultural communication scholars, and critical pedagogues—together can embark on this tri-disciplinary journey because translation is a gatekeeping apparatus for the global economy of information and intercultural exchanges. We need to make a critical turn in translation studies because we can do better at participating in making a more democratic global community. ■

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the blind reviewers and editors for their valuable and insightful comments. We want to thank our colleagues and friends Sandra Pensoneau-Conway and Stephen Henry for their considerate support and constructive critiques on the previous draft.

References

Alexander, B. K., Arasaratnam, L. A., Avant-Mier, R., Durham, A., Flores, L., Leeds-Hurwitz, W., Mendoza, L. S., Oetzel, J., Osland, J., Tsuda, Y., & Yin, J. (2014a). Defining and communicating what "intercultural" and "intercultural communication" means to us. *Journal of International and Intercultural Communication, 7*(1), 14-37. doi:10.1080/17513057.2014.869524

Alexander, B. K., Arasaratnam, L. A., Avant-Mier, R., Durham, A., Flores, L., Leeds-Hurwitz, W., Mendoza, L. S., Oetzel, J., Osland, J., Tsuda, Y., & Yin, J. (2014b). Identifying key intercultural urgencies, issues, and challenges in today's world: Connecting our scholarship to dynamic contexts and historical moments. *Journal of International and Intercultural Communication, 7*(1), 38-67. doi:10.1080/17513057.2014.869527

Alexander, B. K., Arasaratnam, L. A., Avant-Mier, R., Durham, A., Flores, L., Leeds-Hurwitz, W., Mendoza, L. S., Oetzel, J., Osland, J., Tsuda, Y., & Yin, J. (2014c). Our role as intercultural scholars, practitioners, activists, and teachers in addressing these key intercultural urgencies, issues, and challenges. *Journal of International and Intercultural Communication, 7*(1), 68-97. doi:10.1080/17513057.2014.869526

Angrosino, M. V. (2005). Re-contextualizing observation: Ethnography, pedagogy, and the prospects for a progressive political agenda. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 729-745). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Baker, M. (2006). *Translation and conflict: A narrative account*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Bartlett, J. G., Iwasaki, Y., Gottlieb, B., Hall, D., & Mannell, R. (2007). Framework for Aboriginal-guided decolonizing research involving Métis and First Nations persons with diabetes. *Social Science and Medicine, 65*(11), 2371-2382. doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2007.06.011

Boyden, M. (2011). Beyond "Eurocentrism"? The challenge of linguistic justice theory to translation studies. *Translation and Interpreting Studies, 6*(2), 174-188. doi:10.1075/tis.6.2.04boy

Burney, S. (2012). *Pedagogy of the Other: Edward Said, postcolonial theory, and strategies for critique*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.

connexions • international professional communication journal. (n.d.). Issue 3(2) 2015: Translation and international professional communication: Building bridges and strengthening skills. Message posted to http://connexionsjournal.org/call-for-papers/

Delpit, L. (1995). *Other people's children: Cultural conflict in the classroom*. New York, NY: The New Press.

Denzin, N. K. (2005). Emancipatory discourses and the ethics and politics of interpretation. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 933-958). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 1-32). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

DeTurk, S. (2010). "Quit whining and tell me about your experiences!" (In)tolerance, pragmatism, and muting in intergroup dialogue. In T. K. Nakayama & R. T. Halualani (Eds.), *The handbook of critical intercultural communication* (pp. 565-584). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Fassett, D. L., & Warren, J. T. (2007). *Critical communication pedagogy*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (M. B. Ramos, Trans.). New York: Seabury Press.

Freire, P. (1996). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. (Rev. ed.). London, UK: Penguin books.

Freysinger, V., Shaw, S., Henderson, K., & Bialeschki, D. (Eds.). (2013). *Leisure, women and gender*. State College, PA: Venture.

Gentzler, E. (2002). Translation, post-structuralism, and power. In M. Tymoczko & E. Gentzler (Eds.), *Translation and power* (pp. 195-218). Amherst, MA: University of Massachusetts Press.

Halualani, R. T., & Nakayama, T. K. (2010). Critical intercultural communication studies: At a crossroads. In T. K. Nakayama & R. T. Halualani (Eds.). *The handbook of critical intercultural communication* (pp. 1-16). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hertz, R. (Ed.) (1997). *Reflexivity & voice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.

hooks, b. (1994). *Teaching to transgress: Education as the practice of freedom*. New York: Routledge.

Hummel, G. S., & Toyosaki, S. (2015). Duoethnography as relational whiteness pedagogy: Human orientation toward critical cultural labor. *International Review of Qualitative Research, 8*(1), 27-48. doi:10.1525/irqr.2015.8.1.27

Jacquemond, R. (1992). Translation and cultural hegemony: The case of French-Arabic translation. In L. Venuti (Ed.), *Rethinking translation* (pp. 139-158). London: Routledge.

Kaplan, R. B. (2001). English—the accidental language of sciences? In U. Ammon (Ed.), *The dominance of English as a language of science: Effects on other languages and language communities* (pp. 3-26). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Krishna, S. (2009). *Globalization and postcolonialism: Hegemony and resistance in the twenty-first century*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.

Kudo, K., Motohashi, Y., Enomoto, Y., Kataoka, Y., & Yajima, Y. (2011). Bridging differences through dialogue: Preliminary findings of the outcomes of the Human Library in a university setting. *Proceedings of the 2011 Shanghai International Conference on Social Science (SICSS)* [CD-Rom]. Retrieved 24 December 2012 from the Human Library website: htttp://humanlibrary.org/paper-from-dokkyo-university-japan.html

Loomba, A. (2005). *Colonialism/Postcolonialism* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Macedo, D., & Bartolomé, L. I. (1999). *Dancing with bigotry: Beyond the politics of tolerance*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Maylath, B. (2012). Language and power (president's opening address). In C. Johnson (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Linguistic Circle of Manitoba and North Dakota, 23–24 Sept. 2011*. Winnipeg: LCMND.

Maylath, B. (2013). Current trends in translation. *Communication & Language at Work, 2*, 41-50.

McLaren, P. (1999). *Schooling as a ritual performance: Toward a political economy of educational symbols and gestures* (3rd ed.). Lanham, MD: Roman and Littlefield Publishers.

McLaren, P. (2001). Che Guevara, Paulo Freire, and the politics of hope: Reclaiming critical pedagogy. *Cultural Studies <-> Critical Methodologies, 1*, 108-131. doi:10.1177/153270860100100112

Melton, J. H. (2008). Lost in translation: Professional communication competencies in global training contexts. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication, 52*(2), 198-214. doi:10.1109/TPC.2008.2000346

Miike, Y. (2008). Toward an alternative metatheory of human communication: An Asiacentric vision. In M. K. Asante, Y. Miike, & J. Yin (Eds.), *The global intercultural communication reader* (pp. 57-72). New York: Routledge.

Müller, M. (2007). What's in a word? Problematizing translation between languages. *Area, 39*(2), 206-213.

Muñoz Martín, R. (2013). Birds of a feather: Translation and communication studies in Europe. *connexions • international professional communication journal, 1*(1), 99-103.

Nord, C. (1997). *Translating as a purposeful activity.* Manchester: St. Jerome.

Norris, J., & Sawyer, R. D. (2012). Toward a dialogic methodology. In J. Norris, R. D. Sawyer, & D. Lund (Eds.), *Duoethnography: Dialogic methods for social, health, and educational research* (pp. 9-39). Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press.

Norton, B. (1997). Language, identity, and the ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly, 31*(3), 409-429. doi:10.2307/3587831

Pennycook, A. (1994). *Cultural politics of English as an international language.* New York: Longman.

Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Phillipson, R. (2009). *Linguistic imperialism continued*. New York: Routledge.

Reiss, K. (2000). Type, kind and individuality of text: Decision making in translation. In V. Lawrence (Ed.), *The translation studies reader* (pp. 160-172). London: Routledge.

Robinson, D. (1997). *Translation and empire*. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.

Said, E. (1978). *Orientalism*. New York: Vintage.

Schrag, C. O. (1986). *Communicative praxis and the space of subjectivity*. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Schrag, C. O. (1997). *The self after postmodernity*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Sensoy, Ö., & DiAngelo, R. (2012). *Is everyone really equal? An introduction of key concepts in social justice education*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Shor, I. (1992). *Empowering education: Critical teaching for social change*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Smith, L. T. (1999). *Decolonizing methodologies: Research and indigenous peoples*. New York: Zed Books.

Sorrells, K. (2010). Reimagining intercultural communication in the context of globalization. In T. K. Nakayama & R. T. Halualani (Eds.). *The handbook of critical intercultural communication* (pp. 171-189). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Sorrells, K. (2013). *Intercultural communication: Globalization and social justice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Sorrells, K., & Sekimoto, S. (Eds.). (2015). *Globalizing intercultural communication: A reader*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Toyosaki, S., & Pensoneau-Conway, S. L. (2013). Autoethnography as a praxis of social justice: Three ontological contexts. In S. H. Jones, T. E. Adams, & C. Ellis (Eds.), *Handbook of autoethnography* (pp. 557-575). Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press.

Tsuda, Y. (1999). English language hegemony and cultural security. In M. Tehranian (Ed.), *Worlds apart: Human security and global governance* (pp. 153-167). New York: Tauris.

Tsuda, Y. (2008a). English hegemony and English divide. *China Media Research*, 4(1), 47-55.

Tsuda, Y. (2008b). The hegemony of English and strategies for linguistic pluralism: Proposing the ecology of language paradigm. In M. K. Asante, Y. Miike, & J. Yin (Eds.), *The global intercultural communication reader* (pp.167-177). New York: Routledge.

Tsuda, Y. (2010). Speaking against hegemony of English: Problems, ideologies, and solutions. In T. K. Nakayama, & R. T. Halualani (Eds.), *The handbook of critical* *intercultural communication* (pp. 248-269). West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell. doi:10.1002/9781444390681.ch15

Tymoczko, M. (2000). Translation and political engagement: Activism, social change and the role of translation in geopolitical shifts. *The Translator, 6*(1), 23-47. doi:10.1080/13556509.2000.10799054

Tymoczko, M. (2003). Ideology and the position of the translator: In what sense is a translator 'In Between'? In M. C. Perez (Ed.), *Apropos of ideology: Translation studies on ideology—Ideologies in translation studies* (pp. 181-201). Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.

Tymoczko, M. (2007). *Enlarging translation, empowering translators*. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.

Venuti, L (1993). Translation as cultural politics: Regimes of domestication in English. *Textual Practice, 7*(2), 208-223. doi:10.1080/09502369308582166

Venuti, L. (1995). *The translator's invisibility: A history of translation*. London: Routledge.

Venuti, L. (1998). *The scandals of translation: Towards an ethics of difference*. London: Routledge.

Venuti, L. (2000). From translation, community, utopia. In L. Venuti (Ed.), *The translation studies reader* (2nd ed., pp. 482-502), London: Routledge.

Warren, J. T. (2003). *Performing purity: Whiteness, pedagogy, and the reconstruction of power.* New York, NY: Peter Lang.

Warren, J. T., & Fassett, D. L. (2011). *Communication: A critical/cultural introduction*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

About the authors

Yusaku Yajima (MA 2014, Minnesota State University Mankato) is a graduate assistant in the Department of Communication Studies at Southern Illinois University Carbondale. He teaches introduction to communication studies and intercultural communication. His areas of research interest are critical (communication) pedagogy, critical intercultural communication, phenomenology, and post/colonialism.

Email. yusaku.yajima@siu.edu

Contact.
Department of Communication Studies
Southern Illinois University Carbondale
Communication Building 2206
Mail Code 6605
1100 Lincoln Drive
Carbondale, IL 62901
USA

Satoshi Toyosaki (PhD 2005, Southern Illinois University Carbondale) is an associate professor in the Department of Communication Studies at Southern Illinois University Carbondale. He teaches and researches international and intercultural communication and communication education from critical and qualitative approaches.

Email. tsatoshi@siu.edu

Contact.
Department of Communication Studies
Southern Illinois University Carbondale
Communications Building 2002
Mail Code 6605
1100 Lincoln Drive
Carbondale, IL 62901
USA

Manuscript received July 3, 2015; revised August 3, 2015; accepted December 16, 2015.

Teaching cases

A PHILOSOPHY AND ETHICS OF INTERNATIONAL CLASSROOM TRANSLATION

Communicative implications of oral mediation in Haiti

Brent C. Sleasman

Winebrenner Theological Seminary, USA

This essay explores an international theological seminary classroom in Cap Haitien, Haiti, where the primary task is to educate Haitian students in preparation of professional Christian communication. The Visiting Professor program at Emmaus Biblical Seminary utilizes classroom interpreters and provides an opportunity to more fully explore the various dynamics of a multilingual international classroom which heavily relies upon real-time in-class translation and interpretation. The essay provides a brief introduction to the role of the English language in the classroom followed by the coordinates for developing a philosophy of communication for teaching within a multilingual international classroom setting. Finally, the Visiting Professor program is utilized as a case study for exploring the ethical implications of the theoretical framework suggested by the author of the essay.

