

# On the impact of self-esteem, emotion regulation and emotional expressivity on student translators' performance —————

*Paula Cifuentes-Férez*  
Universidad de Murcia, Spain  
paulacf@um.es

*Javier Fenollar-Cortés*  
Universidad de Murcia, Spain  
javier.fenollar@um.es

## Abstract

Recent research in Translation Studies has bridged the fields of Translation and Psychology and highlighted that a translator's personality seems to play a role in the process of translation and in the creation of target texts (e.g., Bolaños-Medina, 2014; Bontempo & Napier, 2014; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007, 2009, 2013, 2016). The present paper describes the results of a study to measure the impact of certain emotional and personality traits on the performance of 45 Spanish student translators. Validated Spanish versions of Rosenberg's (1965) *Self-esteem Scale*, Gross and John's (2003) *Emotion Regulation Questionnaire*, and Gross and John's (1995) *The Berkeley Expressivity Questionnaire* were used to assess variation in participants in terms of self-esteem, emotion regulation, and expressivity. A total of three translation tasks carried out by student translators throughout the semester were assessed using an agreed evaluation sheet. The results reveal significant relations between the facets of expressive suppression and negative expressivity with regard to student translators' performance, suggesting that those who tend to hide or inhibit emotional states and responses are more likely to perform better in translation tasks and those who habitually tend to display negative emotions are more likely to perform worse in translation tasks.

**Keywords:** individual differences, self-esteem, emotion regulation, emotional expressivity, translation assessment.

## Resumen

Recientemente, los estudios de traducción han aplicado métodos de la Psicología y han subrayado el papel de la personalidad del traductor en el proceso de traducción,

así como en la creación del texto meta (p. ej., Bolaños-Medina, 2014; Bontempo & Napier, 2014; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007, 2009, 2013, 2016). El presente trabajo presenta los resultados de un estudio empírico que explora el impacto de ciertos rasgos emocionales y de personalidad en el producto de la traducción de 45 estudiantes de traducción españoles. Se emplearon las versiones validadas traducidas al español del test de autoestima de Rosenberg (1965), el cuestionario de regulación emocional de Gross y John (2003) y el cuestionario de expresividad emocional Berkeley de Gross y John (1995) para examinar la variabilidad entre los informantes en términos de autoestima, regulación y expresividad emocional. Los informantes realizaron un total de tres tareas de traducción durante el cuatrimestre, las cuales se evaluaron siguiendo un baremo de evaluación consensuado. En general, los resultados muestran relaciones significativas entre las dimensiones de supresión emocional y expresividad negativa con respecto a las traducciones realizadas, lo que sugiere que aquellos alumnos de traducción que tienen a inhibir su estado y su respuesta emocional tienden a producir traducciones de mejor calidad, mientras que aquellos que habitualmente suelen mostrar sus emociones negativas tienden a realizar peores traducciones.

**Palabras clave:** diferencias individuales, autoestima, regulación emocional, expresividad emocional, evaluación de la traducción.

## 1. Introduction

We all have a unique personality, a particular way of experiencing and operating in the world around us. From the point of view of personality trait theory in differential psychology (e.g., Allport, 1937; Cattell, 1946; Eysenck, 1969; Goldberg, 1990), our personalities consist of special combinations of psychological traits which lead to the ways in which we interact, react and behave with others as well as influencing our self-perceptions, expectations, attitudes, and values. These scholars assume that (a) traits tend to be stable over time; (b) individuals differ in terms of these traits; (c) traits vary along a continuum (e.g., extrovert-introvert). Among the personality traits, we can identify extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and neuroticism (e.g., Costa & McCrae 1992; Goldberg 1993; Matthews et al. 2003). But personality is just one of the dimensions of individual differences. Differential psychology investigates the effect of individual differences such as intelligence, cognitive styles, and affect in human behavior.

Over the last decade, research within Translation Studies has provided evidence of the importance of studying emotional and personality traits of translators and interpreters (e.g., Hubscher-Davidson, 2007, 2009, 2013, 2016; Rosiers, Vermeiren and Eyckmans, 2013; Lehr, 2013; Abihssira, 2014; Bolaños-Medina, 2014; Bontempo

& Napier, 2014; Rojo & Ramos, 2016). Investigating the role of individual differences seems necessary to gain a better understanding of translation and interpreting processes as well as to predict patterns of behavior, for example, in task and job performance. In order to work successfully in today's market, according to the European Commission Directorate-General for Translation (DGT) and the EMT expert group (2009:5), translators need to possess some essential competencies, such as knowing how to negotiate with the client, plan and manage one's time, manage stress, work under pressure and in a team, "how to self-evaluate (questioning one's habits; being open to innovations; being concerned with quality; being ready to adapt to new situations/conditions) and take responsibility", among many others. All these skills are related to different affective and personality factors. In light of their relevance, the investigation of individual differences in translation seems worthwhile and is likely to contribute to our understanding of the translation process and of the translation product, which may undoubtedly have applications for translator training and job performance (cf. Hubscher-Davidson, 2013).

The aim of the present paper is to explore the effects that student translators' emotional management skills (more specifically, self-esteem, emotion regulation, and emotional expressivity) may have on translation performance. With that purpose in mind, we borrowed existing valid and reliable psychometric tools from the field of Personality Psychology, and asked 45 participants to complete a total of three translation tasks distributed throughout the semester. Three tasks were used in order to strengthen the analysis by using repeated measures. Based on the results, we outline the emotional and personality factors which seem to have a predictive value for task performance and address possible implications for translator training.

In what follows, section 2 presents the constructs of self-esteem, emotion regulation, and expressivity, and briefly reviews some literature relevant to our project. In Section 3, recent research on individual differences within Translation Studies is discussed. Section 4 presents the study carried out, namely, research questions and hypotheses, participants, methods, and analysis of the results. Section 5 discusses the results and sums up the main conclusions drawn from our research, and argues for the need for further research to evaluate the effects of affective and personality traits on translation and interpreting performance.

## **2. Self-esteem, emotion regulation, emotional expressivity, and performance**

Differential psychology studies how and why people differ in the way they feel, act, think and want (Revelle, Wilt, & Condon, 2011). Individual differences in factors

such as intelligence, memory, personality, physical and social factors can be studied in order to investigate the large source of variance among individuals. Those factors can be external (e. g., social context, family environment) and internal factors (e.g., affect, intelligence, self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety). With regard to internal factors, three dimensions of individual differences have been put forward by social psychology and foreign language acquisition research: the cognitive dimension (e. g., intelligence, aptitude, cognitive style, learning strategies), the affective dimension (e. g., motivation, anxiety, self-confidence) and the personality dimension (e.g., extraversion, tolerance for ambiguity, risk taking) (Gardner & Clément, 1990; John, 2001).

