

Towards Establishing a New Paradigm to Enhance Students' Translational Competencies through Telecollaboration

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ABSTRACT

Scholars have proposed various typologies of crowdsourcing that may solve the problems of translation and the wisdom or creativity of the crowd. In this regard, the term 'crowd' is jointly used with other terms to categorize the special task, the crowd is characterized with i.e. students of translation in this case such as crowdcontent, crowdopinion and crowdcasting. In a similar vein, the whole learning process of translation meets the didactic criteria as it has a clearly defined learner, a definitely stated goal, an evidently recognized crowdsourcer or initiator of the crowdsourcing activity (being the teacher here), and an assuredly some type of recompense for the participants. This paper attempts to answer many questions such as: what is telecollaboration in translation? To which extent may it constitute an added value in corroborating students' translation competencies? How does the translational crowdsourcing via computer conferencing operate? And what are the subtleties of such a practice?

Keywords: Competence; Computer conferencing; Crowdsourcing; Telecollaboration; Translation; Translational competence.

Introduction

1. Introduction

Greater access to the latest Information and Communication Technology (ICT) tools (Crook, 2008) has made contemporary students feel comfortable with technology (Jones, 2011). Since ICTs are seen as an apparent alternative for teachers to use in order to facilitate instruction and foster arrangement of student competencies (a basic ability to do something), it is clear how research in Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC) can be used even less implicitly. An example of this is a relatively under-research area of computer-assisted education which is the implementation of ICT to enable students who miss lessons because of health condition, for instance, to join their classmates and continue education despite their physical absence from the classroom.

A tool that can be utilized for that purpose is *Skype*, the video conferencing software that has won over a very large group of users on an international scale. Microsoft is proud to have 300 users worldwide (Guardian, 2013), whereas 250 million people use Skype for voice or video calls every month (Murph, 2012). Indeed, the software has been put into use in educational contexts (Branzburg, 2007; Waters, 2009), where it has served for telecollaboration (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006; Smethurst, 2009; Jones & Yamauchi, 2013), small group instruction or one-to-one tuition (Kozar, 2013).

Skype's merit derives from its versatility. It can be used in several ways: for communication between individuals, groups and with an individual who collaborates with a group. It also permits audio/video communication, along with text-based instant messaging through a chat function. Furthermore, it grants up to six users to simultaneously take part in audio-only conference call sessions. Skype communication is enhanced by file-sharing features functionalities, through which participants may interchange texts or graphic files, and screen-sharing options, which guarantee users to exhibit a chosen part of their screen, or the whole of it, on the computer of the co-communicator. The latter option is an

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expedient solution for sharing more dynamic contents, e.g. multimedia presentations (Eaton, 2010).

2. Research Rationale

Effective translators' education should meet the requirements of the present-day translation market, yet on the other hand, it must also conform to the current standards of education, in the broader sense. This means that the contemporary university translation courses are supposed to address two parameters; the technical environment (or professional) in which translators perform today and what students are likely to confront in present-day academic settings.

On the whole, the professional translation market and contemporary education settings undoubtedly share the common denominator of the implementation of digital technology. As a result, it seems natural to conclude that for the translator training to be effective in students preparedness for the job market, it has to comprise the technologies and modes of work that are most possibly to be required in their professional practices, namely: cloud computing, translation technologies and telecollaboration, respectively.

3. Research Significance

Translation is a tough row to hoe because translators face a can of worms in different fields; linguistics (vocabulary, grammar, meaning, style...etc), culture (archetypes, mindsets, lacunae...etc) and even psychology (anxiety, fear or panic). Although, this study, seeks to present a theoretical illustration on how teachers can practically use telecollaboration through crowdsourcing in translation, it scrutinizes the existing impediments that the learners always come upon, and thus making unsatisfactory translational circumstances turning into an authentic environment to share knowledge which would redound to the benefit of all the protagonists. For the researchers in the sphere of translation, the study will help them lay bare critical areas in translation education that many of them did not yet probe, and hence new insights and perceptions can be accredited.

4. Research Scope and Limitations

The scope of the study is telecollaboration where a model to adhere time of setting up a telecollaborative-crowdsourcing class of translation via computer conferencing is suggested. The pseudo-empirical aspect in this research has been made upon one of the researcher's teaching experiences with his students. It will confine itself in observing and analyzing the natural course telecollaboration that will occur, the inherent dilemmas the students meet and the solutions they telecollaboratively opt for. Further, neither purposive sampling nor specific data collection tools have been resorted to by the researcher, which may decrease the generalizability of findings.

5. Research Objective

The present study aims at shedding light upon the multiple facets of telecollaboration and the crucial role it plays in sustaining the different foreign languages learning situations and settings in general, and those related to translation in particular. Moreover, it explores the kernel of crowdsourcing in translation through computer conferencing and tries to establish this new paradigm for strengthening students' translation competence which operates systemically and is made out of various sub-competencies such as the translating competence, linguistic and textual competence, cultural competence, technical competence and research competence.

6. Research Questions

The research questions that the study undertakes are the following:

1. What is translation competence and what does it include?
2. How is telecollaboration related to translation from both theoretical and practical perspectives?
3. How can the translational crowdsourcing via computer conferencing occur? And what are its beneficial impacts on learners' competencies?

7. Literature Review

It has been noted that in foreign language classrooms, Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC) fortifies learning by stimulating students to actively participate in the tasks to be carried out (Tsukamoto, Nuspliger & Senzaki, 2009). It also increases the motivation of learners, while reducing anxiety (Young, 2003; Bueno Alastuey, 2011). The

CMC, which simply means a “communication that takes place between human beings via the instrumentality of computers” (Herring.S.C, **1996 p.13**). Additionally it represents an opportunity for students to engage in genuine communication with native speakers (Marczak, **2015**), so they can develop **aural-oral** language skills through a hands-on experience which can be particularly useful in environments where access to native speakers of the target language is limited. Xiao Mingli (2007) maintains that this communicative mode is more efficient than non-native student-student interaction in a face-to-face situation, at least when it comes to promoting the fluency and flow of the language to acquire. Besides, students in CMC projects are prone to focus more on the quality of language that they produce, which improves the resulting outputs. They resort to self-correction that translates into more effective negotiation of meaning and gains in pronunciation (Marczak, **2015**).