Keywords. Philosophy of communication, Communication ethics, Theological translation, Orality.

Students enrolled in courses at Emmaus Biblical Seminary, located just outside of Cap Haitien, Haiti, are preparing to become professional communicators within a variety of Christian contexts. During the first four weeks of each academic semester, visiting professors from the United States, Canada, or Europe teach two two-week intensive courses. With few exceptions, the majority of classroom instruction during these intensive sessions is presented in English with each instructor being assigned a translator who assists in various classroom activities,

connexions • international professional communication journal
2015, *3*(2), 129-146
ISSN 2325-6044

including interpreting the lecture and assisting students with in-class work such as exams. I have served as a visiting professor on three different occasions including January 2013, January 2014, and September 2014. Based upon my background in communication studies, I have been teaching the Homiletics course which focuses upon the preparation, organization and delivery of sermons to be presented in a church or other Christian settings. During the January 2014 trip, I was accompanied by an undergraduate research assistant, Jacob Steen, whose observations and conversation assisted in my growing understanding of the role of a translator in an undergraduate classroom setting; therefore, this essay is a reflective contribution that combines a personal teaching case with focused commentary. The following examines the Visiting Professor program at Emmaus Biblical Seminary, which utilizes classroom translators and provides an opportunity to investigate the various dynamics of a multilingual international classroom that heavily relies upon real-time in-class translation and interpretation.

The majority of students who are enrolled at Emmaus Biblical Seminary are from northern Haiti, although many make their home in other parts of the country including those who travel from the nation's capital, Port au Prince. The only degree currently offered at the school is a Bachelor's in Theology (BTh) which can be completed with four years of on-campus study. Many of the students are already serving in a Christian ministry context and the remainder are receiving academic training in preparation of a future position. Regardless of the specific location of ministry and employment following graduation, each student is preparing to be a professional communicator within some organizational setting, with most serving as the pastor or leader of a Christian organization. These various elements come together and lead to the following guiding question for this essay: what unique challenges emerge when teaching a theologically-based course in an international classroom setting while utilizing a translator?

Introduction: English Language as an *Invasive Species*

The overwhelming majority of residents in Haiti speak Haitian Creole as their primary language (Spears & Carole, 2010, p. 1). Yet, despite popular and political efforts to the contrary, the language of education in Haiti is still predominantly French. As noted by Locher (2010), "Probably not a single student in Haiti has ever been taught exclusively according to the reform plans" (p. 179), a reference to the Bernard Reform of 1979, which granted permission to local schools to provide education in the native language, Haitian Creole, followed by education in French in the later elementary grades.

Haitian Creole is the primary language used within the classrooms of Emmaus Biblical Seminary in an effort to provide an accessible education for a wide population. But French is also widely spoken since the students have been educated in the Haitian system that offers much educational instruction in that language as well. And, due to the close proximity to the Dominican Republic, many students are able to speak Spanish. Therefore, many students arrive at the campus with the ability to speak Haitian Creole, French, and Spanish; on top of these languages, students are required to learn English in order to communicate with external/visiting instructors. During their first year of studies, students are required to complete several hours of English instruction as part of a formal EFL (English as a Foreign Language) program.

In order to conceptualize the role that this kind of introduction of a foreign language plays in the classroom, environmental studies can assist in helping to consider English as an *invasive species* within the Haitian classroom. Much like the zebra mussels that have arrived in the Great Lakes region in the United States, the introduction of English has permanently altered the ecology of the classrooms at Emmaus Biblical Seminary. But in the case of the classroom, it is the communicative ecology that has been disrupted as opposed to the environmental ecology. A position that privileges the experiential aspects of the communicative environment recognizes that this introduction cannot be reduced to a simple equation such as *Haitian Creole plus English equals new classroom*. In such a case, the entire ecology of the classroom has been reset and is permanently altered, thus creating a new communicative, or classroom, environment. When the classroom is occupied by an English-speaking instructor, a translator, and a non-native language—English—the classroom becomes something greater than the sum of its parts.

Such an ecology-based approach issues an alternative way of thinking about classroom translation, interpretation, and the study of human communication. My own experience within a Haitian classroom has been as an American visiting professor teaching in conjunction with a Haitian Creole interpreter, an experience that has greatly challenged my own understandings of communication, language and education and continues to provide insight into my role as instructor in an international classroom. Placing the focus of attention on the communicative dynamics of the international classroom invites specific conversation about the study of philosophy of communication and communication ethics, two closely related fields within the academic discipline of communication. By way of a very brief introduction, one way of distinguishing between these two areas of study is to consider a particular communication ethic as an applied philosophy of communication; in other words, a philosophy of communication precedes the communication ethic that emerges from that particular philosophy of communication.

Developing a Philosophy of Communication for an International Classroom

An instructor working from a particular philosophy of communication demonstrates ethical thought by giving full consideration to the implications brought about by taking action based upon a given philosophy of communication. The following section delineates a philosophy of communication that privileges the experiential aspect of human communication understood as an event, as opposed to merely a process. These coordinates form a philosophy of communication that provides a context to explore the communication ethics of the Visiting Professor program at Emmaus Biblical Seminary, thus allowing a conversation about communication ethics in an international context to emerge.

Although admittedly outdated, Michael J. Reddy's (1979) delineation of the *conduit metaphor* provides a helpful starting point for bringing the scholarly study of communication into academic examinations of translation and interpretation. The conduit model works from a perspective that focuses upon the translator as a simple conveyor of information as opposed to a vital part of the communicative environment. When working from a perspective consistent with the conduit model, the translator him- or herself is merely the medium, or the means by which information is conveyed. Although the theory behind this approach has been widely critiqued, in practice this model is still used in many contexts, including international classroom settings. A much more desirable approach is proposed by Cecilia Wadensjö (1999), who situates Reddy's work within a larger conversation about various theories of translation and interpretation. Wadensjö (1999) identifies the conduit model as a monologic approach to understanding translation and interpretation and suggests that a dialogic approach is much preferred. A dialogic approach, according to Bot and Verrept (2013), is "based upon the idea that the meaning of words and expressions is partially formed in the interaction between people" (p. 120). In a dialogic context the interpreter serves as much more than merely a conveyor of information; in fact, "the interpreter is part of the entire system of constructing meaning" (Bot & Verrept, 2013, p. 120).

A helpful response to the conduit metaphor emerging from the communication discipline is found within the work of Frank J. Macke (2010), who considers the conduit model to represent an information science approach to understanding the study of communication, as opposed to one that emphasizes the experiential aspect of human communication. Macke, in part, builds his critique upon the etymology of the word *communication*: "To be in communication is etymologically consonant with being in *communion*, with feeling *in common*" (2010, p. 37; emphasis in original). But, too often, suggests Macke (2010), communication is defined in terms of information theory, which, in the case of classroom translation, suggests that the interpreter is nothing more than the conduit through which information travels. "Simply, 'commerce' and 'communicate' do not issue from the same set of roots." Instead, communication is "a word having deep roots in the West, a word whose meaning is tied to the very notion of 'community'" (Macke, 2010, p. 47). An understanding driven by a commitment to commerce—information theory—is in opposition to one that emphasizes human embodiment and experience—community; communion; in common.

The distinction between translation and interpreting often found within the literature of contemporary translation studies speaks directly to this point. The framework of this essay represents an understanding of translation and interpretation in which translation is used as an umbrella term to describe two kinds of mediation or transfers; one via the spoken word—usually referred to as interpreting—and one via the written word, a much more linear exchange of information. Interpreting within a classroom setting recognizes the potential for a communicative event to occur while a single reader of a text is much closer to a communicative process. The unique cultural and religious history of Haiti provides a fitting context to explore the oral dynamics of a classroom setting. Within his essay exploring the communicative implications of Haitian Vodou, Sleasman (in press) states that "Human life, when fully embraced and lived, has much more in common with a communicative *event*, as opposed to a process" (emphasis in the original). While this point may be obvious to some, it is worth noting that we are only a few decades removed from opposing positions receiving theoretical justification and defense. Sleasman's study reveals how the experience of human communication pushes one beyond self-expression and arrives at some level of shared meaning with all those involved. Understood in this way, oral expression is vital to human communication, but it is more than an exchange of information or ideas; it involves the intangible emotions that accompany the presence of another person and often transcends the mere words that are used.

The uniqueness of the spoken versus written word is central to the work of Walter Ong (2000; 2012), a Jesuit priest as well as scholar, who provides documentation of how the emergence of oral societies predates a culture built around the written word. Ong chronicles that the changes which occurred in Western society as a commitment to oral culture gave way to a society dominated by a print-based mentality. As this transition slowly took place over 2500 years (Ong, 2012), the emergence of print culture and subsequent change from oral to visual perception also gave rise to modern science. Some of the basic differences can be found in how one thinks. For example, in a culture of primary orality, communication tends to be formulaic, grammatically straightforward, practical, dramatic, empathetic, participatory, situational, and not abstract—because the information can only be remembered, not stored. A culture dominated by print is often linear and logical and many times in direct conflict with the principles held by those who work from a perspective informed by a commitment to orality.

When viewing its culture through the lens of Ong's orality framework, Haiti can most accurately be described as an oral culture (Plaisir, 2010). Haiti has never known widespread reading literacy and therefore can trace its communicative lineage to one that predates the dominance of the written word. Many of the characteristics found within a culture dominated by print, such as linear thinking and the logical construction of arguments, are lacking in much of Haitian culture. While this could lead one to the conclusion that Haiti is *out of touch* with the contemporary era, it is worth noting that orality is consistent with the larger portion of human history since, historically, human beings learned to interact with others through the spoken word prior to the written word. We also see this biologically in which children learn to speak before reading or writing. Unfortunately, as will be explored in more detail later in this essay, the experience of a typical Haitian student is not consistent with the oral culture that he or she experiences outside of the classroom. Despite the effort to reform the educational system, the elementary and high schools in Haiti are structured upon a linear learning model that has its roots in the French colonialist era and is in direct contrast with the oral culture found in the Afrocentric roots of the overwhelming majority of Haitians. Further exploration of this sociolinguistic component of the Haitian educational experience will potentially enrich the classroom by providing a better understanding of the role of language and learning in the life of a typical Haitian student.

As a side note, Ong took special interest in the communication of God's Word; a point especially relevant to translation issues arising in a theological seminary in an oral context. Ong (2000, pp. 190-191) took comfort from the notion that

> God entered into human history in a special fashion at the precise time when psychological structures assured that his entrance would have greatest opportunity to endure and flower. To assure maximum presence through history, the Word came in the ripeness of time, when a sense of the oral was still dominant and when at the same time the alphabet could give divine revelation among men a new kind of endurance and stability. . . . [D]ivine revelation let down its roots into human culture and consciousness after the alphabet was devised but before print had overgrown major oral structures and before our electronic culture further obscured the basic nature of the word.

In a classroom environment informed by a linear and logical mindset, the classroom interpreter risks being seen as little more than a conveyor of information whose primary task is to assist in the exchange of ideas between the instructor and students. Within an oral culture such as Haiti, an interpreter who is part of the experience of the classroom is a much greater asset to the students and the instructor of course, because the classroom experience is more like the *out of classroom* experiences of the students.

A Communication Ethic of an International Classroom: A Visiting Professor Program as Case Study

This essay reframes classroom-related translation by focusing less upon the *process* of translation and more upon the communicative *event* that is taking place within the classroom itself; in such an environment the interpreter no longer fits neatly into the traditional information exchange model of sender and receiver. The interpreter is not merely a conduit through which information passes but a vital part of the learning environment. An experiential understanding of human communication makes much sense within an oral culture. In fact, such an approach honors the fluidity and give and take of an oral exchange. The following section applies the previously outlined philosophy of communication to the Visiting Professor program at Emmaus Biblical Seminary in an effort to better understand the specific dynamics that emerge in a multilingual international classroom setting.

As is noted in the heading of this section, the following observations are offered as one way of understanding an international classroom context; hence, the term "communication ethic" as opposed to "communication ethics." It is expected that there will be others who work with similar ideas and draw alternative conclusions. One of the goals of this essay is to stimulate conversation among those who study philosophy of communication and communication ethics in order to better understand the uniqueness of the international classroom environment and, thus, assist in creating more positive classroom experiences for students. There is great value in working with a classroom interpreter in an international classroom setting, and I focus on what could make such an environment more effective. In order to accomplish this goal, I break the following section down into three separate discussions. First, I explore the role of the students in this classroom environment and then follow with an exploration of the implications for the visiting professor's teaching in this program. Finally, I conclude with a brief overview of some implications for those who desire to be translators and interpreters in such a context.