Personality is an important category of individual differences. According to Phares & Chaplin (1997: 8-9), personality is “that pattern of characteristic thoughts, feelings, and behaviours that distinguishes one person from another and that persists over time and situations”. The study of personality in psychology has a broad history, yielding different theories (Engler, 2008), such as personality trait theory (Allport, 1937; Cattell, 1946; Eysenck, 1969; Goldberg, 1990; Ashton et al. 2008), personality type theory (Jung, 1971; Myers, 1995), psychoanalytic theory (cf. Kahn, 2002), behaviourist theory (cf. Cheney & Pierce, 2008), social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), among others.

In this paper, we examine self-esteem and emotion-related personality processes, namely, emotional expressivity and emotion regulation, in relation to translation performance. Before dealing with how these constructs are related to task performance, it is necessary to provide a definition of them and review some literature in relation to those constructs within individual differences psychology.

Self-esteem is a widely used concept both in non-specialist language and in psychology. Most parents, teachers, and therapists consider that self-esteem is important and may not be the outcome but the cause of one’s successes and failures in life (cf. Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohn, 2003). Self-esteem refers to the subjective emotional evaluation of an individual’s worth and capabilities. Morris Rosenberg (1995: 15) defined self-esteem as a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the self and developed the *Rosenberg self-esteem scale* (RSES), which is one of the most-widely used scale to measure self-esteem in psychology (Gray-Little, Williams, & Hancock, 1997).

As will be discussed below, the construct has been related to well-being (e.g., Baumeister et al., 2003), academic performance (e.g., Sommer & Baumeister, 2002), and language acquisition (e.g., Brady, 2015). It is a crucial factor in the learning process and in an individual’s personal development and self-fulfilment (e.g., Brady, 2015; Cruz-Nuñez & Quinones-Urquijo, 2012; Naranjo-Pereira, 2007). According to Santrock (2006), low self-esteem might be at the base of many mental health problems,

and of poor academic and job performance. In relation to academic performance, there are plausible reasons for assuming that high self-esteem will lead to good academic work: students with high self-esteem seem to have higher aspirations and tend to be more persistent in the face of failure than students with low self-esteem (Di Paula & Campbell, 2002; Sommer & Baumeister, 2002). High self-esteem appears to grant or engender the confidence to deal with difficult problems and may lead to satisfaction from success in learning (Baumeister et al., 2003) and progress toward goals (Di Paula & Campbell, 2002).

A brief review of the literature indicates that there is contradictory evidence on the impact of self-esteem on academic performance. On the one hand, research by Cruz-Nuñez & Quinones-Urquijo (2012) and Naranjo-Pereira (2007) suggests that high self-esteem is positively correlated to successful task and academic performance. On the other, Baumeister et al. (2003), in a review article, argue that associations between self-esteem and academic, job and task performance never indicate that high self-esteem leads to good performance; instead, the direction of effect seems to be the other way round, high self-esteem may be the result of great achievement in those contexts (e.g., Skaalvik & Hagtvet, 1990). Although according to Baumeister et al. (2003), there exists research that shows no effect of self-esteem on task and job performance (e.g., Wallace & Baumeister, 2002; Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993), it seems that it does have an effect on persistence since “high self-esteem has value in causing people to persist longer in the face of failure” and in “knowing when to quit” as high self-esteem individuals seem to “use better self-regulation strategies than low self-esteem people” (Baumeister et al. 2003:15). In other words, high self-esteem individuals may have more functional responses to failure, which seems to confer an advantage in performance, and thus contribute to the relations between self-esteem and performance. Swann, Chang-Schneider, & Larsen-McClarty (2007) argue that some of the reasons why the utility of self-esteem in predicting social outcomes (including academic performance) has been questioned by recent scholars are (1) the scope undertaken has been too narrow and should be broadened to include not only self-esteem but self-views, and (2) the effect size should be lowered when studies are conducted in natural settings (e.g., classroom setting) as small effect sizes are of great value when it comes to important social outcomes such as academic performance.

Together with self-esteem, emotional expressivity, and emotion regulation, there are other interesting aspects of individual differences which influence one's behaviour. According to Gross & John (1997: 435), emotional expressivity refers to “the behavioral (e.g., facial, postural) changes that typically accompany emotion, such as smiling, frowning, crying, or storming out of a room”. In their cognitive model for understanding individual differences in emotion expressive behaviour, they found

three dimensions, namely, positive expressivity, negative expressivity, and impulse strength. Positive expressivity refers to “the degree to which positive emotional response tendencies are expressed behaviorally”, negative expressivity “represents the degree to which negative emotional response tendencies are expressed behaviorally”, and impulse strength as “the general strength of emotion-response tendencies” (436). Research has revealed that (1) men are less emotionally expressive than women (Kring, Smith, & Neale, 1994); (2) individuals high in emotional expressivity have higher self-esteem (Gross & John, 1997), are usually happier, are less likely to be alone, have higher self-esteem and show better social functioning (Burgin et al., 2012); (3) negative expressivity consumes an individual’s well-being, social relationships, and physical health (Kring et al., 1994), and (4) negative expressivity and impulse strength influences burnout and turnover intentions (Iltaf & Gulzar, 2013). Apart from the effects of emotion expression on physical and psychological health, there is evidence suggesting that individuals who express emotion have a better cognitive functioning, whereas individuals who suppress emotion perform poorly on cognitive tasks (Kniele, 2004). For instance, expression of emotions through writing is related to enhanced working memory capacity (Klein & Boals, 2001) as emotion expression lessens ruminative thinking, reducing cognitive load and enhancing cognitive functioning (Klein, 2002), while emotion suppression results in an increase in intrusive thinking that reduces cognitive resources necessary to facilitate cognitive tasks, such as attention, working memory and executive functions (Wegner, 1994). Similarly, Kniele (2004) reported that people with high negative expressivity performed worse on a working memory capacity task than those with low negative expressivity, but she found that positive expressivity was unrelated to working memory capacity.

Emotion regulation “refers to shaping which emotions one has, when one has them, and how one experiences or expresses these emotions” (Gross 2007: 6). Drawing from Gross’s (1998) cognitive model of emotion regulation, emotion may be regulated at five points in the emotion generative process: (1) selection of the situation, (2) modification of the situation, (3) deployment of attention, (4) change of cognitions, and (5) modulation of experiential, behavioural, or physiological responses. The first four are antecedent-focused (i.e., what we do before the emotion response has become fully activated), whereas the fifth is response-focused (i.e., what we do when an emotion is already underway and the response has already been generated). In his research, Gross focuses on two strategies for regulating emotion, namely, cognitive reappraisal, an antecedent-focused strategy, and expressive suppression, a response-focused strategy. The former is defined as “a form of cognitive change that involves construing a potentially emotion-eliciting situation in a way that changes its emotional impact” (Gross & John, 2003: 349), whereas the latter refers to “the conscious inhibition of ongoing emotion expressive behavior” (Gross, 1998: 226).