Lee (2004), Tsukamoto, Nuspliger & Senzaki (2009) and Bueno Alastuey (2011) point out that CMC offers learners a communicative practice that is, otherwise, tendentially quite artificial. Consequently, students involved in CMC may show a greater sense of responsibility for task accomplishment. For the authors, teachers who themselves have an opportunity in the course of telecollaboration projects may also take advantage of the purposefulness of CMC to practice, using the target language in an authentic setting, e.g. while communicating with the partner teachers at the planning stage.

Kern and Warschauer do testify the aforementioned facts when stressing that computers play multiple roles in language teaching, from “a tutor that delivers language drills or skill practice” and “a space in which to explore and creatively influence micro worlds” to “a medium of local and global communication and a source of authentic materials” (**2000 p.13**). In the same spirit, Li Li observed some classrooms to interpret and summarize the functions and roles technology can assume. It can act as:

- “A tool to create a context where language is used for real-life purposes or more interaction
- A meditational tool to better understand a linguistic term or concept
- An authentic resource
- A workspace for students to conduct learning or a platform that holds learning materials
- A tutor that provides feedback and gives instruction
- An effective tool to motivate and engage students
- An organizational tool” (**2017 pp.203-204**).

Despite the potential benefits of CMC on language learners, it should be borne in mind that its effectiveness may be limited in foreign language teaching due to the learners' limited proficiency in spoken English that may arise from large classes, teaching-oriented instruction, levels of language anxiety, lack of authenticity and lack of opportunities for a genuine communicative practice (Marczak, **2015**). Other issues, this time related to the CMC at large, can be caused by technical problems, e.g. unreliable connectivity to the network or audio deficiency; the non-attendance of the online partners or unsuccessful partner matching that may result in learners' reluctance or refusal to collaborate (Bueno Alastuey, **2011**). In spite of all of these limitations, CMC is undoubtedly a type of technology that is worth considering as a helping tool to ease the teaching of communication skills in foreign languages sphere.

8. Theoretical Foundation and Related Concepts

8.1. Translation Competence

The number of existing models of translation competence makes it impossible to discuss them all. However, the range of the types of competencies found in these models can be illustrated by probing into a model which is particularly relevant for the European translator education, proposed by the Directorate General for Translation (European Commission) in association with several European universities (The European Master's in Translation/EMT 2009). The model is an attempt to convergence of the translators' education programmes at the master level offered by the European universities within the ambit of the *Bologna process* which refers to “a series of ministerial meetings and agreements between European countries. The aim is to ensure comparability in the standards and quality of higher education qualifications” (O'Donoghue.T, **2017 p.61**) and that is expected to cover the most substantial skills to be

developed by translators. It is displayed through five main competencies circle, connected to the overall translation service provision which includes: language competence, intercultural competence, information competence, technological competence and thematic competence.

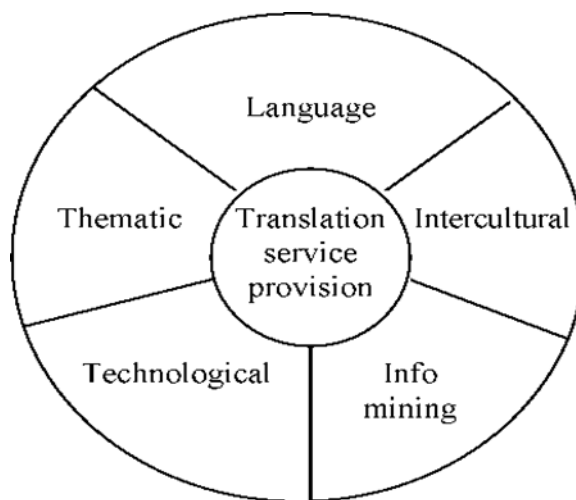


Figure1. EMT Model of Translator Competence (EMT, 2009)

In terms of EMT Competence Framework, the term ‘competence’ means “the ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/or methodological prowess, in work or study situations, and in professional and personal development” (EMT, 2017 p.3). Each of the major competencies mentioned above may be split into a set of relevant sub-competencies that determine knowledge that is supposed to be reflected in one's abilities. This implies:

Translation service provision competence is deemed to work at both the interpersonal and production levels. At the interpersonal level, it denotes the ability to negotiate, clarify, plan, comply with regulations, work under pressure, perform teamwork, and self-assess. At the production level, it designates the ability to define and evaluate translation problems, find appropriate solutions as well as justify the translation decisions (Marczak, 2016).

Language competence forms the core of the translation competence. This involves the knowledge of cultivating grammatical, lexical and idiomatic structures, in addition to the linguistic conventions to know how to use that knowledge both in the source and target language. Language competence also consists of the ability to develop sensitivity for language alterations which helps translators stay up to date with a given language as used by the native users’ community.

Intercultural competence is, to some extent, complementary to linguistic competence as it enables successful mediation between different languages and cultures through which translators are unavoidably engaged. The EMT translational model of competence outlines the intercultural competence from two perspectives: sociolinguistic and textual (Marczak, 2016).

At the sociolinguistic level, intercultural competence relates to the knowledge and skills that permit the translator to perceive the function and meaning of the utterances in the social, geographical, historical and stylistic variations of a tongue and identify the rules for interaction which would grant a successful communication, including the use of non-verbal communication channels in negotiations. This competence would in parallel permit the translator to produce linguistic achievements within an appropriate register in both spoken and written discourse (Marczak, 2016).

At the textual level, intercultural competence means the knowledge that makes it possible for the translator to grasp and analyze the general structure of a document and the coherence of multimedia documents as well. It also concerns the ability to read the implicature of a text in the light of presuppositions, allusions or stereotypes that are interwoven

within it. An interculturally competent translator will be able to recognize, describe and evaluate his/her comprehension handicaps, in such a way that, he/she will efficiently find the best adequate tactics to surpass them (EMT, 2009).

Thematic competence deals with the knowledge and skills that are prerequisites for the good performance of searching for information. In order to work efficiently, translator should find out adequate information relatively in no time, and to learn how to acquire knowledge in specialized fields associated with the source text (henceforth ST) subject. He has also to perform the search task per se and show the ability to examine and abridge the findings (Marczak, 2016).

