Competences in Translation and Interpreting

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Abstract. This paper examines competences in translation and interpreting that students have to acquire in University studies and need for translator’s or interpreter’s jobs in the European Union (EU) institutions. The research is based on the analysis of responses obtained independently by two questioners. The survey was designed in accordance with the European Master’s in Translation document. It was created to define the basic competences essential for translators working in various translation agencies. Two samples of responses, each of which contained opinions of 4 groups of respondents, were analyzed. The respondents in each sample were employers, lecturers, students and alumni. The data reveal respondents’ attitudes to acquisition of competences in translation and interpreting at tertiary level. It has been found that responses are well correlated within each sample: the Pearson’s coefficients vary between .663 and .913 at the levels of significance either 0.01 or 0.05, which corresponds to the probabilities 99 % or 95 %, respectively. It means that the respondents of all four groups agree that they have acquired the translation and interpreting skills necessary in their jobs. The comparison of the two sets of responses between different samples reveals that the only data for employers are comparable and might be extended beyond the studied sample, while the data for other groups of respondents are not mutually consistent. It means that employers are satisfied with translation and interpreting skills that their employees have acquired at Vilnius University. As there is no agreement between other groups of respondents on the issues of acquisition of translation and interpreting skills, this part of research needs further exploration.

Key words: professional competences, attitudes to competence acquisition, translation & interpreting.

Introduction

The issue of professional competences is important in the countries which are recent members of the European Union and which have to harmonize their laws with the EU legislature. The need to equip young people with key competences and to improve educational levels is an integral part of the European Union training systems. Rapid technological headway, the globalisation of communication and historical changes in Europe pushed multilingualism to the forefront of international debate and the global market. In the new environment, the need for highly skilled translators increased at rapid pace. Universities have been challenged by the new competence requirements. It implies that higher education should be future-oriented and tailored to the needs of workplaces. Translation and interpreting studies are meant to develop students’ professional competences to a level that equips them to their future work, forms a basis for lifelong learning and helps update professional competences throughout training practice.

The object of the current research is attitudes of different groups of respondents to the acquisition of professional competences that students learn at Vilnius University and that translators and interpreters need at work.

This paper analyses professional skills and competences that students acquire at the Department of Translation and Interpreting Studies, Vilnius University, and need while working as translators and interpreters. First, the differences between skills and competences will be defined and the competences necessary for translators/interpreters will be outlined. Second, the attitudes to acquisition of competences by different groups of respondents will be presented. Finally, the statistical analysis of the responses will be described as a means of determining if the findings might be extended beyond the concrete two samples of this research.

The aims of the research: to investigate the attitudes of four groups of respondents to acquisition of the translation and interpreting competences.

The participants of the survey are employers of the EU institutions, alumni, lecturers and students of Vilnius University.

The research methods used: a survey of competences designed in accordance with the European Master’s in Translation (EMT) project by the European Commission in 2007.

The novelty of this study is based on empirical research in the sphere of translation/interpreting competences.

Terminology Background

The competences and skills are defined by the EMT group (European Commission, 2009) and selected in the European Framework (European Parliament, Council, 2008).

Skill is a learnt capacity to carry out pre-determined results often with the minimum outlay of time, energy, or both; the ability to apply knowledge and use know-how to complete tasks and solve problems.

Competence is a general ability to perform a specific task, action or function successfully on the grounds of the existing knowledge, skills and attitude system; a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the context; the proven ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/ or methodological abilities, in work or study situations and in professional and personal development. In the context of the European Qualifications Framework
Key competences are competences that all individuals need for personal fulfilment and development, active citizenship, social inclusion and employment.

Professional competence is capability to perform the duties of one's profession generally, or to perform a particular professional task, with skill of an acceptable quality. Kasper (1997) argues that competence cannot be taught, but students should be provided with opportunities to develop their pragmatic competence. According to Edwards & Csizer (2004), competence is a type of knowledge that learners possess, develop, acquire, use or lose.