Research by Gross and John (2003, 2004) has shown that individuals differ in their use of emotion regulation strategies and that these individual differences have clear implications for affect, well-being, and social relationships. Individuals who generally use reappraisal are more likely to experience and express greater positive emotion and fewer negative emotions, whereas those who tend to suppression are more likely to experience and express fewer positive emotions, though they experience greater negative emotion. Moreover, reappraisal is associated with better social functioning, well-being, psychological health, and higher self-esteem, whereas suppression is related to worse social functioning, coping abilities, well-being, and lower self-esteem (Cutuli, 2014; Freire & Tavares, 2011). As far as whether cognitive reappraisal has an effect on task performance, reappraisal may facilitate problem-solving and task performance by alleviating failure-related threats. However, only when it is used as an auxiliary to problem solving can it be expected to have positive effects on task performance; in other words, reappraisal may help to cope well with problems, but problem-solving efforts are needed to perform well in the task (Mikulincer, 1994: 52). Similarly, Leroy, Gregory, Magen, Gross, & Mikolajczak (2012) and Schuster, Martini, & Schmader (2015) reported that individuals who reappraise the task and the situation had a better task performance than those using suppression. Regarding suppression effect on task performance, as stated above, Klein & Boals (2001) suggested that suppression of emotions seems to compete for attentional resources, leading to poorer performance on working memory tasks. Much in the same line, Richards & Gross (2000) reported that expressive suppression results in decrements in memory functioning. All in all, research by Klein & Boals (2001) and Richards & Gross (2000) has suggested that emotion suppression has the same negative effect on physical and psychological health as on cognitive functioning.

Together with research on emotion expression and regulation, and task performance, recent studies in psychology and neurosciences have revealed that emotions are crucial contributors to students' motivation, interpersonal resources, and learning and that they influence behaviour and decision-making (e.g., Damasio, 1994; Lehr, 2014; Lewis, Haviland-Jones, & Barrett, 2008). As stated in Valiente, Swanson, & Eisenberg (2012), research on emotions and academic achievement has generally been centred on negative emotionality, and has shown negative associations between anxiety and school outcomes (e.g., test performance, course grades). By way of illustration, Gumora & Arsenio (2002), and Fayombo (2012) have found that individual differences in negative emotionality are negatively related to students' grades, providing evidence in support of the role of emotions on students' performance. However, there exists research suggesting that the impact of emotions depends on the type of task to be performed and the environment (Rojo & Ramos, 2016). For example, a differential effect between spatial and verbal tasks has been found: in verbal tasks positive moods

have a facilitating effect on performance whereas for spatial tasks negative moods yield positive results (Gray, 2001). Moreover, research on performance at work suggests that negative emotions may have positive effects depending on the type of task. For instance, Miron-Spektor et al (2011) conclude that workers who listened to an angry customer were more successful in solving analytic problems, but less successful in solving creative problems.

The reviewed research on the impact of self-esteem, emotional expressivity, and emotion regulation on performance suggests that further empirical research in different areas is still needed in order to answer not only the question of whether they influence performance, but also when and how. One of the areas which deserves research is that of Translation Studies. As shown earlier, high self-esteem influences persistence in task performance and emotions affect cognitive functioning such as task performance; thus, translation as a highly complex problem-solving communication task is a prone candidate to be affected by these variables.

### 3. Personality in Translation Studies

As noted in Jääskeläinen (2000, cited in Bolaños-Medina, 2014) the increasing number of process-oriented studies in translation since the 1980s has shown the need to investigate personality and affective traits of translators with the aim of understanding the high degree of variability found among them. For that reason, it is both desirable and necessary to bridge the gap between Psychology and Translation, and to apply the methods from Personality Psychology to Translation Studies (Hubscher-Davidson, 2013).

According to Hubscher-Davidson (2009), the first two authors who studied translators' personality within a psychological framework were Reiss (1997 [2000]), from the perspective of Characterology, and Barboni (1999), from that of Psychoanalysis. Reiss adopts Spranger's personality typology (1920), which includes 6 types of personality: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, aggressive, and religious. She argues that certain personalities are more suited to certain types of translations, an idea which will also be found later in Barboni (1999). According to this scholar (1999), when faced with a stressful situation, translators' behaviour depends on and is linked to their personalities. Although these two works lack empirical evidence, they are of great importance as they cleared the ground to explore individual differences in translation (Hubscher-Davidson, 2009).

On the empirical side, to our knowledge, Henderson (1987) was the first to offer a systematic study. Henderson uses the *16 personality factors questionnaire* (16PF) by Cattell



(1946) on a sample of 100 professionals (65 translators and 35 interpreters) and 45 students. In his comparative study on personality profiles of translators and conference interpreters, he finds that the two groups have a different personality: translators are more reserved and practical than interpreters, whereas the latter are more emotionally stable and imaginative. Moreover, when compared to students, professionals show higher anxiety than students. Twenty years later, Hubscher-Davidson (2007, 2009) investigated the impact of personality traits using a Myers-Briggs inspired personality test (MBTI) on the performance of 20 English student translators while they worked on a literary translation from French into English. Hubscher-Davidson adopts a complex methodology as she uses a background questionnaire before participants performed the translation task, the translation task itself, her observations while translators are verbalising their thoughts, a retrospective questionnaire once the participants completed the translation task, a personality test and four markers' assessments. The MBTI measures four scales, namely, introversion-extroversion, sensing-intuition, thinking-feeling, and judging-perceiving. The combination of these scales yields sixteen 16 different personality types. Her results indicate a correlation between target text quality and the presence of an intuitive trait. Further recent research by Hubscher-Davidson (2016) has shown that other personality traits such as emotional intelligence do have an effect on regulating translators' behaviour. Data from this study show that literary translators achieved higher scores in emotion regulation than non-literary translators.

Differences are also reported between translators and interpreters. Rosiers, Vermeiren & Eyckmans (2013) focus on student translators and student interpreters to investigate the clichés about interpreters and translators: interpreters are considered as more outgoing and self-assured while translators are said to be more perfectionist and introverted. They designed three studies, each of which aimed to explore different dimensions of individual differences: affective (language anxiety, linguistic self-confidence), personality (extroversion), and cognitive (cognitive style). First, results from study 1 on affective variables reveal that there are significant differences between student translators and student interpreters regarding language anxiety (higher in translators) and linguistic self-confidence (higher in interpreters). However, these differences are not reflected in more successful performance. Second, results from study 2 show no significant differences between the two groups in terms of extroversion since both student translators and interpreters tend towards extroversion. Finally, study 3 yields no significant differences between the two groups with regard to cognitive style.

A translator's emotional state affects translation performance. Lehr (2013) studies the impact of emotions in translation performance. Participants were asked

to provide a translation of a text, which was rated for creativity and accuracy. Then, they were randomly assigned to a feedback group and received bogus feedback, either positive or negative, on their performance. Afterwards, they were asked to translate another text, which was also rated for creativity and accuracy. Her results show that positive emotions foster creativity while negative emotions enhance accuracy. Drawing on Lehr's (2013) methodology, Rojo & Ramos (2016), investigate the impact of participants' resilience and emotions on performance. Their data replicate Lehr's (2013) findings on the impact of emotion in translation performance: positive emotions enhance creativity, whereas negative emotions foster accuracy in translation. Moreover, their data confirmed a tendency of high-resilient participants to perform better than average and low-resilient translators under negative affect conditions.