Information mining competence covers knowledge and skills that broadly make it possible for the translators to pinpoint their own requirements, develop techniques which are vital in researching documents and terminology, extract and process information, set up standards for the evaluation of documents written in specific pairs of languages, use computerised/online tools, including terminology management software, corpora and e-dictionaries competently, and archive documents (EMT, 2009).

Technological competence stands for the know-how to use Computer-Aided Translation (CAT) tools and other computer software that can be implemented in correcting texts and conducting documentary research. During the translational process, the renderer needs the ability to conceive and manage databases containing term banks and glossaries, alongside with the potential of handling computer files in a wide variety of formats (Marczak, 2016).

8.2. Telecollaboration

Telecollaboration is viewed as a kind of collaborative learning enhanced by the implementation of Computer-Mediated Communication tools. Collaborative learning modes have been promoted as effective educational solutions since the 20th and 21st centuries by many scholars. Rogers (1983) views telecollaboration as a means of facilitating learners' behavioural and affective change, and Kolb (1984) underlines the reflection-enhanced experimentation and adaptation in learning (Krajka.J & Marczak.M, 2017 p.10). Besides, collaboration has been credited with the potential to develop learner autonomy and his sense of responsibility for learning, foster knowledge retention, and enrich the learning experience via the synergy effect (Krajka.J & Marczak.M, 2017).

As Belz puts it, "telecollaboration involves the use of Internet communication tools

by internationally dispersed students of language in institutionalized settings in order to promote the development of (a) foreign language linguistic competence and (b) intercultural competence" (2003 p.68). More specifically, Guth and Helm see telecollaboration as an "(...) Internet-based intercultural exchange between people of different cultural/national backgrounds, set up in an institutional context to develop both language skills and intercultural communicative competence (...) through structured tasks" (2010 p.14). For O'Down and Ritter, a telecollaborative work refers to the use of online communication tools to bring together language learners in different countries for the enhancement of collaborative project work and intercultural exchange. This type of network-based language learning covers a wide range of activities and exploits a variety of online communication tools, including email, web-based message boards, and video conferencing (Vettorel.P, 2015 p.181).

By the same token, Dooly (2008) explains that the aim of telecollaboration stands in "(...) providing problem-solving projects that will facilitate genuine interaction with students in which they share the learning process" (p.67). Others as Schultz (2003) and Jegede (2002) connect telecollaboration to the evolution of learners' higher-order skills and critical thinking skills, respectively (Marczak, 2016).

Telecollaboration may be performed in synchronous and asynchronous communication. The former represents an efficient communication in real-time. It enables the participants to instantly post messages to their partners, the same as an online chatroom (a web site, part of a web site, or part of an online service that provides a place to meet for communities of users with a common interest to communicate in actual time). The latter, however, grants communication that takes more time and is based on messages being exchanged with a delay, as in emails and online forums.

Both of synchronous and asynchronous communications require particular online tools. For a synchronous computer-mediated communication to be achieved, internet chats, audio- and video-conferencing, and Multiple Object-Oriented environments (MOOs) should be set up. Asynchronous communication, in turn, calls for information to be shared by online discussion boards, wikis, blogs or online word processors (Marczak, 2016).

In any telecollaborative task, students may take part in a huge variety of exercises. This may cover peer reviewing where students analyze and evaluate one another's writing (Carvin, 2007); the creation of personal portfolios (Higdon, 2005), whereby students collect and store in an organized fashion a set of multimedia resources/materials; the collaborative writing of a mini-dictionary or a glossary of specialist terms (Elia, 2009); the creation of annotated reading lists (Harmelen, 2007); collaborative editing (Franklin & van Harmelen, 2007); the creation of a virtual vocabulary notebook (Sharma & Barrett, 2007); the use of web quests (Dodge, 2000), where students perform extensive web searching, information gathering, information processing and the preparation of a final product and the running of e-journals (Zylinska, 2003), where learners upload their own multimedia resources for others to read and comment on (Marczak, 2016).

It is worth noting that many of the above-mentioned outputs intersect with the translators' job. In other words, one may name collaborative writing (writing draft translations (first version)), collaborative editing (writing or proofreading the final translations (ultimate versions)), the creation of a virtual vocabulary notebook (acquiring new words/terms and learning new concepts about them), and the use of webquests (doing documentary research especially when translating specialized texts).

8.3. Crowdsourcing and Its Typologies

Rabes (2019) affirms that crowdsourcing as a term is new in the field of science, yet its basic premise has pre-existed for long ago. One of the examples the author gives what the British government has resorted to by making an "open call to the public, asking for a new and easy method to determine the position of ships traveling the sea [...]" (p.22), and this dates back to 1714.

During the last decade, crowdsourcing has been emerging and developing in countless domains and practices alongside with the continuous growth of the Internet. It has been applied to a wide array of *collective intelligence* tasks, "from drafting the Icelandic constitution (Siddique 2011) to creating computer operating systems (Arjona Reina et al. 2013); from providing solutions to scientific problems with Innocentive, to identifying stars and galaxies with GalaxyZoo or even collaboratively translating its spin off website Zoouniverse (Michalak2015)" (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, 2017 p.12).

The term crowdsourcing is attributed to Jeff Howe, who "in the title of an article published in *Wired Magazine* in June 2006, which was entitled "The Rise of Crowdsourcing"" (Andro, 2018, Origin, definition and scope of crowdsourcing, para.1), coined this neologism by fusing *crowd* and *outsourcing*. He has defined it as "the act of a company or institution taking a function once performed by employees and outsourcing it to an undefined (and generally large) network of people in the form of an open call. This can take the form of peer-production (when the job is performed collaboratively), but is also often undertaken by sole individuals. The crucial prerequisite is the use of the open call format and the large network of potential laborers (Howe, 2006a)" (Thuan.N.H, 2018 p.16). Daren C. Brabham, for his part, gave another definition that focuses on problem solving and production models as being the outsets of crowdsourcing. He thinks it is "[A]n online, distributed problem-solving and production model that leverages the collective intelligence of online communities to serve specific organizational goals. Online communities, also known as the crowds, are given the opportunity to respond to crowdsourcing activities promoted by the organization, and they are motivated to respond for a variety of reasons (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, 2017).