The US Documents

Classification of Competences

There are many classifications of skills and competences, both general and specific. Transferable competences are gained during studies and throughout all the working experience and might be different from professional competences in their universal character, such as planning and managing one’s personal time or managing the tools needed for the performance of the task. However, transferable and professional competences may overlap in many cases. It should be noted that there is also no clear distinction between skills and competences. In the relevant literature both notions are used and they are not differentiated.

Key Competences for EU Citizens defined in the European Reference Framework

Key competences are the ones that all individuals need for personal fulfilment and development, active citizenship, social inclusion and employment. The European Reference Framework (European Commission, Recommendation, 2006) set out eight key competences: 1) Communication in the mother tongue; 2) Communication in foreign languages; 3) Mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology; 4) Digital competence; 5) Learning to learn; 6) Social and civic competences; 7) Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship; 8) Cultural awareness and expression.

Communication in the mother tongue (1) and communication in foreign languages (2) are probably the most important competences in interpreters’/translators’ work. They are interrelated with the language competence. The skills that translators and interpreters need include not only knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, but also knowledge of societal and cultural aspects of native and foreign languages, and the ability to understand and produce oral or written texts.

Mathematical competence (3) is less important in the work of interpreters/translators. The EMT expert group does not define it, therefore it will not be included in the analysis here.

Digital competence (4) is known as technological competence or mastery of tools: knowing how to use IT effectively and rapidly and to integrate a range of software to assist in correction, translation, terminology. Translators and interpreters need the skills to use computers to retrieve, assess, store, produce, present and exchange information and to communicate and participate in collaborative networks via the Internet.

Learning to learn competence (5) may be associated with the thematic competence, defined by the EMT experts’ group (European Commission, Translation, 2007) as learning to develop one's knowledge in specialist fields and applications. This competence is necessary in translators’/interpreters’ profession as they must often find and understand new information within short time. Moreover, as it is inseparable from lifelong learning (European Commission, Key Competences for Lifelong Learning, 2006), it is very important to know how to learn.

Social and civic competences (6) deal with multicultural issues: together with texts or discourses translators/interpreters have to translate/interpret cultural aspects. Translators/interpreters need such skills as ability to communicate constructively in different environments and to create confidence, to show tolerance, express and understand different viewpoints, to negotiate, be able to cope with stress and frustration, know how to work in a team and to collaborate either directly or via the Internet. Civic competence includes knowledge of contemporary events, the main events and trends, an awareness of the aims, values and policies of social and political movements.

Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship (7) is partly connected with the translation service provision competence. It involves finding appropriate solutions, monitoring quality standards, complying with professional ethics, also the ability to judge and identify one's strengths and weaknesses, and to assess and take risks as well as motivation and determination to meet objectives.

Cultural awareness and expression (8) is called intercultural competence. It includes knowing how to recognise function and meaning in language variations, how to identify the rules for interaction relating to a specific community, including non-verbal elements, how to recognise and identify elements, values and references proper to the cultures represented, how to bring together and compare cultural elements and methods of composition.

Key Competences for Translators: Competences Defined by the EMT Expert Group

Translators need a range of competences to compete successfully for translation jobs in the EU institutions and to work in the rapidly evolving field of multilingual and multimedia communication. For this purpose the European Master’s in Translation (EMT) project (European Commission, Translation, 2007) was created to define the basic competences necessary for translators working in the EU institutions.

The European Master's in Translation project was born in a period of dramatic changes for the translator's profession: rapidly growing need for high-level linguistic services, enhanced by such factors as globalisation, technological progress and demographic movements, and dramatic increase in the number of official EU languages from 11 to 23 between 2004 and 2007, which brought to light the short supply of qualified professionals in some languages and language combinations. In this context, the European
Commission’s (EC) Directorate-General for Translation (DGT) developed the EMT project as an initiative to stimulate the increase of quality and availability of translators in the market throughout the European Union. This is achieved by encouraging Master’s programmes in translation from European universities to implement commonly accepted and market-oriented professional standards. The EMT expert group was set up by the DGT in April 2007. Its main task is to make specific proposals with a view to implementing a European Reference Framework for a Master’s in translation throughout the European Union (European Commission, Translation, 2007). The EMT project aims to help raise the standard of translator training in the EU and foster cooperation and exchanges between higher-education institutions offering translation courses.