Research on individual differences in Translation Studies has also explored their role in one's perceived competence. Emotional stability, openness to experience, conscientiousness, and self-esteem have been reported to be good predictors of the interpreter's self-perceived competence. Bontempo & Napier (2014: 87) argue that interpreting performance is dependent on factors of both general cognitive ability (intelligence, working memory, etc.) and personality. In their study, they measure self-efficacy, goal orientation, and negative affectivity as well as ratings of self-perceived competence in a sample of Auslan sign interpreters. Their data reveal that emotional stability can have an impact on one's perceived competence. Very much in line with the methodology used previously, Bontempo et al. (2014) explored openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, as well as perfectionism and self-esteem to identify those constructs which are predictive of successful sign interpreting performance by means of a worldwide online survey. In order to measure the personality dimensions, they used existing reliable psychometric tools: the first six were drawn from the International Personality Items Pool, whereas for self-esteem the *Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale* was used. The authors conclude that personality plays a role in predicting performance for sign language interpreters. High self-esteem stands out as the single best predictor of self-perceived competence, but together with this construct, "emotional stability, openness to experience and conscientiousness are important predictors of sign language interpreter competence" (Bontempo et al., 2014: 39), reinforcing previous findings by Bontempo & Napier (2014).

All in all, the research just reviewed provides evidence that the study of individual differences is important and desirable in order to gain a better understanding of the way translators and interpreters operate and to be able to make predictions about their performance in both written and oral translation. Although some scholars have already focussed on emotion regulation, the impact of positive and negative emotions

on the translation product, and the importance of self-esteem and emotional stability as predictors of competence, to our knowledge, there is no research which combines different constructs concerning interpreters' and translators' emotional profile. But, as stated above, there exists literature which explores the relationships between emotions, personality, and translation. The study presented in the next section is a first approximation that contributes with new variables and other psychological tests to the current research on the relationship between emotions and translation performance.

## 4. The Study

### 4.1. *Research question and hypotheses*

We are interested in exploring the following research question: is there any significant relationship between student translators' self-esteem, emotion regulation strategies (i.e., reappraisal and suppression), emotional expressivity (i.e., positive expressivity, negative expressivity, and impulse strength) and their translation quality?

Drawing on the literature review, our hypotheses are (1) students with high self-esteem will be more likely to perform better than those with low self-esteem; (2) students who habitually suppress their emotions will be more likely to perform worse than those who generally use reappraisal; and (3) students with high negative emotional expressivity and impulse strength will be more likely to perform worse than those with low negative emotional expressivity and impulse strength.

### 4.2. *Methods*

#### 4.2.1 *Participants*

45 participants took part in the study. The participants were students of Translation and Interpreting at the University of Murcia (Spain). This sample was recruited from the second year students whose mother tongue was Spanish and their second language was English. Participants ranged in age from 19 to 24 years ( $M = 19.58$ ,  $SD = 1.3$ ) and approximately two thirds (75.6%;  $n = 34$ ) were female. No significant gender differences were found in the number of spoken languages, stays abroad, and official language certificates obtained. Participation was completely voluntary.

#### 4.2.2 Cognitive Measures

Three cognitive and emotional regulation scales translated into Spanish were included in the study:

*Emotional Self-regulation Questionnaire* (ERQ; Gross & John, 2003). The ERQ is a 10-item scale designed to measure subject tendency to self-regulate emotions in order to measure two dimensions: (1) cognitive reappraisal and (2) expressive suppression. The subject has to rate each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha was .65 for cognitive reappraisal and .67 for expressive suppression.

*Berkeley Expressivity Questionnaire* (BEQ; Gross and John 1997). The BEQ is a 16-item scale designed to measure an individual's emotional expressivity. The scale has three dimensions: (1) negative expressivity, (2) positive expressivity, and (3) impulse strength. Each item is answered on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha was .72, .77, and .84 for negative expressivity, positive expressivity, and impulse strength, respectively.

*Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale* (Rosenberg 1965). A 10-item single-dimensional scale that measures self-esteem by measuring both positive and negative feelings about the self. Each item is answered on a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 4 (strongly disagree). Cronbach's alpha was .86.

#### 4.2.3 Materials

A total of three translation tasks were designed (see Appendix 1). The first task consisted of an excerpt of 344 words from a tourist website about Rome. The second task was an online newspaper article of 303 words on a new app. The third task consisted of an excerpt of 349 words from the book *Heaven is for Real* (2010) by Todd Burpo & Lynn Vincent. The three tasks were comparable in length, from 303 to 344 words, and in readability: vocabulary, word and sentence length, relation to oral language, and density of concepts (Murphy, 2013). Moreover, according to the Flesch-Kincaid readability test, the texts could be effortlessly understood by an average sixteen to seventeen-year-old English native student.

#### 4.2.4 Procedure

The design was a double-blind study. The study was performed in the classroom where students regularly worked. The researchers informed the participants about the

general aim of the study and invited them to take part in it. After signing a consent form, they filled out a background questionnaire (i.e., age, gender, languages spoken and studied, stays abroad, and official language certificates) and the three psychological questionnaires (*Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale*, *Emotional Self-regulation Questionnaire*, and *Berkeley Expressivity Questionnaire*), and handed them to the researcher in charge of these data (henceforth: the analyst). Then, each participant was given a code number which was totally unknown to the researcher in charge of marking the three translation tasks (henceforth: the marker) and which was used as an identification number in the translation tasks. Third, the three translation tasks were designed. Each translation task was carried out in a separate session from February to May. No time limit was given for any of the tasks, but none took longer than seventy minutes. In order to assess students' performance in each task, the marker used the evaluation sheet which was being used for the modules on general translation they were also taking (see Appendix 2). The evaluation sheet is an agreed marking sheet for English-Spanish translation modules used in the Translation and Interpreting degree at the University of Murcia. The evaluation sheet was presented to the students at the beginning of the module so that they would be aware of how their translation work would be assessed and they could use it to evaluate their own work or others' work, as they are sometimes asked to do it in class. When all tasks were marked, the marker sent the grades to the analyst. The Commission on Ethics in Research of the University of Murcia approved the protocol for the study.

### **4.3. Results and discussion**

Cognitive and assessment scores were all normally distributed (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test  $p > .05$ ) and showed similar range in cases and controls (Levene's test  $p > .05$ ). No significant gender differences were found. None of the cognitive variables were correlated with subject's age.

Pearson's Correlations between Cognitive Outcomes and Quality of Translations were conducted. Correlations between scale dimensions were run. For Emotional Self-Regulation Questionnaire, Negative and Positive Expressivity was significant correlated ( $r = .58$ ;  $p = .000$ ). Both were significant correlated with "Impulse Strength" ( $r = .50$ ;  $p = .001$  and  $r = .72$ ;  $p = .000$ ; for Negative and Positive Expressivity respectively). A correlation of .10 will be considered a small effect, a correlation of .30 will be considered medium effect, and a correlation of .50 will be considered a large effect (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013). There was no significant correlation between "Cognitive Reappraisal" and "Expressive Suppression".