When I first began examining the role of a translator in an international classroom setting, I was unfamiliar with the literature exploring Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). One of my assumptions during my initial teaching experience was that students would have a negative impression of the Visiting Professor program simply because they would tire of the constant interaction between the instructor and interpreter. This was by no means the case. My discoveries were consistent with the wider CLIL literature in which many of the students were simultaneously learning English in addition to their regular course-work. This dynamic interplay between the instructor and interpreter provides an opportunity for non-English speakers to learn the English language as they learn the course content. Becoming aware of this point provided a push towards my understanding of the experiential nature of human communication as opposed to viewing it as strictly a process. Much research has been conducted on ESL, EFL, and ELL (English Language Learners) programs for speakers of

Haitian Creole (see Spears and Joseph, 2010, for a full treatment of the subject). A qualitative analysis and comparison of a single institution offering EFL programs along with in-class interpreters would provide ample data to move forward with a broader perspective of issues related to translation and interpretation in Haitian multilingual classrooms.

But, to fully embrace this experiential aspect of education, it is not only the instructors who need to adjust. According to Joseph (2010),

> The Haitian student is used to a much more rigid classroom setting than that found in the U.S. They are not accustomed to being asked to participate in classroom discussions or to form their own opinions and express them in class. They are used to classrooms in which the instructors talk "at" students and require vastly more memorization. (p. 240)

This cooperative effort to re-envision the classroom is a second area of consideration and leads into a discussion of the role that instructors play in translation and interpretation. Many faculty members still work from an educational perspective that places the instructor as the main focus of the classroom and the students as recipients of the wisdom of the person in charge of the classroom. Higher education has been challenged for many years now to move from a teacher-centered classroom to a student-centered classroom. This model was called the "banking," or transmissionist, model of education by Paulo Freire (1968) in *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Faculty must be willing to reconsider their role in an international multilingual classroom and be open to embracing the communicative event as opposed to just the process of education. This de-centers the faculty member as the primary focus and increases the role and importance of the interpreter. This is not to suggest that the interpreter becomes the instructor. In fact, this reconfiguration requires that the instructor be in command of the course material and have a clear vision for the classroom lectures and activities.

Embracing the experiential aspect of the classroom raises questions about the minimal amount of Haitian Creole that visiting professors should know. During my first semester teaching as a visiting professor, I did not have any prior exposure to Haitian Creole and was entirely dependent upon my interpreter. When a student would speak, I would listen intently to the interpreter and not always focus upon the student. One day, in an effort to speak my language, a student was talking to me in English. But, because I was so tuned into listening for the interpreter, I completely missed what he was saying until he repeated for a third time, "Do you understand me?" My ethical obligation to listen to my students was lost because I was so focused on hearing the interpreter. But there is an inherent challenge in learning a language when one does not speak the language on a consistent basis. Due to the nature of the Visiting Professor program, many faculty members are on campus for only two weeks every few years, a time frame that works against having any sustained opportunity to interact with speakers of Haitian Creole on an ongoing basis. A question for further study is how much Haitian Creole should an instructor speak in order to honor the native language of the students? As noted above, many students improve their English language skills by listening to the give and take of the instructor and interpreter. So, if the visiting professors were able to teach fully in Haitian Creole, it could perhaps minimize the value of the intensive classes for the students, since so many are learning English as they are learning the course content from the visiting professors. But should a minimum amount of Haitian Creole be expected from visiting professors? Could Emmaus Biblical Seminary produce an online resource that could be accessed prior to the arrival of a visiting professor? Is it possible for an instructor to be fully present to students without having at least a basic awareness and appreciation of the students' native tongue? Perhaps a guiding point here is that it is not as much about knowing the language as it is in honoring the native language of the students and making an effort to appreciate the differences between faculty and student.

In addition to the practical considerations of learning the students' language, it would also be helpful for the visiting professors to have some introduction to the sociolinguistic aspects of Haitian culture, especially as it pertains to the theological implications. Zéphir (2010) writes, "The unequal status of French and Haitian Creole in Haiti has been loosely described with the term *diglossia*" (p. 60). Until quite recently, the official language of Haiti was French, despite the fact that the overwhelming majority of Haitian citizens speak Haitian Creole. This has practical implications for the professional communication of the students. For example, there are strong cultural assumptions made about a pastor who presents a sermon in French as opposed to Creole. Joseph (2010) writes, "Stafford (1987) reports that the churches were the first institutions in Haiti to use Haitian Creole, even before the Bernard Reform, in order to better communicate with the faithful" (p. 236). Following the example of the New Testament authors who wrote in Koine Greek, the language of the common person, the Christian Church in Haiti could, through the use of Haitian Creole, embrace the language of the people and spread the message of the Scriptures so that it is most easily understood by the widest audience. As these dynamics are not unique to Haiti, they provide an opportunity to explore this type of diglossia in relation to international professional communication in general and give consideration to the unique theological concerns at other institutions serving a mission to that of Emmaus Biblical Seminary.

Understanding the diglossic nature of Haitian language and culture is not only necessary for the visiting professors at Emmaus Biblical Seminary. In fact, part of the educational process of Haitian students could also be to learn about the language dynamics of their own culture. I have taught the Homiletics course and have begun including a section that explores the basic communicative dynamics of related in Table 1 on page 141.

The column labeled "Media Age" represents the historical time period in which a particular development pertaining to human communication and language emerged. For example, in the Mimetic Age, human beings communicated via sounds and relied upon the ear as the primary sense receptor. The Visiting Professor program at Emmaus Biblical Seminary provides a wonderful opportunity for students and faculty but, in order to become more effective, the program requires sustained effort to stay current with research and practice related to contemporary translation and interpretation studies.

The final component of this program that requires analysis is interpreter training. Each area of translation requires training suited for that particular area.

Table 1

Basic Communicative Dynamics

Media Age	Key Development	Dominant Medium	Dominant Sense Receptor
Mimetic (Mimic) Age	—	sounds	ear / hearing
Tribal Age	language	speech	ear / hearing
Literate Age	phonetic alphabet	writing	eye / seeing
Print Age	printing press	print media	eye / seeing
Electronic Age	electric telegraph	electronic media	ear / hearing
Digital Age	computer	digital media	ear and touch

For example, ample research has been conducted on programs related to medical translation (e.g., Ballantyne, Yang, & Boon, 2013; Stapleton, Murphy, & Kildea, 2103) and educational translation (Wei, Xu, & Zhu, 2011). But there is a dearth of research related to theological contexts in terms of live translation and interpretation. Due to the importance of the written text of the Christian Scriptures, much focus has been placed upon written translation, but very little has taken place in terms of oral translation and none has occurred giving consideration to theological translation in an international classroom setting. Therefore, the question about the training that the interpreters at Emmaus Biblical Seminary are receiving prior to entering the classroom comes to the foreground. I have worked with interpreters who were trained as medical translators and interpreters who were bilingual but did not receive any specific translation training. This changes the dynamics of the classroom since medical translation depends upon precision by the interpreter while classrooms provide more freedom in understanding and interaction between instructor and students. A medical inaccuracy may cause literally life and death situations for some stakeholders; on the contrary, although much information can be lost in a classroom, the stakes are not nearly as high. But the concerns raised earlier about Emmaus Biblical Seminary are also consistent with other translation fields; although writing about health care contexts, Watermeyer (2011) suggests that "The conduit model continues to be promoted as the ideal model of interpreting" (p. 72) despite its proven ineffectiveness.

To summarize, the multilingual international classroom is a unique communicative environment providing an opportunity for non-English speakers to learn the English language *as* they learn the course content (i.e., CLIL). To reconfigure this classroom-related translation experience, we can focus less upon the process of translation and more upon the event that is taking place in the classroom with the interaction of the students, instructor, and interpreter. As previously noted, the interpreter does not fit neatly into the sender/receiver model. Reconfiguring the model raises questions about the communicative event as opposed to the communicative process. The issue is complicated because the history and culture of Haiti is consistent with Walter Ong's exploration of *oral* cultures in *Orality and literacy*. Since much of the developing world has strong roots in the Afrocentric oral tradition, a Haitian classroom provides an excellent opportunity to explore international classroom translation in an oral culture.

Conclusion

Many professional contexts, such as those found within the medical field, have developed thorough training materials related to translation and interpretation. In contrast, classroom translation in a theological context is a distinct genre of translation, yet it lacks extensive theoretical interrogation or exploration. One goal of this essay is to enter the conversation and establish a foundation for further research by raising both practical and ethical questions for future consideration. The field of communication is rich with resources and scholars who can contribute to and expand on the growing research about professional translation in an international setting. For example, as noted previously, Frank J. Macke's (2010) work provides theoretical support for the importance of a classroom *interpreter* who goes beyond simply translating text and contributes to the overall classroom experience of the instructor and students. Walter J. Ong (2000; 2012) provides an extensive exploration of the difference between an oral and a print-based culture, a distinction that is especially helpful in countries like Haiti, where primary orality is still present. More specifically, Brent C. Sleasman (in press) explores the unique religious and communicative dynamics of Haitian culture and provides a point of connection between orality, interpretation and philosophy of communication in Haiti.

Among other resources and by way of conclusion, mention should be made of the International Orality Network (http://www.orality.net/), which provides materials written from an explicitly Christian orientation for those who are interested in connecting with people living in predominantly oral cultures. The website provides a searchable database of resources and events that provide opportunities to learn more about implicit and explicit issues raised in this essay. For example, when searching for "interpreting," one finds a workshop specifically designed for those who are interested in interpreting in a multilingual Christian worship service. Searching for "classroom" leads one to an essay written by Phil Thornton (2014) exploring "Constructivism, cross-cultural teaching, and orality." Resources such as these exist at the intersection of human communication, theology, and translation. By giving fuller consideration to the issues raised within this essay, students can benefit from a more philosophically grounded, and ultimately more ethical, classroom experience. ■

References

Ballantyne, P. J., Yang M., & Boon, H. (2013). Interpretation in cross-language research: Tongues-tied in the health care interview? *Journal of Cross-Cultural Gerontology*, *28*(4), 391-405. doi:10.1007/s10823-013-9210-9

Bot, H., & Verrept, H. (2013). "Role issues in the Low Countries: Interpreting in mental healthcare in the Netherlands and Belgium." In C. Schaffner, K. Kredens, &

Y. Fowler (Eds.), *Interpreting in a changing landscape: Selected papers from* Critical Link 6 (pp. 117-131). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

Freire, P. (1968). *Pedagogy of the oppressed.* London: Bloomsbury Academic and Publishing.

Gile, D. (2009). *Basic concepts and models for interpreter and translator training*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

International Orality Network. (n.d.). *Making disciples of oral learners*. Retrieved from http://www.orality.net/

Joseph, C. M. B. (2010). Haitian in the U.S.: Language, politics, and education. In A. K. Spears & C. M. B. Joseph (Eds.), *The Haitian Creole language: History, structure, use, and education* (pp. 229-247). New York: Lexington Books.

Locher, U. (2010). Education in Haiti. In A. K. Spears & C. M. B. Joseph (Eds.), *The Haitian Creole language: History, structure, use, and education* (pp. 177-198). New York: Lexington Books.

Macke, F. J. (2010). Intrapersonal communicology: Reflection, reflexivity, and relational consciousness in embodied subjectivity. In D. Eicher-Catt & I. Catt (Eds.), *Communicology: The new science of embodied discourse* (pp. 33-62). Madison, NJ: Fairleigh Dickinson University Press.

Ong, W. J. (2000). *The presence of the word: Some prolegomena for cultural and religious history*. Binghamton, NY: *Global Publications*.

Ong, W. J. (2012). *Orality and literacy: 30th anniversary edition.* New York: Routledge.

Plaisir, J. (2010). Haitian children's education: Orality, literacy and technology. Ed. A. K. Spears & C. M. B. Joseph (Eds.), *The Haitian Creole language: History, structure, use, and education* (pp. 265-282). New York: Lexington Books.

Reddy, M. J. (1979). The conduit metaphor—a case of frame conflict in our language about language. In A. Ortony (Ed.), *Metaphor and thought* (pp. 284-297). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sleasman, Brent C. (in press). Zombie apocalypse, Haitian Vodou, and media ecology—A cautionary tale for our technological future. In K. G. Roberts (Ed.), *Communication basics for millennials—Essays on communication theory and culture*. New York: Peter Lang.

Spears, A. K. (2010). Introduction: The Haitian Creole language. In A. K. Spears & C. M. B. Joseph (Eds.), *The Haitian Creole language: History, structure, use, and education* (pp. 1-22). New York: Lexington Books.

Spears, A. K., & Joseph, C. M. B. (2010). *The Haitian Creole language: History, structure, use, and education*. New York: Lexington Books.