The EMT translator competence profile describes in detail the competences translators need to compete successfully for translation jobs in the EU institutions and to work in the rapidly evolving field of multilingual and multimedia communication.

There is lack of empirical research into translation and interpreting competences and their processes of acquisition. Orozco & Albiz (2009) reviewed this issue and revealed that the obtained results cannot be generalized because the sizes of the samples are too small and do not represent the target population. In recent years the concept of translation competence has steadily gained acceptance up to the point where it had to be discussed in relation to translator training (Montalt Ressurrecció, Ezpeleta Piorno, & García Izquierdo, 2008). The acquisition of translation competence is a gradual process that is strongly influenced by the degree of complexity of the texts/genres the translator is working with. Therefore, the greater the complexity of the text is, the higher the level of competence required of the translator will be.

**Translation Service Provision Competence**

It includes (European Commission, Education & Training, 2009): 1) Interpersonal dimension, 2) Production dimension, 3) Language competence, 4) Intercultural competence, 5) Information mining competence, 6) Thematic competence, and 7) Technological competence.

**Respondents and Research Methods**

The attitudes to the acquisition of translation & interpreting competences by four groups of respondents have been identified. The questionnaire (Appendix) was designed in accordance with the competences defined by EMT Expert Group and was administered to: 1) students studying at the Department of Translation and Interpreting Studies, Vilnius University, 2) alumni, working as translators and interpreters at various translation offices and other enterprises in Lithuania and abroad, 3) lecturers, working at the Department of Translation and Interpreting Studies, and 4) employers of translators/interpreters both in Lithuania and the EU institutions.

There were 2 samples of the responses that were collected by two independent questioners. The respondents were not the same people. However, it should be emphasized that there were more female than male respondents in both samples in proportion of 3 to 1. The students were in their 20s, while the age of other respondents varied between 30 and 51. However, no significant difference in responses depending on the age has been noticed. The number of respondents in one sample was as follows: 26 students, 21 alumni, 7 lecturers and 7 employers, while in another sample there were 20 students, 19 alumni, 10 lecturers and 10 employers.

The questionnaire consists of 10 statements, to which respondents had to select the answer on a 5-point Likert’s scale ranging from 1 (completely disagree) to 5 (completely agree). The respondents were either males or females aged from 22 to over 51. The responses were processed statistically by employing the Software Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

**Statistical Approach**

Gathering and compiling data has been just part of research, which was followed by statistical data processing by using the Software Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The scale internal consistency of questionnaires is a characteristic that describes their reliability. To evaluate it, Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient has been computed. It is based on correlation of questionnaire items. If there is no correlation between separate questionnaire statements, Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient is close to zero. If Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient is close to 1, the items correlate. For a well written questionnaire Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient must be greater than 0.7 (Dornyei, 2003). The statements with small coefficients, less than 0.1-0.2, must be eliminated as unreliable.

In researching the competences, the rank-ordered scale with responses ranked in accordance with the Likert’s scale has been applied. The second step in correlational analysis is to compute correlation coefficients, which are usually denoted rho in statistics. To analyze the degree of relationship between two sets of numbers in rank-ordered scales, either Pearson’s or Spearman’s correlation coefficients are appropriate (Brown & Rodgers, 2002). In practice the two coefficients can yield very similar results. However it is essential to determine which of two is the more appropriate indicator of the relationship between two variables. The Pearson’s coefficient can be used assuming that the relationship between the two variables is linear and data are normally distributed, while the Spearman’s coefficient does not require normal distribution (Bachman, 2005). The normality of distribution is easily checked by computing a Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test.