**Table 1.** Demographic and cognitive information of total sample and by gender

	Total Sample	Comparisons by gender			
		Males	Females	$t^a$	$p$
N	45		11	34	
Age	19.6(1.3)		20.3	19.4	2.74 .10
Languages	2.1(0.7)		2.3 (1.0)	2.2(0.8)	0.18 .60
Stays Abroad ( <i>months</i> ) <sup>b</sup>	0.6(0.7)		0.3(0.5)	0.7(1.4)	-0.75 .46
<i>Emotional Self-regulation Questionnaire</i>					
Cognitive Reappraisal			27.6(3.1)	28.7(4.3)	-0.63 .54
Expressive Suppression	13.1(4.2)		12.6(5.2)	13.1(4.0)	-0.30 .77
<i>Berkeley Expressivity Questionnaire</i>					
Negative Expressivity	23.2(6.1)		22.1(5.7)	23.7(6.0)	-0.63 .53
Positive Expressivity	22.3(4.7)		22.0(5.7)	22.5(4.5)	-0.26 .80
Impulse Strength	31.1(7.4)		26.7(6.0)	32.3(7.2)	-1.93 .06
<i>Rosenberg self-esteem Scale</i>					
Total Score	30.4(4.8)		31.4(4.4)	30.0(4.8)	0.74 .59

<sup>a</sup>Welch's t test

<sup>b</sup>Living in an English-speaking country

*Correlations between Cognitive Outcomes and Translation scores*

“Expressive Suppression” from Emotional Self-Regulation Questionnaire was significantly correlated with Task 1 ( $r = .51$ ;  $p = .001$ ) and Task 2 ( $r = .35$ ;  $p = .048$ ). The relationships were both positive (i.e., higher quality translation scores were correlated with higher expressive suppression scores). No significant correlations were found between “Cognitive Reappraisal” and Tasks.

For the *Berkeley Expressivity Questionnaire* dimensions, only “Negative Expressivity” was significantly correlated with Task 1 ( $r = -.41$ ;  $p = .009$ ). The relationship with performance was negative, that is, higher negative expressivity scores were correlated with lower quality translation scores. Task 2 was also correlated ( $r = -.31$ ;  $p = .08$ ), but the significance was marginal. Neither “Impulse Strength” nor “Positive Expressivity”

were significantly correlated. No significant correlations were found for the *Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale*.

*Unique Effects of Cognitive Outcomes on Quality of Translation*

The unique relationships between the cognitive outcomes with the assessment were determined by the regression of the quality assessments on the dimensions of each scale simultaneously. Multicollinearity analyses were performed and the variance inflation factor (VIF) values were specified for each predictor. VFI values were under 5, thus, we consider that there was no multicollinearity (Belsley, 1991).

After controlling for cognitive reappraisal, higher scores on expressive suppression predicted higher scores on Task 1 and Task 2 (Table 2). In contrast, higher scores on negative expressivity predicted lower scores on Task 1 and 3. In other words, higher expressive suppression predicted higher translation quality. Most notably, negative expressivity was related with assessment in the way that higher negative expressivity scores predicted lower translation quality.

**Table 2.** Unique Effects of Cognitive Outcomes on Quality of Translation

	Predictors (SE)									F	p	R <sup>2</sup>
	Cognitive Reappraisal	Expressive Suppression				Negative Expressivity	Positive Expressivity	Impulse Strength				
Task 1	.26(.06)	.52(.05)***	8.39	.001	.32	-.56(.05)**	.15 (.08)	.13(.05)	3.05	.042	.21	
Task 2	.02(.07)	.35(.07)*	2.06	.145	.13	-.29(.06)	.09(.10)	-.15(.06)	1.15	.347	.11	
Task 3	.11(.06)	.19(.06)	0.81	.453	.05	-.44(.05)*	.24(.07)	.10(.05)	1.66	.194	.13	

\*p < .05; \*\*p < .01; \*\*\*p < .001

## 5. Discussion and Conclusions

Coming back to our hypotheses, our results did not provide support for our first hypothesis (i.e., student translators with high self-esteem would be more likely to perform better than those with low self-esteem) as no relation was found between students' self-

esteem and translation quality scores, a finding which is consistent with those on task and job performance (cf. Baumeister et al., 2003; Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993; Wallace & Baumeister, 2002). However, contrary to the findings reported in Bontempo & Napier (2014), it seems that one's views about self-worth might not be a good predictor of one's actual written performance. Plausible explanations for this contradictory evidence could be found either in the way competence or performance is assessed, in the possible narrow scope of self-esteem, and in the effect sizes. On the one hand, in Bontempo & Napier's (2014) study, they did not actually evaluate performance, but asked participants to rate their self-perceived competence. Thus, it is likely that individuals with high self-esteem might see themselves as more competent than they really are. On the other hand, as argued in Swann, Chang-Schneider, & Larsen-McClarty (2007), it might be necessary to broaden the scope to include not only self-esteem but other related constructs to shed light on the issue of whether one's self-views influence task performance, as well as to lower effect sizes since the current study was conducted in a classroom setting.

Regarding our second hypothesis, which stated that student translators who tend to suppress their emotions would be more likely to perform worse than those who habitually used cognitive reappraisal, no significant negative correlation was found, thus, rejecting our hypothesis. The significant positive correlation and regression between expressive suppression and translation quality found was unexpected. It appears that the tendency to suppress one's emotions may have a positive effect on translation performance instead of the expected negative one (cf. Klein & Boals, 2001; Richards & Gross, 2000). This might be due to (a) the fact that actual emotional experience was not part of the task as in previous literature on emotions and translation performance by Lehr (2013) and Rojo & Ramos (2016), (b) the type of task used (cf. Miron-Spektor et al., 2011; Gray, 2001), and (c) the global assessment of the translation tasks. For further research, it would be interesting to engage participants in actual emotional experience, and to examine whether suppression and reappraisal have an effect on different dimensions of the translation product (such as accuracy in the transmission of meaning, accuracy in spelling and punctuation, creativity in solving translation problems posed by the text, etc.) instead of just focussing on the overall quality of the translation product since research on performance has suggested that emotions may have different effects depending on the type of task (cf. Miron-Spektor et al., 2011).

As for our third hypothesis (i.e., student translators with high negative emotional expressivity and impulse strength would be more likely to perform worse than those with low negative emotional expressivity and impulse strength), support is provided in relation to negative expressivity; in other words, students with higher negative expressivity were more likely to perform worse than those with lower negative



expressivity, a finding consistent with those gained in previous research in other fields (Gumora & Arsenio, 2002; Fayombo, 2012). It is possible that student translators who habitually express their negative emotions might perform worse at least in part because of the negative self-views they create about themselves; individuals who have the tendency to express their negative emotions have been said to consume their self-esteem (cf. Kring et al., 1994). Moreover, research on negative emotional responses has shown a negative relationship with test performance (Valiente, Swanson, & Eisenberg, 2012) and that individuals with high negative expressivity have a worse cognitive functioning (e.g., attention, working memory) than those with low negative expressivity (Kniele, 2004) though this could be mediated by the type of task performed (cf. Miron-Spektor et al., 2011).