Stapleton, H., Murphy, R., & Kildea, S. (2013). Lost in translation: Staff and interpreters' experiences of the Edinburgh postnatal depression scale with women from refugee backgrounds. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing*, *34*(9), 648-657. doi:10.3109/01612840.2013.804895

Thornton, P. (2014). Constructivism, cross-cultural teaching, and orality. *Orality Journal*, *3*(1), 31-40. Retrieved from http://legacy.orality.net/sites/default/files/download_jounals/Constructivism.pdf

Wadensjö, C. (1999). *Interpreting as interaction*. New York: Routledge.

Watermeyer, J. (2011). "She will hear me": How a flexible interpreting style enables patients to manage the inclusion of interpreters in mediated pharmacy interactions. *Health Communication 26*(1), 71-81. doi:10.1080/10410236.2011.527623

Wei, H., Xu Y., & Zhu J. (2011). Bilingual teaching in nursing education in China: Evolution, status, and future directions. *Nursing & Health Sciences*, *13*(3), 371-377. doi:10.1111/j.1442-2018.2011.00623.x

Zéphir, F. (2010). The language of Haitians and the history of Creole: Haiti and its diaspora. In A. K. Spears & C. M. B. Joseph (Eds.), *The Haitian Creole language: History, structure, use, and education* (pp. 55-82). New York: Lexington Books.

About the author

Brent C. Sleasman (PhD, Duquesne University) is president of Winebrenner Theological Seminary in Findlay, Ohio. He is a past president of the Pennsylvania Communication Association and serves on the editorial board of the *Journal of Communication and Religion*.

Email. bcsleasman@aol.com

Contact.
Winebrenner Theological Seminary
950 North Main Street Findlay
OH 45840
USA

Manuscript received June 2, 2015; revised August 2, 2015; accepted October 15, 2015.

USABILITY AS A FOCUS OF MULTIPROFESSIONAL COLLABORATION

A teaching case study on user-centered translation

Tytti Suojanen

University of Tampere, Finland

Kaisa Koskinen

University of Eastern Finland, Finland

Tiina Tuominen

University of Tampere, Finland

As professional communication needs are increasingly multilingual, the merging of translator and technical communicator roles has been predicted. However, it may be more advantageous for these two professional groups to increase cooperation. This means learning to identify and appreciate their distinct but mutually complementary core competencies. Since both professions share the ideology of being the user's advocate, usability is a common denominator that can function as a focal point of collaboration. While many translation theories focus on the reader and the target context, usability methods have not traditionally been a part of translator training. An innovation called User-Centered Translation (UCT), which is a model based on usability and user-centered design, is intended to help translators speak the same language as technical communicators, and it offers concrete usability tools which have been missing from translation theories. In this teaching case study, we discuss the teaching of four UCT methods: personas, the implied reader, heuristic evaluation, and usability testing. We describe our teaching experiences, analyze student feedback on all four, and report on the implementation of a student assignment on heuristics. This case study suggests ways in which UCT can form an important nexus of professional skills and multiprofessional collaboration.

connexions • international professional communication journal

2015, *3*(2), 147-166

ISSN 2325-6044

Keywords. Multiprofessional collaboration, Technical communication, Translator training, Usability, User-centered translation.

At contemporary workplaces, translators and technical communicators often work on the same projects, and they face similar types of challenges during the text production process. These challenges often entail so called end-of-the-line problems, referring to the fact that translators and technical communicators are brought into the product development cycle at a late stage, when most key decisions have already been made, and they therefore tend to remain at a distance from core discussions (Suojanen et al., 2015, p. 17–18). This problem was identified as early as 1989 by Patricia Sullivan, but it still seems to persist in both translation and technical communication. The two professions also share common competencies, such as the abilities to analyse source material and communicate with subject matter experts (Risku, 2004). Both professions aspire for high quality texts, and both translators and technical communicators feel that they are not always able to optimally cater for the end users' needs. As Minacori and Veisblat (2010) note, both in the US and in Europe there is "an unquestionable need for the two professions to work closely together" (p. 763).

As business communication needs are increasingly multilingual by nature, the merging of translator and technical communicator roles has been predicted (e.g., Gnecchi, Maylath, Mousten, Scarpa, and Vandepitte, 2011). Furthermore, some translation scholars have expressed the need to introduce new competencies, beyond those that traditional translation curricula have offered (Gouadec, 2007), and to encourage cross-training practices by including technical communication in translator training programs (Byrne, 2006). Likewise, recent surveys reported by Gnecchi et al. (2011, p. 178) suggest that professional/technical/scientific communication (PTSC) curricula contain translation and localization courses as well as writing courses that focus on plain language, usability, and structured writing. The results of their surveys also indicate that translation curricula should contain courses on managing translation/multilingual PTSC projects. We agree with Gnecchi et al.'s (2011, p. 179) notion that there is a need for further study on the current trends and for forecasting future developments. We also think that, at this stage, it is necessary to try out different approaches in translator training.

In this paper, we report on a teaching case where course content familiar from technical communication has been targeted specifically at translation students. We are searching for ways for the two professions to enhance their cooperation and understanding of each other's expertise. Since both professions share the ideology of being the user's advocate, usability is a common denominator that can function as a focal point of collaboration. However, while technical communicators are traditionally trained to use different methods to enhance the usability of documentation, user-orientation is much more diffuse in translator training. While many translation theories (*skopos* theory in particular) also focus on the reader and the target context (Suojanen et al., 2015, p. 40–47), usability methods have not traditionally been a part of the translator's competence nor have they been included in translator training.

Since 2009, we have been involved in designing and conducting courses with a usability focus for translation students. Our pedagogical innovations are based on a novel, usability-based approach to translation called User-Centred Translation (UCT). Our aim has been to enhance students' professional skills and collaborative competencies for working in multiprofessional teams. These courses have taken a number of shapes and they have been—and are being—offered in several Finnish universities.

User-centred translation, which is the heart of our teaching case, is defined as follows: "In user-centered translation, information about users is gathered iteratively throughout the process and through different methods, and this information is used to create a usable translation" (Suojanen et al., 2015, p. 4). An iterative process means that users are analysed and usability is evaluated through recursive usability research methods, which can be used at different stages of the process as needed. At the beginning, a detailed specification is drafted together with the commissioner. The specification contains information concerning the expected usability targets of the translation (e.g., style, terminology, readability), intended target audience, and UCT methods to be used. The specification is important, because the finished translation will be evaluated against the specification, not some ideal of a perfect match between the source text and the target text. To achieve a usable outcome, the specification needs to include information about the targeted readers and the desired functions of the translation.

Rubin and Chisnell (2008) offer the following definition for usability, which is the core concept behind the UCT model: “when a product or service is truly usable, the user can do what he or she wants to do the way he or she expects to be able to do it, without hindrance, hesitation, or questions” (p. 4). During the translation process itself, a variety of usability methods can be used. In our publications, we have, so far, discussed the following usability methods:

- mental models (persona, intratextual reader positions, including the implied reader, and audience design)
- heuristic evaluation
- empirical usability methods (including usability testing)
- reception research (Suojanen et al., 2015, p. 3–6).

In this teaching case study, we will report on our experiences in teaching user-centred translation, with particular emphasis on discussing how it can enhance translation students’ professional skills and competencies for multiprofessional collaboration. The need for collaboration obviously extends beyond the neighbouring profession of technical communication, but in this article we focus on the two professions. We suggest that a user-centred approach to translation can foster a shared framework of understanding that facilitates cooperation between translators and technical communicators.

Data

We have taught user-centred translation in specialized UCT courses, and individual methods included in the UCT model have also been introduced into regular translation courses. From our experiences, we have selected the following methods to be discussed in this teaching case study: the persona and the implied reader as examples of mental models, heuristic evaluation, and usability testing. We will share our teaching experiences from various courses that have taken place between 2009 and 2015. In addition, we will use recent student feedback (n = 18) obtained on a course entitled User-Centered Translation held at the University of Tampere in the spring of 2015, and student assignments (n = 38) from various course contexts during the academic year 2014–2015.[1]

In the student feedback, we asked students to comment on each of the UCT methods introduced in the course. The feedback has been used in the sections of this article concerning personas, the implied reader, and usability testing. The discussion on heuristics, in turn, reports on an analysis of the student assignments in which the students performed a heuristic evaluation of a translated text and then reflected and gave feedback on this experience. The latter data set originates from different course contexts taught by ourselves, by other teachers, and in different universities.

Usability Methods in Translator Training

For each of the methods presented below, we will first briefly describe the method, then explain how the method has been and can be taught, and share both our main observations as well as the students' views. Finally, we will discuss the benefits and potential risks of each in reference to developing skills for multiprofessional communication.

Persona

Defining the target audience is one of the crucial points of a translation process. One of the methods with which translators can pinpoint their reader(s) is the use of a persona. Personas are fictive archetypes of users: a persona has a name, background, and personality. A persona can be invented, but more often it is

---

[1] In accordance with national ethical requirements, written informed consent has been obtained from all students whose assignments and feedback are used in this teaching case, and the students' anonymity is protected.

based on empirical information on real users. Sometimes it is necessary to create several personas to meet the demands of varied target audiences (Suojanen et al., 2015, p. 70).[2]

When using personas in a classroom context, we usually divide students into small groups and present them with a translation scenario or ask them to create one themselves. We then ask them to design a persona for the future reader of the translation. Finally, students are asked to consider what translation strategies would suit this particular persona best. The group writes down features and draws a picture of their persona on a flip chart and presents the persona to the whole group. We find that most often the personas are realistic and life-like, and only rarely do the students create an unimaginable persona, which would not be useful in the actual translation work.

Students have been able to grasp the idea of personas quite easily, and their general feedback on the use of personas has been predominantly positive. Of the 18 course feedback responses, only three expressed exclusively negative attitudes, while seven made a positive evaluation and five found both positive and negative aspects in the use of personas. One did not comment on them at all, and two described personas in a neutral fashion. Those students whose evaluations were positive found personas fun and handy, light and agile, easy to learn, and meaningful. For example, one student stated that "the persona helps me understand in a somehow more concrete way what the target audience of the translation will be."[3] Another commented that a persona is "a fun way of clarifying the target audience, does not feel as heavy and laborious as many analysis models." The persona concretizes the target audience and helps to find translation solutions. Many students found that the persona is particularly suitable for long projects, for repeated translations of the same genre, when translating texts for the same client, and in teams as a good kick-off for a project.

---

[2] For an example of personas, see Suojanen et al., 2015, p. 8–10.

[3] All translations of the direct quotations from student feedback are by the authors.

Those students whose feedback was negative found the persona to be artificial, too limiting, and stereotypical. One student commented: "I am bothered by the thought that I am limiting my writing by choosing a stereotype for whom I am writing my text." One student mentioned that the persona is suitable only when the target audience is already somewhat limited. In addition, a translator might make an error of judgement and generalize too much; what happens if the persona fails? Another student mentioned that the persona needs to be complemented with something else so that it is not just the translator's impression. This comment indicates a potentially common misperception that needs to be clarified in teaching: in the classroom the persona may often be a figment of imagination, but in real life the persona should always be confirmed with data about real readers.

The persona seems to be an intuitive method and easy to adopt: we have discovered that once introduced to the idea, students transfer the use of personas to other courses, too. The feedback also supports this, as several students reported that they would make use of personas in the future. Personas thus appear to be a good point of contact between technical communicators and translators, as technical communicators are already accustomed to using personas regularly in their work. Personas can also be created in multiprofessional dialogue, to boost team spirit, and both professional groups can use the same personas in their work, thus adding consistency in text production. In addition, the creation of personas may help highlight the need to have new personas for new target languages, and new kinds of texts to meet their needs. Technical communicators may also have access to user data that translators can benefit from in creating their personas.

Implied reader

Another method for determining the target audience is the implied reader, which refers to reader positions built into texts. In other words, implied readers are assumed readers to whom writers target their texts (Suojanen et al., 2015, p. 63). Implied readers can be discovered by analyzing a number of features in the text, such as the ways the reader is being addressed, or presuppositions which reveal some of the reader's personal characteristics and the expected level of the reader's previous knowledge. As an example, let us take a look at the following short extract of a blog text: "Have you put on weight during the Christmas holidays? I have!" (Wallström, 2005). In this case, the implied reader comes from a background where Christmas is celebrated, is affluent enough to have overindulged over the holidays, has issues with self-image, and is potentially more likely to be female than male. In addition, the writer has created a sense of familiarity and lack of distance by referring to supposedly shared experiences and attitudes.

In the classroom context, students are asked to find a source text and its translation, and analyze the reader positions that the texts contain. The students should examine what kind of an implied reader the characteristics of the texts suggest and whether the source text and the translation exhibit differences in terms of their implied readers, and why that may be so. Alternatively, students can be asked to select either a translation or a source text and analyze its implied reader(s).