The correlation coefficients can range between a negative one (-1.00) and a positive one (+1.00). Positive coefficients indicate direct relationships, while negative coefficients indicate inverse relationships. The larger the coefficient, positive or negative, the stronger the relationship, so that a correlation that is close to 1.00, either positive or negative, indicates a very strong relationship, while coefficients that are near zero indicate very weak relationships (Bachman, 2005).
Moreover, statistical significance $\text{Sig } p$ of correlation coefficients is important for the interpretation of the relationship between two samples. An appropriate value of $\text{Sig } p$ is at least 0.05, i.e. the probability is 95 %, which means that the relationship is not likely to be due to chance. Larger than 0.05 values of the significance level, even if there is a correlation coefficient close to +1.00 or -1.00, mean that the probability of the significant relationship between two items is smaller than 95 %. In other words, a correlation that is not statistically significant is a chance findings and therefore meaningless.

Once statistical significance $\text{Sig } p$ has been established, the meaningfulness of the correlation coefficient is dependent on its magnitude. For instance, a coefficient rho of 0.913 is higher than one of 0.679.

Alternatively, a Coefficient of Determination (CoD) may be calculated by squaring the correlation coefficient $\rho$ (Brown & Rodgers, 2002). CoD shows the proportion of shared variance between two sets of numbers used to compute the correlation coefficients. For example, a $\rho$ of 0.71 squared would be 0.50, which indicates that proportion of shared variance is 50 %. It means there is 50 % overlapping between two sets of data.

**Results and Discussion**

Respondents’ negative responses (completely disagree and disagree) and positive responses (agree, completely agree) have been added up in order to simplify the display of the data in Charts.

Chart 1 and Chart 2 display the frequencies of positive responses in percentage on Y axis and the questions of the survey on X axis. The questions are given in Appendix and reproduced below to simplify the comprehension of information. Chart 1 presents the data from the 1$^{\text{st}}$ sample, and Chart 2 — from the 2$^{\text{nd}}$ sample. The 1$^{\text{st}}$ bars in both Charts show the employers’ responses, the 2$^{\text{nd}}$ bars — lecturers’, the 3$^{\text{rd}}$ bars — students’, and the 4$^{\text{th}}$ bars — alumni.

The statements of the questionnaire:

Respondents are:

1. Aware of grammatical, lexical and idiomatic structures in working languages.
2. Able to express and interpret thoughts and concepts while translating/ interpreting.
3. Able to think logically in order to solve a range of problems in translation/ interpreting.
4. Able to think logically in order to solve a range of problems in translation/ interpreting.
5. Able to search for appropriate information and develop ones knowledge in specialist fields.
6. Able to communicate constructively in different national environments.
7. Have good oral/ written communication skills.
8. Able to extract and summarise the essential information in a document.
9. Have knowledge of subject areas and relevant terminology.
10. Able to translate/ interpret texts using the necessary register and other language conventions.
Table 1. Pearson’s Correlation Coefficients \( \rho \), Sig \( p \) & Probabilities P, Coefficients of Determination (columns 2, 3 and 4 – computation results for the first sample (data collected by Irena Vankevič), columns 5, 6 and 7 – computation results for the second sample (data collected by Konstancija Zubrickaitė)).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pairs of respondents</th>
<th>Pearson’s rho</th>
<th>Sig ( p ), P, %</th>
<th>Coefficient of Determination, %</th>
<th>Pearson’s rho</th>
<th>Sig ( p ), P, %</th>
<th>Coefficient of Determination, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employers vs. Lecturers</td>
<td>.824**</td>
<td>.003 99</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>.913**</td>
<td>.000 99</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employers vs. Students</td>
<td>.663*</td>
<td>.036 95</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>.827**</td>
<td>.003 99</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employers vs. Alumni</td>
<td>.679*</td>
<td>.031 95</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>.686*</td>
<td>.028 95</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers vs. Students</td>
<td>.776**</td>
<td>.008 99</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>.801**</td>
<td>.005 99</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers vs. Alumni</td>
<td>.913**</td>
<td>.000 99</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>.813**</td>
<td>.004 99</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alumni vs. Students</td>
<td>.674*</td>
<td>.033 95</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>.870**</td>
<td>.001 99</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at Sig \( p \) 0.01 (2-tailed), ** Correlation is significant at Sig \( p \) 0.05 (2-tailed).