To define crowdsourcing, authors refer to the multiple adjacent parameters this concept comprises. These elements are depicted in *Table.1*:

Table.1: Multicriteria definitions of crowdsourcing (Andro, 2018)

Who makes up the crowd?	Amateurs.
What does the crowd do?	It voluntarily and consciously accomplishes tasks and microtasks in order to solve problems.
What does the crowd get in return?	Distraction, pleasure, the development of skills, experiences, knowledge, the sharing of knowledge, the love of a community, economic compensation, social recognition or better self-esteem.
Who initiates it?	Public or private companies.
What type of process is involved?	A production process, an economic model, participative outsourcing of a task after a request that is open to everyone.
What medium is used?	The Internet.

Crowdsourcing is rigidly based on the participatory nature of the Web 2.0 and has been resorted to by companies, organizations, institutions or collectives to have recourse to the wisdom of the crowd, be it a large number of amateurs, experts, volunteers and professionals, fans or citizens, to perform any task. In so doing, the crowd is rewarded in several ways: either through intrinsic rewards such as recognition, satisfaction, entertainment, prestige, or via extrinsic awards such as money, prices, gifts, work experience or merchandise.

In their much-cited paper “*Towards an integrated crowd sourcing definition*”, Enrique Estellés-Arolas and Fernando González-Ladrón-de-Guevara propose one definition among the most widely used definitions with regard to crowdsourcing. For the protagonists, crowdsourcing is a process whereby an individual, an institution, a non-profit organization, or a company proposes to a group of individuals of varying knowledge, heterogeneity, and number, via a flexible open call, the voluntary undertaking of a task. The undertaking of the task, of variable complexity and modularity, and in which the crowd should take part in bringing their work, money, knowledge and/or experience, therefore it always entails mutual benefit. The user will receive the satisfaction of a given type of need, be it economic, social recognition, self-esteem, or the development of individual skills, while the crowdsourcer will obtain and utilize to their advantage what the user has brought to the venture, whose form will depend on the type of the undertaken activity (Estellés-Arolas.E. & González-Ladrón-de-Guevara.F, **2012a** pp.09-10).

More simply put, crowdsourcing according to them hinges upon some definite criteria which the translational telecollaborative-crowdsourcing process maybe compared to. These standards are:

1. There is a clearly defined crowd (= students/trainees of translation);
2. There is a task at hand with a definitely stated goal (= to render a text from SL to TL);
3. The participants receive some type of recompense (= to give students ‘bonus points’ or ‘extra credit’);
4. The crowdsourcer or initiator of the crowdsourcing activity is clearly identified in the open call (= the teacher of translation);
5. Participants are clearly aware of the compensation they obtained (= the crowdsourcer announces from the start that students who participate in the crowdsourcing are awarded ‘bonus points’ or ‘extra credit’ after each end of translation (this may occur in sessions).
6. The type of process is online based (= via computer conferencing)
7. There is a call to participate that is more or less open (= it depends on the learning outcomes/what the crowdsourcer intends to do)
8. The internet is the medium for participation (= the internet is the medium for participation).

Scholars have proposed several categorizations of crowdsourcing to elucidate the wide range of translation-related phenomena, thus exploiting any avenue in problem-solving ability, wisdom or creativity of the crowd. The two most broadly accepted and cited taxonomies have been presented by Brabham and Estellés and González; the leading scholars in the field study of crowdsourcing (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, **2017**).

8.3.1. Estellés and González Crowdsourcing Typology

This typology comprises five different subclasses that are as follows: crowdcasting, crowdcollaboration, crowdcontent, crowdfunding and crowdopinion (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, 2017).

1. Crowdcasting: this processing is to organize competitions for the crowd to solve a problem or complete a task. The first person to find the solution or do best will receive a prize. The cases in this subcategory are Threadless for t-shirt designs or Innocentive to clear up scientific problems (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, 2017; Estellés-Arolas.E. et al., 2015 p.4; Estellés-Arolas.E. & González-Ladrón-de-Guevara.F, 2012b p.286).

2. Crowdcollaboration: it is when individuals freely communicate with the crowd without the participation of the initiator. Crowdcollaboration is subdivided into two subtypes: *crowdstorming* and *crowdsupport*. The former designates the massive online brainstorming sessions by which the crowd can support ideas with their votes (e.g.: IdeaJam). The latter, crowdsupport, stands for the situations where customers themselves lend a helping hand to other customers with the problems that could crop up. Companies with this last type are not contacted for product support. Getsatisfaction, the user-based Apple or Adobe products forums are notable examples of crowdsupport (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, 2017; Estellés-Arolas.E. et al., 2015).

3. Crowdcontent: it occurs when the crowd employs labour and savoir faire to produce diverse types of content. It does not entail, in contrast with crowdcasting, competition among peers. This category is further subdivided into *crowdproduction*, *crowdsearching*, or *crowdanalyzing*. It is within this section that Estellés and González locate translation since being a sort of 'crowdproduction' wherein learners are behoved to generate content, i.e. a translation (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, 2017; Estellés-Arolas.E. et al., 2015).

4. Crowdfunding: in crowdfunding, people or organizations request funds in compensation for a reward. The best examples would be Kickstarter, Indiegogo or Gofundme. The non-profit-making organization Kiva can mainly be deemed a crowdfunding institution that uses both translation and crowdproduction to intermediate between those who apply for micro loans in the developing countries and the crowdfunders who help financing them (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, 2017; Estellés-Arolas.E. et al., 2015; Estellés-Arolas.E. & González-Ladrón-de-Guevara.F, 2012b).

5. Crowdopinion: this type aims at scrutinizing the opinions of the crowd about particular topics or products through polls, comments, tags and so forth. Currently, a huge number of websites solicit the crowd to vote and to opine. From books such Goodreads to companies with Yelp or even the Blue Board (at Proz.com) where translation and interpreting agencies

are rated by freelancers (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, 2017).