As with the persona, students' attitudes toward the use of the implied reader have been very positive. In the course feedback, thirteen students expressed exclusively positive attitudes, while two stated both positive and negative views, and three described the method in a neutral fashion. None of the students expressed only negative comments about the implied reader. The students described the method as fun to use and interesting, and they found it useful. One student reflected on the surprises that the analysis might produce: "It is both fun and confusing to construct an implied reader, because one can find peculiar readers within texts. The implied reader is an efficient aid in recognizing the writer's attitudes, style, typical expressions and ways of handling topics." The implied reader was considered particularly useful in cases where the specification does not provide much background about the target audience and when the readers in the source and target texts are assumed to be similar.

Many students felt that they intuitively already think about the reader, but the implied reader exercise made them more aware of how the reader is reflected in texts. Furthermore, they felt that it acts as a useful reminder of the potential difference between the reader for whom they think they are translating and the person for whom they actually end up translating. In addition to identifying the writer's attitudes, style and typical expressions, the implied reader was also seen to be a suitable tool for examining and evaluating one's own attitudes and tendencies. While many students reported plans of using the method in the future, many also said that they would not use it systematically but that they might turn to it in situations where the target audience is especially vague.

While personas can be considered a method more familiar to technical communicators but easily communicated to translators as well, the implied reader may be more democratic in terms of previous exposure: both translation studies and technical communication literature have employed concepts such as the implied reader in discussions concerning intratextual reader positions (Suojanen et al., 2015, p. 66–68). This method also holds great potential for enhanced cultural usability, as discussed by Suojanen, Koskinen and Tuominen (2015, p. 19–25). For example, in multilingual projects, translators to all target languages can be asked to analyze the source material produced by technical communicators. This analysis of the source text's implied reader can reveal different interpretations of assumed previous knowledge, expected attitudes and lifestyles, and projected societal hierarchy levels, to name just a few interesting potential results. This kind of detailed feedback would allow a mutual learning opportunity for technical communicators and translators attuned to different cultural contexts.

Heuristic Evaluation

In addition to mental models such as persona and implied reader, translators can make use of another agile method, namely heuristic evaluation, to evaluate the usability of their texts. Heuristics are usability guidelines or principles, basic rules of thumb, and the evaluation is performed by experts—not the end users. Heuristics are being used in iterative product development: the product is evaluated repeatedly, problems are fixed and the following evaluation rounds are used to make sure that the problems no longer exist (Kuutti, 2003, p. 47–49).

Numerous checklists for heuristic evaluation have been created within usability engineering. The most commonly used heuristic checklist was originally drawn up by Jakob Nielsen and Rolf Molich (1990): the list contains commonly known principles of user-centered design (see Korvenranta, 2005, p. 113; Kuutti, 2003, p. 47–49). However, the lists are not transferrable as such from one product to the next. Instead, it is more useful to design a new list for specific products (Korvenranta, 2005, p. 122–123).

Drawing on selected earlier checklists, we have created a specific set of usability heuristics for translators (Suojanen et al., 2015, p. 90), which are presented in Table 1 on page 157.

As Table 1 shows, heuristics are used to evaluate the match between the translation and the specification, users, real world, and genre as well as the match between source and target texts. In addition, evaluation is targeted at consistency, legibility and readability, satisfaction, and error prevention.

Our data for heuristics includes student assignments (n = 38) from three different courses: two English–Finnish translation courses, a course on translation studies methodology, and a course on user-centered translation. Students were asked to familiarize themselves with the UCT heuristics, use them to analyze a translation, report on their main findings and reflect on their use of the heuristics.[4]

The feedback on heuristics was remarkably similar in all the student groups. The students' views on the assignment were quite ambivalent. Many expressed positive views and found the assignment fun, refreshing, and different from their usual assignments. Ten respondents found the heuristics easy to use. On the other hand, 15 respondents thought that the use of heuristics was difficult and challenging. The heuristics were also described as time-consuming, and some heuristics were criticized as overlapping with each other or difficult to understand. Although the heuristics seemed like a useful tool, many students were wary of whether the translator will actually have time to implement such a method in a

[4] This data has been discussed in more detail in Suojanen and Tuominen (accepted).

Table 1

Usability Heuristics for User-Centred Translation

1. Match between translation and specification	Why is the translation needed and does it fulfil the requirements defined in the specification?
2. Match between translation and users	Who are the users of the translation and how do their characteristics affect translation solutions? Are there possibilities for supporting different kinds of users? Do the textual choices reflect the information needs of the users?
3. Match between translation and real world	Is the translation aligned with its cultural context? Is cultural adaptation required?
4. Match between translation and genre	Does the translation match the conventions of the genre in question? Are the visual, auditory and other multimodal elements appropriate for the new context?
5. Consistency	Is the translation consistent in terms of style, terminology, phraseology and register?
6. Legibility and readability	Do the visual elements of the translation correspond to the reader's physiological capabilities and relevant cultural guidelines? Is the user guided through the translation by using appropriate signposting for the genre in question? Are the user's efforts of interpretation sufficiently minimized?
7. Cognitive load and efficiency	Is the translation well-crafted enough to be easy to memorize and learnable, that is, clear and comprehensible? Do the users need guidance for using the translation and if so, in which format?
8. Satisfaction	Does the translation produce a pleasurable and/or rewarding user experience?
9. Match between source and target texts	Has all relevant source material been translated? Is there unwanted linguistic or structural interference?
10. Error prevention	Have potential risks of misunderstanding been minimized?

translation project. Still, most of the students reported plans to use the heuristics in the future as part of their studies and when moving on to working life. They thought the heuristics helped them produce a translation with better consistency and overall quality (see also Suojanen & Tuominen, accepted).

Although the students were able to see the particular benefits of heuristics as a user-oriented approach, they had difficulty in taking into account the overall context of use, which is, after all, a paramount consideration in usability. Rather, they tended to concentrate on the textual level. This difficulty of paying attention to the users' context could be seen in the assignments: although users and readers were explicitly discussed in 19, that is, half of the assignments, showing that students were able to see the potential for user-centeredness in heuristics, many of the students also recognized the difficulty of positioning themselves in the user's shoes. The same difficulty is, of course, inherent in the nature of heuristic expert evaluation.

Heuristic evaluation was less universally acceptable to students than the two previous methods. Some criticized individual heuristics as being difficult to understand, but the general concept of heuristic evaluation was not considered difficult to grasp. Indeed, its principles appear very similar to various other style sheets and checklists already in use in different parts of the translation industry. However, it seems evident that this apparent familiarity prevented the students from appreciating the more novel *usability* elements involved. In their reports, the students listed items such as legibility, readability, and user satisfaction as difficult and potentially overlapping, but these are precisely the elements that need to be assessed if one wants specifically to improve usability. In terms of multiprofessional cooperation, this method may thus present some misunderstandings, and even worse, these may well lurk under the surface, if translators recognize the use of heuristics but conflate it with other kinds of checklists with which they are more familiar. The two professions may thus end up using the same term *heuristics*, even though the underlying concept is actually different. This suggests that some training and practice evaluations are needed to make the most of this tool.

Usability Testing

Mental models and heuristic evaluation have the drawback that they do not include the actual user, which the students also noted in their assignments and feedback. Because of this drawback, Nielsen (1993, p. 165), for example, advocates for the empirical method of usability testing. Rubin and Chisnell (2008) define usability testing as follows: "a process that employs people as testing participants who are representative of the target audience to evaluate the degree to which a product meets specific usability criteria" (p. 21). As Joni Koskinen explains, in practice the test participants are asked to perform different kinds of tasks, which should correspond to real use situations. The collected data can include notes, video recordings, screen recordings or log data including the user's think-aloud protocol. After the test, the user's subjective impressions can be collected with a questionnaire or interview. Usually one participant tests a product while 1–3 persons act as observers, who might not always be visible to the user. One of the observers acts as moderator, managing and monitoring the test situation (Koskinen, 2005, p. 188, 196-197).

We experimented with usability tests in the classroom setting on two occasions. In a group project, advanced translation students from the University of Eastern Finland applied usability testing in an authentic project assignment in which an online course on translation technology was translated into English. The students designed and ran two sessions, in the first of which they gathered the users' comments on the material, finding usability issues on a textual level. The participants went through the text, wrote down their comments, and then the group discussed them. Among other things, the project team found that sentence structures and formulations needed to be simplified. The second usability test was task-based—following translated instructions to create a new project by using translation memory software. Moderators observed the participants' task performance, which was followed by a group discussion. No major usability issues arose, which was seen as a positive result (Suokas et al., submitted).

The second teaching example is a fictive usability testing scenario executed as part of a UCT course. Students were divided into small groups and were asked to test an infotainment game which is available in multiple languages online. Some of the students in the group were playing the game and thinking aloud, while others were observing and taking notes. The participants were asked to consider the usability of the game: whether it was easy to start and play the game, whether the rules were helpful, whether they would have needed more instruction, and how the overall playing experience was. These themes were then discussed together with the whole group. This teaching scenario does not include many of the important elements of a typical usability test plan (see Rubin & Chisnell, 2008), but the exercise still managed to give translation students a feel for some of the characteristics of a test situation. It should be noted, however, that in this second case, half of the students practiced being test participants, and only the other half trained observation, and the focus was only tangentially related to translation.

Our student feedback comes from the second example, and the feedback is rather ambivalent: while seven students expressed positive views and only two expressed negative views, six made both positive and negative comments and three did not evaluate the method at all. Many of the positive comments emphasized the concrete, real-life information that can be gained through usability testing, as in the following comment: "What is attractive about usability testing is its concreteness: it helps us gain genuine, experience-based responses to guide our work, instead of just operating based on our own evaluations/guesses." In the ambivalent comments, usability testing was often seen as interesting and potentially useful, but the students suspected that realistically it could not be employed in real-life situations very often. Some were also doubtful about the cost-effectiveness of the method. One good example of such views is the following comment: "It is doubtful that translators themselves could arrange usability tests for their own texts, but the method itself seemed useful to me."

Students found usability testing to be a useful tool, suited especially for evaluating games, webpages, user instructions, and cooking recipes. They were fascinated by the concreteness of testing and the way in which it can reveal problems that some of the other methods cannot. A few students mentioned that they would love to be test participants themselves. Students also identified potential problems, for example that using thinking-aloud might not always be the best method to be included in usability testing and that test participants do not represent all of the users.

Among the methods we have described in the UCT model, usability testing presents the biggest challenges to traditional thinking on translation quality assessment. First, it is not entirely clear yet how the tests can be designed to target translation issues. Second, translator training does not equip students with skills for interaction with end users, nor with observation skills. Third, we cannot be certain that once we involve actual users, their views will be aligned with those of the translators, and translators may well need to learn to let go of their own quality criteria.

Thus far, we have only begun to test usability testing, either in practice or in the classroom, and it is slightly premature to pass any judgement on its usefulness in the multiprofessional workplace. Our usability testing experiments have shown that the method can be motivating and stimulating for translators to use, even if it can be challenging to adopt it into the translator's toolkit. But perhaps that is what would make usability testing a promising area for multiprofessional collaboration: aspects related to translation could become one element of regularly performed usability testing, and if translators were familiar with the concept and had access to the testing situation, they could overcome the traditional end-of-the-line problems and contribute their expertise to the overall product development. These problems of access are not unique to translators as technical communicators often struggle with the same difficulty. Together they can make a stronger case for early inclusion of both the users and the communication experts in the project cycle.

Conclusions

In this article, we looked at a number of usability methods that we have used in translator training. The question we set out to answer was whether and how these methods can enhance future translators' skills and abilities to operate in multiprofessional teams as experts of translation and intercultural communication.

More specifically, we looked at the interface between translators and technical communicators.

From a teacher's viewpoint, using the methods of persona, implied reader, heuristic evaluation, and usability testing has been a concrete and hands-on experience, stimulating in-depth discussions with students on translators' competencies, abilities, limitations, and boundaries. The students' overall response to the methods has been highly positive: the assignments were found to be interesting and different—fun even—and the majority felt that they would be useful when examining the target audience of a translation and in producing an appropriate translation for that audience.

However, the students tended to focus on the usability of these methods from the perspective of the translator only, rather than envision a collaborative context in which they would be working side by side with other professionals such as technical communicators. They also expressed some skepticism about the usefulness of the methods, and with regard to heuristic evaluation, the heuristics had some usability problems. Above all, the skepticism addressed the opportunities for translators to actually take advantage of these methods in the hectic translation industry. It may well be the case that the students' vision of their future role as subcontractors in the translation industry prevented them from seeing potential collaborative work contexts, where usability is not an add-on but rather an integral part of the set-up. But students may also already have accepted the end-of-the-line problem as the unquestioned status quo.

One reason for these problems might be that the perspective of multiprofessional collaboration and true team membership has remained too implicit in the teaching sessions. Although the improvement of translators' professional collaboration skills has been one driving force behind the development of the UCT model, the need to focus on the practical application of these new methods has led to a lack of transparency of its more meta-level objectives. In the future, we need to be more explicit in communicating and discussing the aims of the UCT model with regard to its interfaces to other professions.