This paper would not be complete without recognizing the inherent limitations that may have affected the findings. The nature of this kind of research as well as some of the choices made in the study are two important considerations. First, the social desirability bias which is a flaw of this type of research and not unique to this study. Participants may have answered the questionnaires in a way that would be viewed favourably by the researchers, despite the fact that they were informed that the study was anonymous and that it would not affect their course grades. Second, translations were only assessed by one marker despite the fact that similar research in Translation Studies has used more than one marker (cf. Hubscher-Davidson, 2007, 2009; Rojo & Ramos, 2016). However, unlike Hubscher-Davidson (2007, 2009) and Rojo & Ramos (2016), in this study three different tasks were marked. Third, despite the texts being comparable in terms of readability, the fact that the three texts used for the tasks belong to three different genres might have somehow affected student translators' performance. Fourth, the tasks were performed at different points which might have the implication that student translators' performance has improved after the course of training. Finally, another limitation has to do with the Cronbach's alpha for one of the psychological tests. The Cronbach's alpha for ERQ was low if we consider that Gross & John's scale proposed an alpha of .79 and .73 for reappraisal and suppression respectively. As it can be observed, reliability was not very high, especially as far as suppression was concerned. Nevertheless, scholars such as Nunnally (1967) and Huh, Delorme, & Reid (2006) consider that alpha superior to .60 could be enough.

Research on individual differences has gained ground in Translation Studies over the last years. In spite of the fact that there is evidence for the influence of affective and personality traits of translators and interpreters on translation and interpreting performance, much research is still needed to shed light on how translators and interpreters work. This should undoubtedly involve not only the product of students' translation work but also the process of their translation performance. The study

presented here provides evidence for the role of emotion regulation and emotional expressivity in the product of students' translation work, leaving the focus on the process for future research. The findings suggest that (a) students who tend to express their negative emotions perform worse in translation tasks, and (b) those who habitually suppress their emotions do better in the translation tasks assessed.

However, no significant results were found for the relation between self-esteem and translation quality. Some of the methodological choices may provide plausible explanations for the lack of significant results in this regard. The overall quality of translations was assessed by means of a general marking sheet instead of focusing on different facets of translations, for example, accuracy or creativity (cf. Rojo & Ramos, 2016). It might be interesting to investigate whether self-esteem has a differential impact on different dimensions of the translation product. It is possible that translators with high self-esteem might be more creative when solving translation problems than those with low self-esteem since research has shown that an individual with high self-esteem tends to seek the challenge of demanding goals, to persist in the face of difficulties and to work longer than low self-esteem individuals (Baumeister et al., 2003). Moreover, other constructs closely related to self-esteem, such as self-concept, might have also been considered as some scholars have argued that a framework treating self-esteem and self-concept as members of the common category of self-views would be more useful for assessing their predictive utility (cf. Swann, Chang-Schneider & Larsen-McClarty, 2007: 86). Despite the importance of self-esteem, emotion regulation, and emotional expressivity in people's daily lives, the investigation of these psychological constructs in Translation Studies is still in its infancy. Further research is very much needed to examine the effect of these constructs both in the product of translation work and in the translation process. More complex methodologies including TAPs and retrospective questionnaires may be needed (cf. Hubscher-Davidson, 2007, 2009) so as to shed light on whether, when and how they affect translators' performance.

## 7. References

Abihssira, L. 2014. *Factores de la psicología de la personalidad determinantes en el proceso translativo* [Determining factors of personality psychology in the translation process]. (Unpublished MA thesis). University of Murcia.

Allport, G. 1937. *Personality: A psychological interpretation*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Amirazodi, F. and M. Amirazodi. 2011. "Personality traits and self-esteem". *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 29, 713-716.

Ashton, M. C., Lee, K., Perugini, M., Szarota, P., de Vries, R. E., Di Blas, L. and B. De Raad. 2004. "A Six-Factor Structure of Personality-Descriptive Adjectives: Solutions From Psycholexical Studies in Seven Languages". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 86 (2), 356-366.

Bandura, A. 1986. *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Barboni, T. 1999. Inconscient et traduction [The Unconscious and Translation]. In Lejeune, C. (ed) *Théorie et Pratique de la Traduction III*. Mons: Le Ciephum. 23-33.

Baumeister, R. F., Heatherton, T. F. and D. M. Tice. 1993. "When ego threats lead to self-regulation failure: Negative consequences of high self-esteem". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 64, 141-156

Baumeister, R. F., Campbell, J. D., Krueger, J. I. and K. D. Vohs. 2003. "Does High Self-Esteem Cause Better Performance, Interpersonal Success, Happiness, or Healthier Lifestyles?" *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 4(1), 1-44.

Belsley, D.A. 1991. *Conditioning Diagnostics: Collinearity and Weak Data in Regression*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Bontempo, K. and J. Napier. 2014. "Evaluating emotional stability as a predictor of interpreter competence and aptitude for interpreting". In Pöschhacker, F., Liu, M. (ed) *Aptitude for Interpreting*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 87-106.

Bontempo, K., Napier, J., Hayes, L. and V. Brashear. 2014. "Does Personality Matter? An International Study of Sign Language Interpreter Disposition". *Translation and Interpreting*, 6(1): 23-46.

Brady, I. K. 2015. *The Ideal and Ought-to L2 Selves of Spanish Learners of English*. (PhD Thesis). University of Murcia. Retrieved September 1, 2015, from <http://www.tesisenred.net/bitstream/handle/10803/311438/TIKB.pdf?sequence=1>

Burgin, C. J., Brown, L. H., Royal, A., Silvia, P. J., Barrantes-Vidal, N. and T. R. Kwapil. 2012. "Being with Others and Feeling Happy: Emotional Expressivity in Everyday Life" *Personality and Individual Differences*, 53(3), 185-90.

Cattell, R. 1946. *Description and Measurement of Personality*. New York: World Book.

Cheney, C. D. and W. D. Pierce. 2008. *Behavior analysis and learning* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Psychology Press.

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West S. G. and L. S. Aiken. 2013. *Applied Multiple Regression/Correlation Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*. London: Routledge.

Costa, J., and R. McCrae. 1992. *Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Cutuli, D. 2014. "Cognitive Reappraisal and Expressive Suppression Strategies Role in the Emotion Regulation: An Overview on Their Modulatory Effects and Neural Correlates". *Frontiers in Systems Neuroscience*, 8, 175.

Cruz-Nuñez, F. and A. Quinones-Urquijo. 2012. "Autoestima y rendimiento académico en estudiantes de enfermería de Poza Rica, Veracruz, México." *Uni-pluri/versidad*, 12(1), 25-35.

Damasio, A. R. 1994. *Descartes' error. Emotion, reason, and the human brain*. New York: Avon Books.

Di Paula, A. and J. D. Campbell. 2002. "Self-esteem and persistence in the face of failure". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83, 711-724.