8.3.2. Brabham's Crowdsourcing Typology

The other frequently-cited typology is Daren. C. Brabham's one that segments crowdsourcing into the following subsets, based on the kind of problems being solved (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, 2017):

1. Knowledge discovery and management approach: it refers to cases in which organizations challenge the existing communities to discover knowledge, increasing the possibilities of organizations with limited capacities. The geolocation platform Ushahidi (developed to monitor ethnic violence in Kenya's 2007 elections and utilizing Google Maps to allow volunteers to geolocate the eye witness reports on voter rights' violence and violations) and Peer-to-Patent platform (created by the United States Patent and Trademark Office to open the examining process of patent applications for the community) are examples of this approach (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, 2017; Brabham.D.C, 2013 pp.44-48).

2. Broadcast search approach: it seeks to resolve a problem by finding a specialist in a given field to adapt the previous works and bring a relevant solution to it. Usually, the expertise of the participant is from outside the specific area of the problem, and this is mostly supposed to be a positive contribution as far as outsiders can often think up new and original ideas that experts cannot. The problems here are oftentimes science-based ones. Innocentive, Goldcorp Challenge and Defunct are salient examples of Broadcast search approach (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, 2017; Brabham.D, 2013).

3. Peer-vetted creative production approach: this has to do with the creation and design of products through an open call via a network of users. Afterwards, the proposals are voted to choose those preferred by the crowd. This process is associated with settings in which the taste, the market or the users' preferences are the biggest problem to solve. Threadless, Next

Stop Design, Doritos Crash and the Super Bowl Contest are illustrations of that (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, 2017; Brabham.D, 2013).

4. Distributed-human-intelligence tasking approach: it plans to handle any type of data by carving data problems up into small tasks that need human intelligence and cannot be processed by computers. Brabham claims that this type is less creative and less intellectually stimulating than the othertypes, therefore similar tasks are usually executed through paid crowdsourcing prototypes, e.g.: Amazon's Mechanical Turk and Subvert and Profit (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, 2017; Brabham.D, 2013).

Translation is deemed a case of distributed-human intelligence. It is worth mentioning that the new rise of 'paid translation crowdsourcing' is due to several translational tasks. According to Gambier, "[do not] generate the same enthusiasm" (Jiménez-Crespo. M. A, 2017) just like photography, film or journalism on the web. This may also be associated with the greatest motivation to volunteer in creative subtypes such as fansubs (short for *fan-subtitled*; a version of a foreign film or foreign television programme which has been translated by fans -as opposed to an officially licensed translation done by professionals- and subtitled into a language usually other than that of the original), or journalism and non-profit causes, likewise.

8.4. Computer Conferencing

The combination of telecommunication technologies and computer networks has provided new mechanisms to prop up teaching and learning. These tools can jointly be used for computer mediated communication (CMC) (Berge.Z.L, 1997). Santoro (1995) inventories three categories of CMC: computer conferencing, informatics and computer-assisted instruction (Berge.Z.L, 1997). Besides, he names three types within computer conferencing (CC): electronic mail (email), group conferencing systems, and interactive messaging systems (Berge.Z.L, 1997). Murray Turoff claims that the foremost purpose when to adopt computer conferencing in learning and teaching processes is "not merely to duplicate the characteristics and effectiveness of the face to face class. Rather, the powers of the computer can be used to actually do better than what normally occur in the face to face class" (1995 p.2).

In his "*Computer conferencing and the Humanities*", Andrew Feenberg has defined it with the best, clearest, simplest and straightforward manner as: a special kind of electronic mail system employed to facilitate group discussion over a computer network. The technology makes it possible to define private groups, usually no larger than 50, with access to a topically defined discussion forum. Participants type messages into their own computer terminal and then transmit the text over phone lines to a central computer where they are classified and stored. The central computer serves as a remote filing cabinet or bulletin board where all participants can see the latest additions to the discussion and respond (Feenberg.A, 1987 p.171).

The computer-based conferencing programmes may vary from simple email exploders e.g. Listserv; a list of names and e-mail addresses that a company or organization stores in the computer, so that they can send people e-mails containing information or advertisements to sophisticated Bulletin Board Systems (BBS) e.g. Usenet News or Newsgroups/Usenet; "a collection of user-submitted notes or messages on various subjects that are posted to servers on a worldwide network. Each subject collection of poster notes is known as a newsgroup" (Bidgoli.H, 2004 p.69), through Conference Management Systems (CMS) e.g. VAXNotes; a computer conferencing system designed to allow several users to share ideas and opinions, and to Group Decision Support Systems (GDSSs); an interactive, computer-implemented system that helps a team of decision-makers solve problems and make choices (Berge.Z.L, 1997).

All of the above-stated computer conferences' patterns share at least one of the following asynchronous and synchronous features (Berge.Z.L, 1997):

- a directory to identify participants and addresses in the system

- e-mail
- conferences for group discussions, with a permanent record of interactions
- private workspaces to collect ideas
- word processing for drafting or reviewing documents, perhaps by multiple users simultaneously
- bulletin boards for access to announcements
- newsletter or journal to reach articles or documents
- databases to obtain information, files and documents
- voting or polling to determine support for an issue.

9. Telecollaboration Benefits on Translation and Translational competencies

Although the historical individualistic nature of translation in Translation Studies literature, the presence of collaboration is “evident in all types of translation scenarios and across the whole process of translation, from authors, publishers, to translation agencies and to translators” (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, **2017**). According to O'Brien (2011), collaborative translation as such has broadly been viewed from two angles: in sensu stricto, it refers to “the actual collaboration between two or more translation agents to produce a single translation, the final product being the result of more than one subject” (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, **2017**). In this respect, technology has enabled both the expansion and the promotion of this type of collaboration, as with a crowd working on the same document in online crowdsourcing, or professional translators involved in an identical task using the cloud such as Google Docs or networked CAT tools. This also comprises collaboration between translators and reviewers which opens the door wider for revising a sole document by many agents (Jiménez-Crespo.M.A, **2017**). It should be pointed out that collaboration between translators is precisely the main focus of crowdsourcing and web-based collaborative translations.

Regarding its broadest sense, collaboration means the cooperation between “a number of translating and non-translating agents, one or more of which might not be a translator” (Jiménez- Crespo.M.A, **2017**). This is often the aspect from which various theories of translation have approached collaboration.