First of all, in order to find out how reliable the items of a questionnaire are, Cronbach’s Alpha coefficients have been computed. The data in the first sample are characterized by the Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient equal to .924, and for the second sample it is equal to .945. According to Bachman & Kunnan (2005), data are considered reliable if Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient exceeds .70. Therefore, it may be concluded that obtained results are reliable.

Normality of distributions has been tested by employing the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. The computations have confirmed that the responses in all groups are normally distributed. For normally distributed samples computation of the Pearson’s correlation coefficients is appropriate (Bachman, 2005).

The Pearson’s correlation coefficients (usually denoted \( \rho \)) have been computed for different pairs of respondents’ groups. Table 1 presents a list of respondents’ pairs in the 1st column. Computation data for the first sample are given in columns 2, 3 and 4, and for the second sample — in columns 5, 6 and 7. Pearson’s correlation coefficients \( \rho \) are shown in the 2nd and 5th columns, the levels of significance Sig \( p \) and the probabilities P — in the 3rd and 6th columns, the Coefficients of Determination — in the 4th and 7th columns.

It may be seen from Table 1 that within each sample there are good linear correlations between the responses of different pairs of respondents’ groups at the significance levels \( p \) either 0.01 or 0.05, which correspond to the probabilities 99 % and 95 %, respectively. As it has been mentioned before, coefficients of determination, which are displayed in columns 4 and 7, indicate the proportion of shared variance, or, in other words, demonstrate the overlapping of two sets of data. The range of estimated overlapping is between the lowest value of 44 % for Employers vs. Students group and the largest value of 83 % for Employers vs. Lecturers group. Overall it means that the statistical treatment of responses shows that within each sample the findings are internally consistent and may be extended beyond the studied samples.

It has also been of interest to determine if the responses between the two samples are mutually consistent for the same occupation of respondents. For this purpose, responses of each occupation group were processed statistically to compare if there are any correlations between them. Four Charts below — 3, 4, 5, and 6 — show the frequencies of positive responses for each occupation group, i.e. employers, lecturers, students and alumni, respectively.

Chart 3 shows the frequencies of positive responses by Employers on Y axis for the statements of the questionnaire which are marked by numbers from 1 to 10 on X axis. The white bars display the data from the first sample and the grey bars — from the second sample. Pearson’s correlation coefficient \( \rho \) for this set of numbers is equal to -.629 and Sig \( p \) (2-tailed) .051, and the coefficient of determination is 39.6 %. Thus, these results are mutually consistent.
two sets of data (3%) is also too small and makes the relationship insignificant.

Chart 4. Frequencies of Lecturers’ Positive Responses (data from the first sample are shown by (white) bars, data from the second sample — by upper (grey) bars).

Chart 4 shows the frequencies of positive responses by Lecturers. The 1st bars display the data from the first sample and the 2nd bars — from the second sample. Pearson’s correlation coefficient rho for this set of numbers is equal to -.389 and Sig p (2-tailed) .267, and the coefficient of determination is 15%. The interpretation of these findings is unfavorable, i.e. the level of significance fits the probability of 73%, which is not acceptable in Social Sciences. The overlapping of two sets of data (15%) is also too small and makes the relationship insignificant.

Chart 5. Frequencies of Students’ Positive Responses (data from the first sample are shown by the 1st bars, data from the second sample — by the 2nd bars).

Chart 5 shows the frequencies of positive responses by Students. Similarly as in previous two charts, the 1st bars display the data from the first sample and the 2nd bars — from the second sample. Computed Pearson’s correlation coefficient rho for this set of numbers is equal to -.059 and Sig p (2-tailed) .871, and the coefficient of determination is 3%. Although the data here do not seem similar to shown in Charts 4 and 5, the correlations between the responses are unsatisfactory, i.e. the level of significance fits the probability of just 13%, which is unacceptable in Social Sciences. The overlapping of two sets of data (3%) is also too small and the relationship is incompatible.