EMT expert group. 2009. Competences for Professional Translators, Experts in Multilingual and Multimedia Communication. Retrieved September 1, 2015, from [http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/programmes/emt/key\\_documents/emt\\_competences\\_translators\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/programmes/emt/key_documents/emt_competences_translators_en.pdf)

Engler, B. 2008. *Personality theories: an introduction* (8th ed.). Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Eysenck, H. J. and S. B. G. Eysenck. 1969. *Personality Structure and Measurement*. London: Routledge.

Fayombo, G. A. 2012. "Relating Emotional Intelligence to Academic Achievement among University Students in Barbados". *The International Journal of Emotional Education*, 4(2), 43-54.

Freire, T., and D. Tavares. 2011. "Influência Da Autoestima, Da Regulação Emocional E Do Gênero No Bem-Estar Subjetivo E Psicológico de Adolescentes." [Influence of self-esteem, emotional regulation and gender on adolescent psychological well-being] *Revista de Psiquiatria Clínica*, 38(5), 184-88.

Gardner, R. C. and R. Clément. 1990. Social psychological perspectives on second language acquisition. In H. Giles & W. P. Robinson (Eds.), *Handbook of language and social psychology*. Chichester, England: John Wiley and Sons. 495-517.

Goldberg, L. R. 1990. "An Alternative "description of personality": The big-five factor structure". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59(6), 1216-1229.

Gray, J. 2001. "Emotional modulation of cognitive control: Approach-withdrawal states double-dissociate spatial from verbal two-back task performance". *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 130, 436-452.

Gray-Little, B., Williams, V. S. L. and T. D. Hancock. 1997. "An item response theory analysis of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale". *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 23, 443-451.

Gross, J. J. 1998. "Antecedent- and response-focused emotion regulation: divergent consequences for experience, expression, and physiology". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(1), 224–237.

Gross, J. J. and O. P. John. 1995. "Facets of emotional expressivity: Three self-report factors and their correlates". *Personality and Individual Differences*, 19, 555–568.

Gross, J. J. 2007. "Emotion Regulation: Conceptual Foundations". In J. J. Gross (Ed.), *Handbook of emotion regulation*. New York: The Guildford Press. 3–24.

Gross, J. J. and O. P. John. 1998. "Mapping the domain of expressivity: Multimethod evidence for a hierarchical model". *Journal of Personality and social Psychology*, 74(1), 170–191.

Gross, J. J. and O. P. John. 2003. "Individual differences in two emotion regulation processes: Implications for affect, relationships, and well-being". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(2), 348–362.

Gumora, G. and W. F. Arsenio. 2002. "Emotionality, emotion regulation, and school performance in middle school children". *Journal of School Psychology*, 40(5), 395–413.

Henderson, J. 1987. *Personality and the Linguist: A Comparison of the Personality Profiles of Professional Translators and Interpreters*. Bradford: University of Bradford Press.

Hubscher-Davidson, S. 2007. *An Empirical Investigation into the Effects of Personality on the Performance of French to English Student Translators*. (Unpublished PhD thesis). University of Bath.

\_\_\_\_\_. 2009. "Personal Diversity and Diverse Personalities in Translation: a Study of Individual Differences". *Perspectives: Studies in Translatology*, 17(3), 175–192.

\_\_\_\_\_. 2013. "Emotional Intelligence and Translation Studies: A New Bridge". *Meta: Translator's Journal*, 58(2), 324–346.

\_\_\_\_\_. 2016. "Trait Emotional Intelligence and Translation: A Study of Professional Translators." *Target*, 28(1), 132–157.

Huh, J., Delorme, D. E. and L. N. Reid. 2006. "Perceived Third Person Effects and Consumer Attitudes on Prevetting and Banning DTC Advertising". *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 40(1), 90–116.

Iltaf, H. and A. Gulzar. 2013. "Impact of Expressivity and Impulse Strength on Burnout and Turnover Intentions: Mediating Role of Deep Acting". *Journal of Business and Management*, 7(4), 62–67.

Jääskeläinen, R. 1999. *Tapping the Process: an Explorative Study of the Cognitive and Affective Factors involved in Translating*. Joensuu: University of Joensuu.

\_\_\_\_\_. 2000. "Focus on Methodology in Think-Aloud Studies on Translating". In Tirkkonen-Condit, S. & Jääskeläinen R. (eds) *Tapping and Mapping the Processes of Translation and Interpreting. Outlooks on Empirical Research*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 71-82.

Jonassen, D. H. and B. L. Grabowski. 2011. *Handbook of Individual Differences, Learning, and Instruction*. New York/London: Routledge.

Jung, C. G. 1971. *Psychological Types*. London: Routledge.

Kahn, M. 2002. *Basic Freud: psychoanalytic thought for the twenty first century*. New York: Basic Books.

Klein, K. and A. Boals. 2001. "Expressive writing can increase working memory capacity". *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 130, 520-533.

Klein, K. 2002." Stress, expressive writing and working memory". In S.J. Lepore & J.M. Smyth (eds) *The Writing Cure*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. 135-155.

Kring, A., Smith, D. and J. Neale. 1994. "Individual Differences in Dispositional Expressiveness: Development and Validation of the Emotional Expressivity Scale". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 66, 934-949.

Kussmaul, P. and S. Tirkkonen-Condit. 1995. "Think-Aloud Protocol Analysis in Translation Studies". *TTR: Traduction, Terminologie, Rédaction*, 8(1), 177-199.

Lewis, M., Haviland-Jones, J. M. and L. Feldman Barrett. 2008. *Handbook of emotions* (3rd ed.). New York: Guilford.

Lehr, C. 2013. *Influences of Emotion on Cognitive Processing in Translation: A Framework and some Empirical Evidence*. Paper presented at the International Online Workshop on Affective factors in Translation Process Research: To Feel or not to Feel? That is the Question. Aston University, 6 December.

Lehr, C. 2014. "The Relevance of Emotion for Professional Translation and Translation Studies". In Baur et al. (eds) *Man vs Machine*. Proceedings of the XXth FIT World Congress. Berlin: BDU Fachverlag. 601-606.

Leroy, V., Grégoire, J., Magen, E., Gross, J. J. and M. Mikolajczak. 2012. "Lead me not into temptation: Using cognitive reappraisal to reduce goal inconsistent behavior". *PLoS ONE*, 7(7), e39493.

Matthews, G., Deary, I. J. and M. C. Whiteman. 2003. *Personality Traits*. Cambridge University Press.

Mikulincer, M. 1994. *Human learned helplessness: a coping perspective*. New York: Springer Science and Business Media.

Murphy, S. 2013. *Assessing text difficulty for students. What works? Research into Practice*. Retrieved September 7, 2015, from [https://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/literacynumeracy/inspire/research/WW\\_ATDS.pdf](https://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/literacynumeracy/inspire/research/WW_ATDS.pdf)

Myers, I. B. and P. B. Myers. 1995 [1980]. *Gifts Differing: Understanding Personality Type*. Mountain View, CA: Davies-Black Publishing.