The utilization of telecollaboration in translation education accords with Kiraly's call “for shifting translation pedagogy from the still-pervading transmissionist, teacher-centred model of teaching towards the learner-centred, learner-empowering, collaborative model, which has been advocated as a solution for translator education by a number of other scholars” (Krajka.J & Marczak.M, **2017**). This derives from the many opportunities that collaborative model, in general, and telecollaboration, in particular, may offer to students and trainees of translation. Above all, it permits them “(...) reconcile theory and practice (...) and help students resolve both translational and social issues (...) (González-Davies, 2017, p.71), which are relevant to the contemporary professional setting, where translation is a social activity (O'Hagan, 2011), and where a demand for effective collaboration (Choudhury & McConnell, 2013) necessitates efficient telework and collaborative translation (DGT, 2016)” (Krajka.J & Marczak.M, **2017**).

According to Lankshear and Knobel, the multifaceted e-learning develops linguistic

and communication skills at large, including a range of operational, cultural, and critical literacies (Lankshear.C & Knobel.M, **2006**). Translators need operational literacy which is in large extent the procedural knowledge or the know-how (the accurate application of translation techniques, procedures and strategies), compared to the conceptual knowledge or the know-what (the in-depth grasping of translation approaches, models and theories). The former is imperative for using CMC tools, performing efficient internet-based research, sharing cognitive and instrumental resources, and carrying out multiple actions instantly

(Krajka.J & Marczak.M, **2017**).

Cultural literacy consists of declarative knowledge for the context-specific communication forms and rules. The umbrella term Netiquette (a shortened form of network etiquette) that is -just like etiquette is a code of polite behaviour in society- “an informal code of practice regulating the behaviour of Internet users when using e-mail, bulletin boards, chat rooms, newsgroups, etc.” (Strawbridge.M, **2006** p.2) embodies a set of overt and covert norms that govern the web-based communication and the ownership rights of digital contents. Critical literacy, for its part, is emotive by

nature and appertains to the familiarization with online communication subtletie, e.g. context-based and CMC tool-dependent power relations (Krajka.J & Marczak.M, 2017).

The list of literacies can be extended to cover the following: collaboration skills, critical consumption of information, learning, unlearning and relearning, which Davidson (2012) deems the 21st-century skills. Herk (2016) suggests a remarkably similar set of job-independent, transferrable skills as soft skills that increase a person's employability in the contemporary labour market (Krajka.J & Marczak.M, 2017).

Telecollaboration, accordingly, seems to present many affordances for the development of soft skills, whose numerous classifications have been proposed by academic and professional organizations and researchers, yet with a discernible common core. This seems to enrich the learning experiences and improve their outgrowths. Those skills are: communication skills, new media skills, teamwork, interpersonal skills, cultural awareness, flexibility, strategic planning, self-organization, creativity, analytical and critical thinking skills and leadership skills (Krajka.J & Marczak.M, 2017).

It is important to examine how far telecollaboration contributes in developing the skills that are the wide-ranging translational ones, which have been discussed earlier. The table below displays the extent to which translation service provision competence, language competence, intercultural competence, thematic competence, information mining competence and technological competence are furthered through the use of telecollaboration:

Table.2: Telecollaboration-generated Impacts on Translational Competencies

Translational competence	Telecollaboration-generated impacts
<i>service provision competence</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - it supplies students with the ability to negotiate, clarify, plan, comply, work under pressure, work with partners in a group and self-assess. - it permits them to determine and evaluate translation problems, find adequate solutions, and justify one's translation choices and decisions.
<i>language competence</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - it presents for students the possibility to inspect language sub systems (grammar, vocabulary, style and phonology), and look into the lingual conventions using samples of genuine communication.
<i>intercultural competence</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - it enables students to work within the ethnography of communication by analysing data from computer-mediated asynchronous communication tools (online blogs, forums or discussion groups...). This has large profits as it introduces them to the recently established research technique <i>netnography</i> which is “an adaptation of the qualitative methods utilized in consumer research [...], cultural anthropology [...], and cultural studies [...], with the aim of enabling a contextually-situated study of the consumer behaviour of virtual communities and cyberculture” (Kozinets.V.R, 1998 p.367). - it allows them recognising culture-specific items and identifying the thought patterns that frame the expressed messages (the meaning and function of utterances in different linguistic variations, the rules of interaction in speaking and writing settings...).
<i>thematic competence</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - it grants to students the information searching skills to be enhanced. - it opens the door wider to them for new issues, themes and ideas to be dealt with, and this within the so-called <i>long-life learning</i> scope.

Translational competence	Telecollaboration-generated impacts
information mining competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - it confers students to use a mixture of strategies while extracting and processing information (to summarize, paraphrase, synthesize...). - it gives them the opportunity to discuss particular problems with their classmates/peers (<i>language</i>: linguistic features expressed otherwise in the target language; <i>cultural</i>: differences related to conventions and/or norms and habits between the source and target cultures; <i>pragmatic</i>: differences between the text-external profile of the source and target situations; <i>text-specific</i>: features in the specific source-text that cannot be directly translated, e.g. neologisms or idiosyncratic terms) (Schjoldager. A.G, Gottlieb .H. & Klitgård .I, 2008 p.175). - it instructs them on how to use computerised-online translation tools and documents storage/exchange facilities (<i>Google Drive, One Drive or Dropbox</i>).
technological competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - it makes students accessing to online translation means and other necessary resources such as text correction facilities or documentary research tools (online mono- and bilingual corpora, e.g. <i>JRC-Acquis Multilingual Parallel Corpus</i>, or term bases, e.g. <i>InterActive Terminology for Europe (IATE)</i>). - it assists them exchanging with their classmates/peers information about the availability of translation software on the market, and defines and values tools according to their specific needs.