So far, the UCT model and some of the methods have been tested primarily in academic settings, although some industry cases exist (see Otava, 2013), and we have also received some industry feedback. The next step is to scrutinize the model and its methods in real-life scenarios, to develop them iteratively to fit different types of industry situations, and to bring that knowledge back into the classroom. Primary industry concerns include the costs and benefits of introducing UCT into a business environment. This worry is also echoed by students. However, at least in user-interface design, usability methods have been shown to give positive returns on investment (Marcus, 2004). We expect similar results when usability methods are applied in translation.

From the viewpoint of international professional communication, UCT and its methods help translators speak the same language as technical communicators, developers, and engineers, and it offers concrete tools that have been missing from translation theories. We believe that once translators adopt these tools, they will be better prepared to network, take their expert position alongside other professions in international communication contexts, and provide a valuable contribution. ■

References

Byrne, J. (2006). *Technical translation: Usability strategies for translating technical documentation*. Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Springer.

Gnecchi, M., Maylath, B., Mousten, B., Scarpa, F., & Vandepitte, S. (2011). Field convergence between technical writers and technical translators: Consequences for training institutions. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication, 51*(2), 168–184. doi:10.1109/TPC.2011.2121750

Gouadec, D. (2007). *Translation as a profession*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Korvenranta, H. (2005). Asiantuntija-arvioinnit. [Expert evaluations]. In S. Ovaska, A. Aula, & P. Majaranta (Eds.), *Käytettävyystutkimuksen menetelmät.* [Methods in usability engineering] (pp. 111–124). Tampere, Finland: Tietojenkäsittelytieteiden laitos, Tampereen yliopisto, raportti B-2005-1.

Koskinen, J. (2005). Käytettävyystestaus. [Usability testing]. In S. Ovaska, A. Aula, & P. Majaranta (Eds.), *Käytettävyystutkimuksen menetelmät.* [Methods in usability engineering] (pp. 187–208). Tampere, Finland: Tietojenkäsittelytieteiden laitos, Tampereen yliopisto, raportti B-2005-1.

Kuutti, W. (2003). *Käytettävyys, suunnittelu ja arviointi*. [Usability, design, and evaluation]. Helsinki: Talentum.

Marcus, A. (2004). Return on investment for usable user-interface design: Examples and statistics. Retrieved from http://www.amanda.com/joomla_uploads/whitepapers/AM+A_ROIWhitePaper_20Apr0%201.pdf

Minacori, P., & Veisblat, L. (2010). Translation and technical communication: Chicken or egg? *Meta: journal des traducteurs/Meta: Translators' Journal, 55*(4), 752–768. doi:10.7202/045689ar

Nielsen, J. (1993). *Usability engineering*. Boston: Academic Press.

Nielsen, J., & Molich, R. (1990). Heuristic evaluation of user interfaces. *Proceedings of human factors in computing systems (CHI 1990)* (pp. 249–256). New York: ACM. Retrieved from http://dl.acm.org/results.cfm?h=1&cfid=466900177&cftoken=67970579

Otava, A. (2013). *Focus on the audience: Three cases of user-centered translation* (master's thesis), Tampere, Finland: University of Tampere. Retrieved from http://urn.fi/URN:NBN:fi:uta-201311151601

Risku, H. (2004). Migrating from translation to technical communication and usability. In G. Hansen (Ed.), *Claims, changes and challenges in translation studies. Selected contributions from the EST congress, Copenhagen 2001* (pp. 181–195). Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Rubin, J., & Chisnell, D. (2008). *Handbook of usability testing: How to plan, design, and conduct effective tests (*2nd ed.). Indianapolis: Wiley Publishing.

Sullivan, P. (1989). Beyond a narrow conception of usability testing. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication, 32*(4), 256–264.

Suojanen, T., Koskinen, K., & Tuominen, T. (2015). *User-centered translation*. London and New York: Routledge.

Suojanen, T., & Tuominen, T. (accepted). Käännösten käytettävyyden heuristinen arviointi. [Heuristic evaluation of the usability of translations].

Suokas, J., Pukarinen, K., von Wolff, S., & Koskinen, K. (submitted). Testing: Putting translation usability to the test.

Wallström, M. (2005, Jan. 13). Tsunami, Barroso Commission, Fado music. [Blog entry]. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/archives/commission_2004-2009/blogs/wallstrom/we_write_2005_and_a.html

About the authors

Tytti Suojanen is senior lecturer and head of the Technical Communications Programme at the University of Tampere, Finland. She is the coauthor of *User-Centered Translation* (Routledge 2015) together with Kaisa Koskinen and Tiina Tuominen. Her research interests include technical communication history, rhetoric, user instructions as genre and user-centered translation.
Email. tytti.suojanen@uta.fi

Contact.
Tytti Suojanen
School of Language, Translation and Literary Studies
33014 University of Tampere
Finland

Kaisa Koskinen is professor of translation studies at the University of Eastern Finland in Joensuu. She is the author of several monographs, including User-Centered Translation (Routledge 2015) together with Tytti Suojanen and Tiina Tuominen. Her current research interests include the concept of translatorial action, as well as translation, user experience and affect.
Email. kaisa.koskinen@uef.fi

Contact.
Kaisa Koskinen
Professor of Translation Studies
University of Eastern Finland
PO Box 111
80101 JOENSUU
Finland

Tiina Tuominen is the acting professor of translation studies (English–Finnish) at the University of Tampere, Finland. Her PhD thesis (2012) investigates the reception of subtitled films. She is the coauthor of *User-Centered Translation* (Routledge 2015) together with Tytti Suojanen and Kaisa Koskinen. Her research interests include audiovisual translation, reception research and user-centered translation.

Email. tiina.k.tuominen@uta.fi

Contact.
Tiina Tuominen
School of Language, Translation and Literary Studies
33014 University of Tampere
Finland

Manuscript received April 23, 2015; revised July 24, 2015; accepted September 7, 2015.

connexions interviews

connexions interview with

AITOR MEDRANO

Transcript of the interview with Aitor Medrano, localization engineering manager in a multinational language service provider in Spain.

The interview was recorded for issue *3*(2). It was conducted by Quan Zhou, via Skype, on November 4, 2015. The interview was transcribed from the recorded interview by Pana Moua.

The video recording of this interview is available on the *connexions*' Vimeo channel at https://vimeo.com/156933445

Can you describe your present career in light of international professional communication?

Certainly, so I work in a multinational languages and technology services provider, and I am responsible for teams of engineering and desktop publishing groups with offices in Spain, India… and I also frequently interface with other offices in Europe and also in the United States.

What previous experience in international professional communication, if any, has prepared you for your present career?

Not much in my previous, for professional multinational communication… I basically used to work for a local translation agency in Spain, so most of the clients were Spanish. I also did… was a customer support representative for a computer and translation software, so I did interface quite a lot with clients… with translators to give them support, but I did not interface quite frequently with people from outside of Spain. That said, I think some of the experience that I gathered while I was doing that job, even if not with multicultural or multinational aspects, would still prepare me for the job that I have at the moment.

What would you say are particular accomplishments of international professional communication practice, research and or pedagogy in your region of the world or elsewhere?

I think I'd like to start by giving some background on what I think, or what I consider multinational communication. I think when I was considering this question, I realized that modern multinational communication—I will refer to this as multicultural professional communication—assuming that those are… that we are referring to the skills of communicating with professionals and with colleagues from different backgrounds, not just from different nations but from different backgrounds, in different languages, different time-zones, different locations… basically because even within the same country, you can find obviously significant cultural differences that will make communication a challenge or, if not a challenge, at least something that you need to worry about. And, you know, there are aspects like the perception that you get when you communicate, the ways of addressing other people; that is in respect of whether you live in one country or the country next door.

There is a cultural component to it that will make me think that we should talk about this topic in terms of multicultural rather than multinational, and I am going to give you an example of how this will happen and typically within the same country. So, you have probably been in a situation where you are in a business meeting even within your same country and using the same language and you still face a situation where, for instance, a significant age difference between you and the person that you're talking with makes the communication not so fluid. Basically, because your goals—your objectives—are going to be different… or slightly different. Say that you are a young sales person going to a meeting with a marketing manager who's in her 50s—late 50s—obviously your goals are going to be completely… very, very different, right? You, as a young sales person… you are going to be pushing to sell whatever you have to sell while the other person has a completely different goal, which is "Okay, I want to buy from you, but I may not want to buy anything. I just need to cover my needs internally, whatever strategy the company has." So… your goals are going to be different. And it's going to be more difficult for you as a youngster to make a connection with someone who, you know, is almost double your age or… similar, right? In the end, it's about creating empathy… creating trust and, you know, developing that professional relationship and that comes with, you know, understanding the other person's culture more than being from one nation or another.

But to answer your original question on what are the accomplishments in this field, I will say that the ones I am more familiar with are in the teaching world, because of all the candidates that are frequently being interviewed for positions in my job. And I do see… I normally interview just graduates or people who took up post-graduate, so I see which of those skills that will help you in communication they have and which ones they lack. And I think based on… those interviews, what I see is that maybe skills required to communicate in an efficient way are not so much taken into account in the modules or the programs that they take. Or if they are covered—if these topics are covered—they are not given the importance that they should be given… meaning that even if you are not taking your degree in Marketing or in Communication, in a field which is related to Communications, regardless of the field of expertise that you're taking your degree on your post-graduate on, there should still be some training on… effective communication, on… building the relationship with the other person, building empathy, so there is a lot that, you know… that could be done in that regard. I know that there are modules in the degrees that students take where students learn about the culture, specific aspects of the culture—of the language that they're learning, in language studies for instance. So I would say that is certainly an accomplishment because it certainly helps them better understand the culture of the language that they are going to be speaking. So say if, you know, you learn French… you want to learn about French culture—just a little bit—just enough to give you a good understanding of… how French people think… what is the way of thinking and maybe even if you don't know all the peculiarities of each region, at least you are going to be aware of the fact that one region may be different from another… or the expectations of a French person that you are speaking with may be different because of a cultural aspect that you may or may not be aware.

What would you say are challenges of international professional communication practice, research and or pedagogy in your region of the world or elsewhere?

Yes, I think… as I mentioned, when interviewing candidates, it would not seem to me like they have received very specific training about asking the right questions or structuring interviews for instance. So I do see in some of the candidates that they obviously are nervous because they are on a job interview, that's normal. But they could still have some control of the situation even if they are junior, even if some of this comes with experience and with having done interviews and having been in professional situations. I think having the basics… training on that… on communicating and being in a professional situation would certainly help them show a little bit of awareness about what the situation is and how they can react. Even if, you know, if by being junior and not having had the experience, you can still tell that they don't fully control the situation… the conversation. They are not very aware of what you really mean when you ask questions like "What do you expect to do in three years in your career?" So… I will say this probably comes from a focus on those degrees, focusing on the subject matter. So… let's say that you are doing Economics, you obviously want to do all your modules on economy numbers, digits, you know… finance, things like that. And I reckon that it is still very important in every degree, every professional training that we give students to include if not a module, at least some information about communicating, about presenting yourself. And the thing is, you know, you can be the best engineer, you can be the best designer, if you cannot sell yourself, if you cannot communicate, it's going to make things a bit more difficult for you to be successful in your career. And obviously the work environment is inevitably going towards a multicultural or multinational collaborative approach. So… this is where we're heading. These skills are necessarily needed. I think this is where, at least in the scholarship world, this would help students.

So… I will suggest for these modules or, let's say, for these degrees to include modules on multicultural communication… basic Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP)… negotiation, body language, public speaking, all these aspects where students may be focused, "Oh, no, I want to learn about economics!" Oh well, okay, but you are also going to be working in a professional environment with different cultures, so you are going to have to learn how to present, how to introduce yourself, how to, you know… how to negotiate.

So… you know, there are peculiarities to each culture, as I mentioned earlier, is something that you probably cannot reach to get from every culture. You won't be able to know every peculiarity for every culture, but the more you work with people from that culture, the easier it gets to understand and to learn from one experience to another. For example, you probably… here in Spain, if you'll want to get something out of somebody that you're calling to another office… to a client… if you want to get something from the person that you are talking to… you don't want to call that person at 2 p.m. on the phone. Basically because that person is either about to go for lunch or already at lunch and you are going to get very little attention from that person because he or she is already thinking about, okay "I'm going on my lunch break, and I don't… you know, I am not going to spend a lot of time listening to what you have to say." Similarly, for France for instance, you don't want to push a French client too hard. There are other examples, right? Irish people, they don't enjoy British accents, so maybe if you are building a strategy around having a conversation with an Irish person, you may want to avoid having a very thick British accent… person with a thick British accent in the conversation. So, all of those things. You will probably find it hard to compile everything in your head at once, but it's things that you learn over time and this sort of thing can be as part of the curriculum for students taking any degrees, I would say. It's certainly a challenge to cover all these cultural differences… but it's probably a good idea to start covering those regions, or those cultural peculiarities for those regions that are near where you work or where you intend to work and concentrate on the soft skills, right? On the skills I mentioned earlier, on public speaking, on introducing yourself, things like that, right?