Thus, it can be concluded that the responses of employers in both samples are mutually consistent (Chart 3). The computation data for other respondents, i.e. lecturers, students and alumni (Chart 4, 5 and 6), indicate that there are no significant relationships between two samples. The issue why there are no distinct correlations between the two samples in the latter cases remains unclear and further research is needed to clarify it.

Conclusions

The following conclusions have been drawn. First, in accordance with the findings shown in Table 1, for each set of responses in both samples there are good linear correlations between the responses of different pairs of respondents’ groups at the significance levels p either 0.01 or 0.05, which correspond to the probabilities 99% or 95%, respectively. The coefficients of determination in Table 1 indicate the proportion of shared variance, i.e. demonstrate the overlapping of two sets of data. The range of estimated overlapping is between the lowest value of 44% for Employers vs. Students group and the largest value of 83% for Employers vs. Lecturers group. It means that the statistical treatment of responses within each sample shows that the findings are internally consistent and may be extended beyond the studied samples. In other words, the respondents of all four groups agree that they have acquired the translation and interpreting skills necessary in their jobs. Second, the comparison of the two

Chart 6. Frequencies of Alumni’s Positive Responses (data from the first sample are shown by the 1st bars, data from the second sample — by the 2nd bars).

Chart 6 shows the frequencies of positive responses by Alumni. Similarly as in previous three charts, the 1st bars display the data from the first sample and the 2nd bars — from the second sample. Computed Pearson’s correlation coefficient rho for this set of numbers is equal to -.059 and Sig p (2-tailed) .871, and the coefficient of determination is 3%. Although the data here do not seem similar to shown in Charts 4 and 5, the correlations between the responses are unsatisfactory, i.e. the level of significance fits the probability of just 13%, which is unacceptable in Social Sciences. The overlapping of two sets of data (3%) is also too small and the relationship is incompatible.
sets of responses between different samples reveals that the only data for Employers are comparable and might be extended beyond the studied sample, while the data for other groups of respondents are not mutually consistent. It means that employers are satisfied with translation and interpreting skills that their employees have acquired at Vilnius University. However there is no agreement between other groups of respondents on the issues of acquisition of translation skills. This part of research needs further exploration.

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References


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APPENDIX

Questionnaire on Translators' Competences.

Respondents are:

1. 
A. Aware of grammatical, lexical and idiomatic structures in working languages.
   Completely disagree (1) disagree (2) not sure (3) agree (4) completely agree (5)

2. 
B. Able to express and interpret thoughts and concepts while translating/interpreting.
   Completely disagree (1) disagree (2) not sure (3) agree (4) completely agree (5)

3. 
C. Able to think logically in order to solve a range of problems in translation/interpreting.
   Completely disagree (1) disagree (2) not sure (3) agree (4) completely agree (5)

4. 
B. Able to express and interpret thoughts and concepts while translating/interpreting.
   Completely disagree (1) disagree (2) not sure (3) agree (4) completely agree (5)

5. 
A. Able to search for appropriate information and develop ones knowledge in specialist fields.
   Completely disagree (1) disagree (2) not sure (3) agree (4) completely agree (5)

6. 
B. Able to communicate constructively in different national environments.
   Completely disagree (1) disagree (2) not sure (3) agree (4) completely agree (5)

7. 
C. Have good oral/ written communication skills.
   Completely disagree (1) disagree (2) not sure (3) agree (4) completely agree (5)

8. 
A. Able to extract and summarize the essential information in a document.
   Completely disagree (1) disagree (2) not sure (3) agree (4) completely agree (5)

9. 
C. Have knowledge of subject areas and relevant terminology.
   Completely disagree (1) disagree (2) not sure (3) agree (4) completely agree (5)

10. 
A. Able to translate/ interpret texts using the necessary register and other language conventions.
    Completely disagree (1) disagree (2) not sure (3) agree (4) completely agree (5)