(Adapted from: Krajka.J & Marczak.M, **2017**)

10. Crowdsourcing in Translation: A Suggested Procedural Model

It is possible to use CMC through a local area network or over the internet. For the former, communication occurs within a closed setting; in the latter, however, communication might be global and trans-cultural. Besides, CMC can be conducted along two tracks: in real-time and called synchronous CMC (SCMC), and in the delay -for an overdue sent, received and answered message- and named asynchronous CMC (ACMC). For the present suggested model of crowdsourcing via computer conferencing, the researcher will adopt the electronic mail (e-mail) for being a commonly used and easy-to-manage communicating tool on the one side, and because the idea is to establish a special kind of electronic mail system employed to facilitate group discussion over a computer network on the other side. This will smooth the way for students to crowdsource translationally by accessing to a topically clear-cut translation forum. They type their messages according to the teacher's open call, which may range from translating, drafting translations to proofreading and editing final versions, on their own computer terminal and then transmit them to a central computer (or a "meeting place") which is the initiator's computer, where they are classified and stored. In this way, learners are not only getting rid of anxiety and boredom but also working collaboratively, yet competitively, to consolidate their translation competence and co-author the text in the target language, apart from its typology, be it scientific, literary, political or philosophical. What follows is a clear cut explanation of the stages that crowdsourcing in translation may include. For that purpose, some of Estellés and González' crowdsourcing terms are employed to provide a basis for a better understanding. Primarily, the teacher has to explain to students the general instructions of the task, as the nature of the assignments, what must be carried out in terms of performances, the final goals to be achieved and the type of recompense they will profit from.

1-The open call [posted from the teacher's computer]:

Hi everybody, hope this finds you well. Read carefully the following text and then translate it into Arabic. The text is divided up into two parts: the first starts from "Guess what" to "menu to me" and the second from "You may" to "any guilt". Comments should be written in English, except for translation. The first part is due to be submitted by March 25th, 2020 and the second by April 01st, 2020.

CANINE CUISINE

Guess what? I've eaten dog. And not only did I eat it, I ate it because I wanted to. I ate three courses of it. I enjoyed it. And I don't care what you think. I was in Seoul, South Korea, sent there to write some background articles before the start of the 2002 World Cup. International pressure on the Koreans to stop eating dog was not having any discernable effect. The Koreans were upset, understandably, at the hypocritical attitude of 'snail-eating, horsemeat-eating Westerners'. How, as an impartial journalist, could I write an informed piece on dog-eating? Obviously I had to try some.

My taxi driver nearly had an accident when I asked him to take me to the best dog restaurant in town. Westerners don't do that. The head waiter looked surprised too, but politely explained the menu to me.

You may not believe this, but at home I am largely vegetarian – though more from fear of 'scientific' farming methods than from ethics. So partly because of that, and partly because of memories of much-loved childhood pets, I braced myself with a couple of beers before the food arrived.

I started slowly. But then, with increasing enthusiasm, I tucked into my starter of poshintang, a wonderful doggy soup; followed by soo yuck, dog slices; and then jin-guk, dog casserole. Yum!

Neighbouring diners watched with interest as this Westerner appreciated their fine Korean delicacies! Whilst not a sight they will ever see again – too strong are my vegetarian sentiments – I must stress it was not an experience about which I feel any guilt.

2-Crowdcasting:

17 students responded to the call. They will be named here as *student A*, *student B*, *student C*...

3-Crowdopinion [from the teacher's computer]:

What is your first impression of the text?

- *Student A*: an amazing text, we have never translated a similar text so far!
- *Student B*: yes wonderful, but I think it is difficult to remake in Arabic!
- *Student C*: it would be a great experience of translation, yet a challenging one from linguistic and cultural perspectives.
- *Student F*: as I see, the only handicap in translating this text is the lexis...

[OTHER STUDENTS MAY OPINE]

4-Crowdcollaboration [the students communicate freely with each other without the participation of the teacher]:

4.1-Crowdstorming:

- *Student H*: the question and the reiterated word 'eat', 'ate' at the beginning of the text trouble me!!
- *Student G*: it is easy!! Write the question in Arabic, and conjugate the verb as the original one is conjugated.
- *Student K*: so did I.
- *Student C*: is the expression "snail-eating, horsemeat-eating Westerners" pejorative or ameliorative?
- *Student A*: I think pejorative as long as there is this 'hypocritical attitude' which precedes it.
- *Student L*: indeed, sort of insult!

[MORE CREATIVE IDEAS CAN BE GENERATED]**4.2-Crowdsupport:**

- *Student F*: what do 'background articles' and 'an informed piece' stand for??

- Student D: I have searched about the first and come up with the following: “a report on the relevant history and overview concerning a current event” (from <https://forum.wordreference.com/threads/background-article.1740814/>).

- Student F: and what about ‘an informed piece’?

- Student M: it seems to me that it has the same meaning as the first.

- Student F: and how to translate the 02 expressions then? وورقة عالمية بـ...؟؟

- Student M: I have translated them into: 'ورقة عارفة بأكل لحم الكلاب'

- Student C: hey xxxxx [calling his classmate by her name] what does ‘brace oneself’ refer to? Is it to invigorate, freshen, to fasten tightly, or to make stronger?

- Student A: no ‘—said to warn someone to be prepared for something

Brace yourself. I have some bad news’ (<https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/brace%20yourself>).

- Student C: thanks a lot, but what for its translation?

- Student A: استجمع قواه، شحذ عزمه

- Student F: what about ‘my starter’, ‘poshintag’, ‘soo yuck’, ‘jin-guk’???

- Student A: for the first word: ‘something that is the beginning of a process, activity, or series especially: APPETIZER’ (<https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/starter>). What remains are appellations of some Korean dishes.

- Student F: the right words in Arabic for ‘casserole’, ‘my starter’, ‘delicacies’??

- Student B: طاجن، طبقي الفاتح، أطايب

Use transliteration in TL graphemes for the meals, followed by the original words.

- Student G: I have a problem with how to structure the text, especially about maintaining the same pace and flow as the original version.

[MORE HELP CAN BE SOLICITED]

5-Crowdcontent [students are to employ labour and knowledge to create diverse types of content]

Every student reads the text using both the skimming out and the scanning through in order to conceptualize things at the first stage. The textual approach, instead of the sentential one, offers students optimal ways to put themselves in a real-life situation.