How do you see technology or changes in technology impacting, maintaining or altering international professional communication practice, research and/or pedagogy in your region of the world or elsewhere?

I think the instant digital communication has dramatically changed the scenario where communications happen, right? We have access to information at any point from anywhere with any device, right? And also this information means also training, right? You can get training pretty much anywhere. You do… we do video calls which are, you know, a lot more interactive than just a phone call, basically because you can see the other person's reaction straightaway. You don't need to wait for a verbal reaction. So… that has certainly improved communication but also created some challenges. There are cases where you may not want to disclose your facial reaction or your body language, and if you're in a meeting where there's a video conference, well, it is what it is right. On the good side obviously, it gives us access to training… also to formal and informal communications. We can use technology to communicate not just in the business world but now, for a few years it's been accessible to anybody for informal communications. So… it also gives us access to information on culture and cultural aspects, right? Which we touched on before on the importance of being aware of what are the peculiarities of a specific region or specific culture, so having all that information at hand is certainly a plus, right? A big advantage. And also the fact that you can learn at your own pace. With distance learning, it means that you no longer have to go anywhere to get that training. You can watch training, you can listen to training, you can read training at your own pace. So that pretty much covers three out of the five senses. We'll see about smell and touch at some point, but… you know… watch, read and listen are things that you can already do with technology, right? To receive training.

I will say on the not so positive side, on the negative side of having things that technology has created is that there is too much information for some people to digest. And now the challenge more than getting all that information, which was probably the challenge that the previous generation was facing, "Where do we get information about from the library?" like 15-20 years ago. You had to go to the library to get access to the Internet, to get access to books or printed materials. Now we're well passed that and we have too much information—all the information that we'll want, pretty much. It turns that we are probably missing the skills to filter that information, so that we get the part that we really need. It also means that people communicate… will communicate a lot more than what we used to in the professional world like 10 years ago… because we have more chance of communication and I have seen that, particularly in young people and students, that they're used to fast communication, which means that they type fast which leads to typos, grammar mistakes, interferences from all the language, right? Language interference. And I think proper writing, proper grammar and spelling is just a sign of respect to your interlocutor. So… whether it's formal or informal. Basically, obviously, in a professional environment you want to be a lot more formal, but if your… let's say if your informal communications with friends and family you're so used to… you don't worry about typos, you don't worry grammar, you don't worry about vocabulary, it's going to create some interference down the line when you get to the office and have to speak with colleagues and have to speak with clients, right? And I'm a bit surprised because the tools are there to prevent you from making those mistakes, we have spell checkers, we have word prediction when you type on your phone. So the tools are there but for some reason I see young graduates, like some of them are used to informal communication and they may find it difficult to adjust to a professional environment, I think.

One last point I'd like to touch on in this regard with communication and technology is that for developing areas, this has made a significant change. So… in regions where 5, 10 years ago it will be impossible—still today it's impossible to think about having a landline to get DSL connection or, you know, Internet connection. Now, everybody has a phone—a mobile phone—and that is a big gap. It means, you know, access to information. It means access to communication, so that has had definitely a significant impact on communications… probably more on the, I would say, on the informal communication—basically for personal communication more than on the business side. But still… a significant impact on something that will definitely develop in the future.

What kinds of international and intercultural experiences and skills sets has higher education taught students to help them transition to industry and in what ways could higher education do a better job preparing the next generation of graduates for international professional communication?

I think… students' exchange programs here in Europe have contributed a lot… have played a very significant role. Basically because it means that for students with language courses for any degree here in Europe, they could spend one year in a foreign country… not just learning the language, but more importantly learning about the culture. "Learning" simply being raising their awareness on the fact that there are cultural differences, and cultural differences is something difficult to be aware of if you haven't been outside. It may seem so subtle but once you live there, once you go to the supermarket, once you hang out with your friend… or with your new friends… at the bar, you realize that, you know, people, we are all different and we perceive things in different ways. Humor, as one of the vehicles for communication, and expectations in general. Apart from helping these students grow, mature… from being outside of home, I think they are forced to figure things out by themselves and they are forced to learn about the cultural specificities of each region, right? I think those exchange programs have been and are a good asset in, you know, that higher education has provided students with.

And there are two important sides to things that could… that higher education has given students is on the technical writing side of things, at least in the language courses that I'm familiar with. Putting a lot of pressure on proper writing has certainly helped. Not so much on technical writing, but on writing properly in your language. So my degree it was… I took my degree in translation and obviously when you get there you think "I need to learn the language, and the different languages" but in the end you could be a really, really good translator and not speak the langua… the target… the foreign language so well if you write properly in your own language. Obviously you need to have a good knowledge of the foreign language, but you could be a better translator if you write properly in your own language. You could speak a foreign language perfectly well and be almost bilingual but if you write poorly in your own language, in your mother language, the language that you're translating into, your translation is not going to be very good anyway, no matter how well you speak the language. I think putting an emphasis on proper writing for what I've seen in the degrees that I know of has helped students transition into the industry and… has continually helped them get there.

What has industry done well to help higher education to teach international intercultural experiences and skills sets, or to help their own employees develop such skillsets and what else might industry do to help prepare the next generation of graduates?

I think the industry in general… companies… frequently take part in workshops, presentations and conferences in universities and that is something that gives students an idea of what is out there… just a glimpse of what is out there… when you see professionals coming to the university. And also… I've also seen universities inviting professionals to teach certain modules, or parts of the module, for students. And obviously that gives students a much better view if you have a professional teaching your module, you're learning straight—not from a teacher who is doing research but from someone in the real, professional world. So I think that that is certainly a field to explore further.

And then… the industry in general… I think that here in Spain we have a program where companies have a government-driven fund, some budget which is reserved for employee training. So… companies have to use that budget for training, so if used properly, or if used for the right purpose, companies… at least here in… this is the policy here in Spain… could have the means to train their employees on multicultural communication, on soft skills as I mentioned, on NLP, on emotional intelligence, negotiation, things like that. And I think that is… that will be a suggestion I'll make to any company: invest in training your employees on communication. Not just on the verbal skills or the writing skills but also on the perception… on the skills of perception, on how to present information, how to negotiate. And… you know… I will say for this company it will be… it's important to have their employees develop in themselves in this area. And I think, you know, also for universities I would suggest that they frequently employ more and more professionals to ensure that the modules that they teach are up to date with the most recent advances in technology and processes and such.

Is there any else that you would like to add?

Not that I can think of… I mean… I think I touched on all the topics. Maybe for some questions I was preparing to mention something which I had mentioned previously, but I think that pretty much, yeah, covers what I wanted to mention. I think the main… well, let's say the first point I mentioned on the discrepancy, I think, I talked about when we first spoke is the difference I see between multicultural and multinational. To me it's more multicultural differences and the challenge, but then again from my professional point of view obviously I'm sure it's different than from someone who has done research… and proper research on results of studies. Also, when you teach communication you may have a different point of view. My view from a professional point of view is that, you know, I will appreciate if students or graduates or even candidates with some experience will come with these… those skill sets.

And I think that multinational simply means it's going by nationality, where national border versus multicultural, that's just the spectrum that it could more… sort of, it goes across these national borders.

Absolutely, and perhaps for those of you in the United States, it's even more important because you have so many different cultures within a very small region—let's say a small region can be a state, right? Even within your state, you're going to have people from so many different backgrounds and so many, you know… cultural references. So… for us here, you know, in Europe—particularly in Spain—it's going to be more, you know, neutral, or let's say the cultural differences you will find is, as I said, by age difference or maybe by background… which also comes with age, right? When I was, like, in my 20's and I would meet with someone in their 50's, it's a bit more difficult to make a connection. However, if within the same age, it doesn't really matter if you travel 50 kilometers from Barcelona or if you travel 1,000 to the other side of Spain, it's going to be very, very similar… while I'm sure in the States, and in other countries where a lot of immigration from anywhere, those differences could be… vary from one village to another, right, or from one neighborhood to another within the same city, so...

And by the way, Spanish is the fastest growing language in the United States.

Yeah, I know, I know. Well, it's interesting how, obviously because of the proximity of Central and South America, but I'm surprised that is not Chinese or another Asian language, right? Because you also get a lot of immigration from Asia. Yeah, it also creates Spanish growth in the United States. It also creates a very, very interesting mixture of variations of Spanish. If I listen to a conversation between two people from Puerto Rico I cannot understand a word. I need to use subtitles for some Mexican movies I don't understand. And it's the same language but it obviously creates… creates such a different… different flavor of the language with vocabulary, with pronunciation, with… yeah, words from… borrowed from English mostly… that, you know… it is a challenge… absolutely. ■

connexions interview with

KIRK ST. AMANT

Transcript of the interview with Kirk St. Amant, a professor of technical and professional communication and of international studies at East Carolina University, USA.

The interview was recorded for issue *3*(2). It was conducted by *connexions*' co-editor, Kyle Mattson, via Skype, on May 26, 2015. The interview was also transcribed from the recorded interview by Kyle Mattson.

The video recording of this interview is available on the *connexions*' Vimeo channel at https://vimeo.com/156933466

Can you describe your present career in light of international professional communication?

My name is Kirk St. Amant, and I'm a professor at East Carolina University. I'm a professor of technical and professional communication… and of international studies. And I'm also an affiliated faculty member of international health and medical communication with ECU's SoCIOLing Lab [see http://blog.ecu.edu/sites/sociolinglab/], which is a linguistics laboratory that looks at doing outreach and engagement activities with the local community.

connexions • international professional communication journal
2015, *3*(2), 181–191
ISSN 2325-6044

What previous experience in international professional communication, if any, has prepared you for your present career?

I would say my upbringing. I grew up in a very small town on the border with French Canada, which is where I spent most of my life, and there… daily activities were a matter of moving back and forth between two languages: French and English. Also, because it was on the Canadian border, it became a matter of two different currency systems: American currency and Canadian currency… two different systems of measurement: the English system versus the metric system… so you could say that, oddly enough, I sort of grew up in an intercultural environment where everyday activity was… language, culture, different systems, different schemas were always part of life. So… I guess you could say it was always a part of who I am.

And on that, I'll just follow up. Was there a lot of code-switching in your experience?

Very much… a lot of code-switching for sure. A lot of things, for example, not just the language itself you were speaking but how you spoke it. Shifting accent patterns, shifting intonation patterns… quite often, sort of a mixing of languages in terms of finding the term that best represented what you wanted to convey in a given language and conveying it… even if you were speaking a second one… Also, kind of, oddly enough, the cultural references you make. When you grow up with the Americ… ABC, the American television broadcasting system and CBC, the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, the different cultural reference points that you would pull out, in terms of popular culture, shifted. And so it was kind of a matter of being able to talk about *The Beachcombers*, which is a Canadian show that came on, and *Mr. Dressup*, which was a Canadian children's show, versus, say, *Captain Kangaroo*—an American children's show. And so I think that was one of the interesting things is there was code-switching not just in terms of how you spoke, what language you used, and the way in which you articulated an idea… but the cultural reference points you used, as well, were different, also.

What are your current research projects in industry or academia? In what ways do you hope that these projects will contribute new knowledge to international professional communication practice, research, or pedagogy?

Over the past couple years, I've become increasingly interested in health and medical communication in global contexts. And so my research, which had originally been in, sort of, online education, online media, has begun to shift in that direction… sort of, online interaction with patients from different cultures and different regions. And right now, I'm very particularly interested in visual design and how visual design elements need to be rethought in terms of conveying effective information to both health care providers… say physicians or nurses, or other kinds of individuals involved with the… the providing of care, as well as healthcare recipients: patients, their families. How do you configure things, particularly visual-based elements, to engage in what we could call health literacy—or what's often called health literacy? Teaching the user about the concept or topic in and of itself. So that's become my focus as of late. And so I began to shift into that direction. What sorts of models from cognitive psychology *that look at things like image and how we perceive it* can be used to influence the way we study, talk about, and interact with individuals around the concept of health and medical items, ideas… in global contexts?

Do you focus largely, also, on usability and/or accessibility in that area, as well?

Yes… and I think in large part it has to do with rethinking concepts of usability—where the patient becomes at the center of it. So, what is usable in terms of the patient not just as a patient *but as a patient from a different culture*. That could mean a different language; that could mean a completely different medical system; that could mean a completely different concept of what healthcare is… how it's offered and how it's provided. See, usability and user-experience design are very much bound into that. Accessibility also is bound into that in terms of… that's a culturally pinned concept. What constitutes accessibility? And what guidelines dictating accessibility are based upon the culture in which one finds oneself? And so that makes it really interesting. How do you design for accessibility? That depends upon how that concept is conceived of in the culture with which you're interacting.

What would you say are particular accomplishments of international professional communication practice, research, and/or pedagogy in your region of the world or elsewhere?