5.1-Crowdsearching & crowdanalyzing

For their translations to be linguistically readable and meaningfully faithful, the students should answer the following WH questions: what? Who? When? Where? Who? They have to scrutinize the text by resorting to their interpretation to handle the first author intentionality. This hinges upon the source language text; every chunk of information relies on the latter’s overall parameters, be it lexical, semantic, syntactic, stylistic or pragmatic. All that learners acquire here is tied up with the so-called translational decision-making and problem-solving strategies.

5.2-Crowdproduction

Students are behoved to generate content, i.e. a translation. One of the translations would look like the text mentioned below:

طبخُ بلحم الكلاب

خمنوا ماذا؟ لقد أكلت كلبًا (لحم كلب)، ولم أقم بالتهامه فقط، بل أكلته لأنني أردت ذلك. قد أكلت ثلاثة أطباق منه وتمتعت بها. ثم إنني لا أكثر لما تفكرون به. كنت في سيول Seoul بكوريا الجنوبية؛ حيث أبتعثُ إلى هناك لأكتب بعض المقالات الخلفية قبل أن تبدأ دورة كأس العالم 2002. لم يكن للضغط الدولي الممارس على الكوريين لوقف أكل لحم الكلاب أي أثر قابل لأن يُرى، (لقد كان الكوريون مستائين -على نحو متفهم- من الموقف النفاقي للغربيين 'أكلي الحلزون ولحم الأحصنة'). كيف أمكنتني، بوصفي صحفيًا غير متحيز، أن أكتب ورقة عارفة بأكل لحم الكلاب؟ لقد كان عليَّ بجلاء أن أجرب بعضًا منها.

كاد سائق سيارة الأجرة الخاصة بي أن يتعرض لحادث لما طلبت منه أن يأخذني إلى أفضل مطعم متخصص في لحم الكلاب بالمدينة. لا يفعل الغربيون ذلك، ولقد بدا مسؤول النادلين متعجبًا أيضًا، ولكنه شرح لي قائمة الطعام بأدب.

قد لا تصدقوا ذلك، ولكنني في الأغلب نباتي في البيت -ولو أنَّ السبب في ذلك الخوف من أساليب الزراعة 'العلمية' أكثر من المسائل الأخلاقية. وبالتالي فجزئيًا بسبب ذلك، وإلى حد ما بسبب ذكريات حيوانات الطفولة الأليفة المحبوبة جدًا. شحذت عزمي بقنيتين من الجعة قبل أن يحضر الطعام.

بدأت بتمهل، ولكن بعد ذلك -والحماسة تتزايد- أكلت بنهم وشهية طبقي الفاتح (پوشینتانغ) (poshintag)، وهو حساء كلبی رائع، متبوع بـ (سو یوك) (soo yuck) شرائح اللحم، ثم (جین-غوك) (jin-guk) طاجن لحم الكلب، إنه لذيذ! راقب متناولو الغذاء المجاورين باهتمام بما أن هذا الرجل الغربي قد استحسن أطيبهم الكورية الممتازة! على الرغم من كونه مشهداً لن يروه ثانية أبداً - بمشاعري النباتية الفياضة جداً- يتعين علي أن أؤكد أنها لم تكن بالتجربة التي بشأنها أحس بأدنى الأثام.

11-Conclusion

This study is conducted to establish a new paradigm for enhancing students' competencies in translation throughout telecollaboration. It aimed to explore the concepts of crowdsourcing from different angles and how it can be adopted in translation settings, making telecollaboration true via videoconferencing. Students of translation, who constitute an investment for their country's progress and stability, are prone to use ICTs in daily life. This would make easier to implement the technological tools in promoting learning and making students taking all the advantages from them, mainly in gaining time and diminishing exertion. Despite the many drawbacks that the use of technologies may represent in local environments, it has become primordial to look for new horizons by introducing computer-mediated communication (CMC) tools and telecollaborative projects in the curriculums and the ones earmarked to translators' education in particular. This not only to properly convey the contemporary layout, but also to adequately prepare students for the translation international labour market exigencies and equip them with the skills and abilities to surmount all the hardships which they will naturally face.

Last but not least, another key criterion which underlies the broadly use of CMC in learning contexts is the teachers' need for a more basic training in information and communication technologies. Besides, teachers' motivation and enthusiasm for ICTs will lay the ground to students' profound interest and successful engagement with telecollaboration, and their ability to transmit this zealotness to students will positivise the learning outcomes since the motivated teachers can be highly motivating for their students, thus helping them acting with the same enjoyment and pleasure according to what the learner-centred teaching theories and approaches have suggested.

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نحو التأسيس لبراداييم جديد لتعزيز ملكات الطلاب الترجمية من خلال التعاون عن بعد

دريس محمد أمين *

ملخص

لقد اقترح العلماء أنواعا مختلفة من التعهيد الجماعي التي يمكنها أن تحل مشكلات الترجمة، وحصافة الجماعة أو إبداعها. في هذا الصدد، يستخدم مصطلح 'الجماعة' بشكل مشترك مع مصطلحات أخرى لتصنيف المهمة الخاصة جدا التي تضطلع بها الجماعة؛ (أي طلاب الترجمة في هذه الحالة، مثل المحتوى الجماعي (التأسيس لـ، والرأي الجماعي، والسبر والتدقيق، والاختيار الجماعي، والتسابق والتنافس. وبالأسلوب نفسه، يفي سير عملية تعلم الترجمة برمته بالمعايير التدريسية بما أنه ثمة متعلم معرف بصورة واضحة، وهدف معلن على نحو محدد، ومتعهد جماعي أو بادئ نشاط التعهيد الجماعي معترف به بجلاء (الأستاذ هنا)، وبالتأكيد نوع من المكافأة للمشاركين. وعليه، فتحاول هذه الورقة الإجابة عن عديد الأسئلة من قبيل: ما المقصود بالتعاون عن بعد في الترجمة؟ وإلى أي مدى يمكنه أن يشكل قيمة مضافة في تعزيز كفاءات الطلاب الترجمية؟ وكيف يدور التعهيد الجماعي الترجمي عبر مؤتمرات الحاسوب؟ وما التفاصيل الدقيقة لهذا ممارسة؟

الكلمات الدالة: الكفاءة، المؤتمرات الحاسوبية، التعهيد الجماعي، التعاون عن بعد، الترجمة، الكفاءة الترجمية.

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