I'd say, in my region in particular, North America, the United States, I think one of the major contributions we've made, in relation to international technical communication, is online education… and doing some very pioneering work in those areas. Not just exploring different technologies and how they might be used to deliver education across wide distances, but also pedagogical models—integrate the use of a technology with a pedagogical approach that makes it workable and successful to students in very different regions. And I think that's important from an international perspective, because it provides a foundation from which you can begin to expand those ideas, those models of education, globally. The catch, however, is not to extend a culturally based model from your culture onto another through an online media. And so I think that is going to be one of the most exciting points right now is… how do you globalize online education? How do you globalize these pedagogical models? I think one thing that technical communication as a field has been very successful in is pedagogy first, technology second… is very much been the approach our field has taken to it… versus "Here's a technology. Now let's custom fit a pedagogy into it." So, I think that's a great contribution we've made, and I think that approach of pedagogy first, technology second will be… will help us, I think, work more effectively with international partners to develop a more effective scheme or approach to collaborating globally in educational contexts.

What would you say are some challenges of international professional communication practice, research, and/or pedagogy in your region of the world or elsewhere?

I think the greatest challenge in the United States, but also globally, has to due with access. And by access I kind of mean three different things with three interrelated parts. The first is, particularly in the United States, there's a default assumption that the access we have to online media is universal… and unfortunately that's not the case. Different regions of the world… different nations… have very different levels of online access to begin with. In some cases, band… broadband is very easy to come by and others it's not, so how you use these media to access others internationally is something that really needs to be considered, because it affects everything from the design of an online text: Is it image intensive? Do you have streaming video? That will affect how accessible it is to individuals in other regions with slower connections… Access in terms of, well, how much text do you have to convey? How well does it display on the browsers of the screen the international audience is looking at… becomes an issue, also. And then, of course, there's the issue of language—the notion that to access somebody just because you can do so. Do they understand what you're trying to say? Do they accept your visual design? Do they accept your text—the rhetorical structure of your argumentation? How does that come across? So… that's kind of the first dynamic of access is… what do people have internationally, and how much do we think, do we think design—you mentioned usability earlier—rethinking global usability in terms of access… what folks have access to, what that degree of access is, and how that shapes the way in which we convey information to them.

I think a second component of access we need to consider is… just because we have it, doesn't mean we'll use it. And I think you see that is very much the case in terms of access through social media. There's a perception of "Well, there are 1.4 billion, I believe, users of Facebook worldwide, so if I want to contact the world through social media I'm just going to go to Facebook 'cause it's the global default." Well, not exactly… You know, first of all, there are restrictions to Facebook in parts of the world—China's a good example. And so the question becomes what other methods or technologies of access do we need to be aware of that are used by different cultural groups?… in the case of China, QQ, the instant messaging system… but also a fact of, well, let's say that a culture has access to the same technology, LinkedIn, the job search social media technology. Does that necessarily mean they'll use it?… and it turns out that for some cultures, Germany for example, there's a parallel version of the technology, XING, which is another social media job-search service that is much more widely used in German-speaking nations. So, it's a matter of understanding that access is a global perspective; it's a two-way street. And if you wish to use online media to access others… interact with them, you need to understand not only what they can access but what they do use… and what other options are available to them to be able to design materials to work across those different platforms… in different cultures.

And I guess this brings me to like a third concept of access, which is language. And in my… just my humble opinion, language is the single greatest restrictor of access globally—particularly for many Americans… monolingualism in English is no longer the default for most places. Yes, you could say that English is the language of the Internet for now… and could be for the foreseeable future, but that means that individuals who do speak English have access to what we have to say, as well as access to what people speaking and writing in other languages have to say as well. And so, therefore, a lack of understanding or use of other languages, particularly by many Americans, greatly restricts the access they have—not just to knowledge and information that's out there online—but the ability to participate in discussions. If I can't understand what someone is saying and I can't speak to them in the language of the exchange, I can't participate and I can't benefit from it. So I think… of those three dynamics I mentioned, I think that's the greatest hurdle for many Americans to have to overcome… is starting to learn more about different languages, to feel comfortable conveying and communicating in different languages. And then to interact globally through online media in those other languages… I think will be the key to success.

How do you see technology or changes in technology impacting, maintaining, or altering international professional communication practice, research, or pedagogy in your region of the world or elsewhere?

To go back to my previous comment, I think social media is going to be the… perhaps the single most significant… sort of body or family of technologies from a global context… for a couple of reasons. The first is we've become so accustomed to, with a lot of traditional Web 1.0, if you will, online media—it's one way… speak at you. Here is what I have to say, and you're a consumer of it. Social media greatly shifts that model to… it's speak with. We can have a conversation, we can discuss a concept or an item very quickly in real time and bring in many, many, many parties to interact and to do so… so… there's also a democratizing effect to it. And that is… because we have relatively uniformal access… uniform access to different social media, we can more effectively and evenly participate in many exchanges. So, I think for those reasons, social media will become a very important technology globally. Because of the speed of access, the directness of access, the ability to interact more as equal… and the ability to interact as partners. We can talk, speak back and for—excuse me—versus speaking at and waiting for delayed response. Now, there within the fact that social media restricts, in many cases, how much you can say at a given instance—the number of characters, the number of words—means we'll need to very re… carefully rethink how we interact, because that'll have some very profound effect on rhetorical structures in these online spaces… and so that I think is going to be a very interesting aspect for research for the future. How is social media being used on global scales? What kinds of new rhetorical structures are emerging that allow individuals to interact through social media in global contexts?… how will the dynamics of this technology shape that rhetorical facet, or will we… we decide as a group… that we want to create new technologies, new social media formats that will allow for greater, more extensive discussion? I think those will be sort of the… really important things to watch for the future—and how they affect the way in which we interact and exchange information on a global scale.

What kinds of international and intercultural experiences and skillsets has higher education taught students to help them transition to industry? And, in what ways could higher education do a better job of preparing the next generation of graduates for international professional communication?

I think, perhaps, the greatest skills that many of our programs teach our students are adaptability and the ability to work in teams… for any one of us who's worked in a different culture in a global environment, the notion that "I'm going to assume everything runs the same way that it does in my native culture"? We pretty much have realized it doesn't work that way—and you've got to be adaptable… to different cultural norms, to different legal norms, to different linguistic norms… to be able to, sort of on very short notice, shift what you have to do, to achieve a given objective and develop a given communication product. And I think the fact that so many of our curricula are designed to teach students to be adaptable in that way will be… perhaps one of the greatest benefits they can bring to the workforce—particularly the globalized workforce of the future. They can move into an environment and not say "Well, give me the set of instructions on how to perform." It's a question of "What do I need to do? What do I need to create? And how do I do it and adapt to achieve those objectives based upon this new environment?" At the same time, working in teams is so crucial in global contexts these days… many of our students will walk into production teams or product dev… project development teams… product development teams that are globally distributed… one member of the team works in one culture—another in a different culture. The student who just graduated is from another culture. The ability to work successfully in teams, to know how to ask questions, to adapt to different dynamics… I think is going to be crucial… personally I think the rise of globally distributed teams is going to be very, very prevalent over the next decade, and having students who are taught to be adaptable and to work in teams successfully—to have those skillsets—are what will really help them succeed and excel in the workplace of the future. And I think that's a universal. It's not just our students in the United States… but students worldwide. The more students learn to be adaptable and to work in teams, I think the more successful they'll be globally, just because the nature of the workplace now is shifting to more distributive models—particularly online-based globally distributive models…

You asked about what can we do to sort of enhance the skills that we provide our students with… I think there are four things we could do, or four areas to start moving into; we've done some already, but move in more—all connected to a central theme. And that's to provide students with more exposure to other cultures—particularly American students. And I think that can be done in a tiered structure or an interlocking structure. And I think the first component is to combine it with online education and provide our students with online educational experiences that has them interact with peers in other cultures. Part using online media to partner a class in our culture… in our nation with students in another nation… from another culture. And give them class projects to work on so they can begin to understand how factors of culture and language can affect interaction… and begin to learn through experience, through working together on teams. They expand their understanding of adaptability; they expand their understanding of how to work in teams based upon these experiences—this true exposure to other groups.

And, as follow-up, I think there's an incentive to push students to do more internationally outside of the class. Encouraging students to do more summer study abroad or regular semester study abroad; to live and work and communicate in different cultures, in different regions, in different nations; to give them that exposure to the everyday… in other cases the actual physical movement might be done. So, how about volunteer experiences or internship experiences? That if they're not onsite in another culture, maybe they can be online based, where the student works for a… an internship provider or for a volunteer… for a volunteer service provider in a different culture… in a different nation through online media. But, again, begins to get that exposure to "Here's what it's like to actually work with individuals from other cultures and other groups." To learn firsthand how to adapt what they have learned in their classes to this new environment…

A third factor—going back to something I said earlier—is language. I do think we need to push our students more to learn other languages as a part of their educational experience… I think it's got a threefold benefit to it. The first is the more students learn about other languages and how they work, the more effectively they can work with translators and localizers later on, because they've got a better understanding of language and things to keep in mind—or of expectations, rhetorical factors, and things to keep in mind when it comes to visuals or the structuring of information. And I think that can help them be successful employees—particularly in relation to translation and localization… the factor that they do learn another language also means they can participate in international exchanges. "I'm doing research. I need to ask a question." The question I ask and the answers I receive aren't going to be limited exclusively to the language I speak. I can draw from a much larger pool and get a much more comprehensive, informed answer based upon the kinds of responses I get through speaking across languages… and I think a third benefit is, once you learn to communicate in another language or learn about another language, you gain a much greater appreciation for the individuals with whom you work for whom English is not their native language—or for whom the language in which you're interacting or conducting business is not their native language. You begin to understand the challenges it creates, the restrictions it can impose, in terms of "You can't really say it in this language, so how do I convey that same concept in another one?" And I think, again, that helps them more… more effectively in globally distributed teams or contexts by understanding and appreciating what others who are communicating in a middle language or an intermediate language or bridge language have to do to exchange ideas and information.

A fourth part—in terms of getting back to how do we expand our current educational models… I would say we go to the user-experience design concept of personas and begin teaching students more about it in terms of "How do you take a persona and expand it to address global audiences?" So, in much of the… what I've seen in terms of what usability and user-experience design has taught… we do a very good job of teaching our students how to create personas for different domestic audiences, so the next step in the puzzle is… how do we get them to think and expand to… to global audiences? "I need to develop this information, these materials for an audience of users in 'Nation X' or 'Region Y' or 'Culture Z.' How do I develop personas to do that?" And I think that would be a very easy extension to make—much of the work we do right now in our edu… in our programs… in our educational systems is sort of moving that way…

So to sort of come full circle, it's providing students with this… this access to other cultures to get them thinking about other cultures through different dynamics that I think can really complement the adaptability and the ability to work in groups and teams that they have right now that will make them very successful in the global workforce of the future.

What has industry done well to help higher education teach international and intercultural experiences and skillsets, or to help their own employees develop such experiences and skillsets? And secondly, what else might industry do to help prepare the next generation of graduates for international professional communication?

To your first question, I think industry has done a very good job of expanding globally—developing new models, new methods, new approaches to connecting with the greater global environment… In some cases they're online approaches; in other cases, they're approaches to developing materials or products for individuals in other cultures, but I think the fact that industry has moved ahead of education quite rapidly into a much broader global context means that they've provided different approaches and models that we might not necessarily want to adopt, but at least consider and think about. What are the benefits? What are the limitations? How can we take the best that is out there and adapt it? How can we modify that which is not effective to what we're trying to do in education? So, I think those models that industry has provided for working globally can be something we can benefit from.

And this brings, I think, to the second part of your question—working together with industry… It would be a benefit to industry and academia to find out how to partner—to engage in different kinds of programs that allow students to have this sort of exposure to international contexts… excuse me… that would allow them to be very successful after graduation. These could be things like… working together to come up with internship programs that can be done either abroad or online, but allow the student to partner with the sub… the international subsidiary of a local company—or to work with… as an intern on local businesses engaged in global projects to begin to get that sort of understanding. And I think that this kind of collaboration… folks in industry and academia can come up with areas of research—topics of interest around global contexts that are of interest to both parties… that will allow both to work together to shape research questions and talk about things like study design; that can help guide research that is a benefit both to academia and of industry. Again, I think the key is partnering—not either-or but together. How do we work together to benefit from what we do effectively to learn about how to improve that which we don't do as effectively—but, most importantly, to provide our students with the best and richest possible experiences that will give them the knowledge and the skills base that will help them succeed in life after graduation?

Are there any final thoughts that you would like to share with the viewers?

I just want to say thank you folks for this opportunity… and for the chance to do this. I think it's a great project that you're working on, and I look forward to other interviews by other folks in the future. Thank you, again. ■

connexions • international professional communication journal
Department of Communication, Liberal Arts, Social Sciences, New Mexico Tech
Department of Writing, University of Central Arkansas
ISSN 2325-6044