Naranjo-Pereira, M. L. 2007. "Autoestima: un factor relevante en la vida de la persona y tema esencial del proceso educativo." [Self-esteem: a relevant factor in a person's life and an essential topic in the educative process]. *Actualidades Investigativas en Educación*, 7(3), 1-27.

Nunnally, J. C., Bernstein, I. H. and J. M. T. Berge. 1967. *Psychometric theory* (Vol. 226). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Phares, E. J. and W. F. Chaplin. 1997. *Introduction to personality* (4th ed.). New York: Longman.

Reiss, K. 2000 [1971]. *Translation Criticism*. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.

Revelle, W., Wilt, J. and D. M. Condon. 2011. "Individual Differences and Differential Psychology: A Brief History and Prospect". In Chamorro-Premuzic, T., Furnham, A. & von Stumm, S. (eds) *The Wiley-Blackwell Handbook of Individual Differences*. John Wiley and Sons. 3-38.

Rojo, A. and M. Ramos. 2016. "Can Emotion Stir Translation Skill? Defining the impact of positive and negative emotions on translation performance". In Muñoz Martín, R. (ed). *Reembedding Translation Process Research*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins:107-130

Rosenberg, M. 1965. *Society and the Adolescent Self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Rosiers, A., Vermeiren, H. and J. Eyckmans. 2013. « Poles Apart? The Personality Profiles of Advanced Language Learners ». Paper presented at the International Online Workshop on Affective factors in Translation Process Research: To Feel or not to Feel? That is the Question, Aston University, 6 December.

Santrock, J. W. 2006. *Child Development*. Singapore: McGraw Hill Education.

Schuster, C., Martiny, S. E. and T. Schmader. 2015. "Distracted by the Unthought - Suppression and Reappraisal of Mind Wandering under Stereotype Threat". *PLoS One*, 10(3), e0122207.

Skaalvik, E. and K. Hagtvet. 1990. "Academic Achievement and Self-concept: An Analysis of Causal Predominance in a Developmental Perspective". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 58, 292-307.

Sommer, K. L. and R. F. Baumeister. 2002. „Self-Evaluation, Persistence, and Performance Following Implicit Rejection: The Role of Trait Self-Esteem”. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 28(7), 926–938.

Spranger, E. 1920. *Lebensformen. Geisteswissenschaftliche Psychologie und Ethik der Persönlichkeit* [Types of lives: the psychology and ethics of personality]. Halle: M. Niemeyer.

Swann, W. B., Chang-Schneider, C. and K. Larsen McClarty. 2007. „Do People’s Self-Views Matter? Self-Concept and Self-Esteem in Everyday Life.” *American Psychologist*, 62(2), 84–94.

Valiente, C., Swanson, J. and N. Eisenberg. 2012. „Linking Students’ Emotions and Academic Achievement: When and Why Emotions Matter”. *Child Development Perspectives*, 6(2), 129–135.

Wallace, H. M., and Baumeister, R. F. 2002. “The performance of narcissists rises and falls with perceived opportunity for glory”. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82, 819–834.

Wegner, D.M. (1994). “Ironic processes of mental control”. *Psychological Review*, 101, 34-52.

## **Appendix 1. Translation tasks**

---

Task 1. An excerpt of 344 words from a touristic website (<http://www.italyheaven.co.uk/rome/home.html>)

---

A complete insider guide to Rome with practical advice on visiting the city, including the best hotels, popular and lesser-known tourist attractions, reliable restaurants, things to do and travel tips.

### **All roads lead to Rome**

For thousands of years tourists, merchants and pilgrims have wended their way towards the town built on seven hills along the banks of the Tiber.

### **Rome wasn’t built in a day**

Rome, the Eternal City, has just about the richest, fullest history of any town on earth, thanks to its unique position in the world’s greatest Empire, its significance as a religious and cultural centre, its turbulent centuries of aristocratic and papal rivalries and upheaval... and along the way acquiring some of the finest art and architecture to survive from the last two thousand years.



### **When in Rome...**

Rome is far from being a museum: it's a colourful and vibrant living city which is still an appealing destination even if you're not interested in history. The food, the culture, the ambience and the surrounding scenery make a great holiday even if you don't survey a single ruin or statue.

### **Rome's 'Pompeii'**

'Better than Pompeii' is how some visitors describe it. At Rome's own preserved ancient town, Ostia Antica, you can lose yourself in the sprawling streets of the former port. Abandoned by the Romans, this trading centre declined and finally became buried in silt. Much of the area is now excavated, and you can explore streets where some of the ancient character lingers. Mosaics still in place, columns reaching to the sky, careful frescoes decorating walls which still stand high ... and fascinating marble-seated communal public toilets.

### **Rome excursions**

Why not escape the hectic city by making a day trip to one of the many interesting destinations within easy reach of Rome? On a hot day it can be a relief to breathe the fresh air of the nearby hills, and there are lots of great places to visit as a day trip, from beaches to archaeological sites (even the two combined at a couple of our recommended destinations).

---

Task 2. An article of 303 words from the British newspaper The Guardian (<http://www.theguardian.com/lifeandstyle/2012/apr/10/iphone-app-dreams-study>)

---

A psychologist plans to sweeten people's dreams using their smartphones. Professor Richard Wiseman expects thousands of people to take part in an experiment in manipulating dreams.

Participants will download a specially designed iPhone app that turns their phone into a "dream factory".

Placed on the bed, the phone can detect when a sleeper is not moving, which signifies the onset of dreaming. It then plays a carefully crafted "soundscape" designed to evoke pleasant scenes, such as walking in woods, or lying on a beach.

The idea is that this will influence dreaming, causing dreamers to conjure up situations and experiences inspired by the sounds they are hearing.

At the end of the dream the app sounds a gentle alarm to wake the dreamer, who submits a brief description of the dream to a “dream catcher” database.

Wiseman, from the University of Hertfordshire, who is best known for his work on the paranormal, said: “Getting a good night’s sleep and having pleasant dreams boosts people’s productivity, and is essential for their psychological and physical wellbeing. Despite this, we know very little about how to influence dreams. This experiment aims to change that.”

As many as 10,000 people are expected to take part in the mass-participation study, launched at the Edinburgh international science festival.

Wiseman teamed up with app developers Yuza, which created the Dream:ON software.

Participants will be encouraged to share their dreams via Facebook and Twitter.

A national survey conducted for the experiment found that 21% of respondents had trouble sleeping and 15% suffered from unpleasant dreams.

Wiseman said depressed people dreamed far more than others, and often had negative dreams. “Perhaps improving their dreams might help them,” he added.

The Dream:ON app can be downloaded for free from iTunes or via the project site, [dreamonapp.com](http://dreamonapp.com).

---

Task 3. An excerpt of 349 words from the book *Heaven is for real* (2010) de Todd Burpo y Lynn Vicent.

---

One evening in October, I was sitting at the kitchen table, working on a sermon. Sonja was around the corner in the living room, working on the business books, processing job tickets, and sorting through payables. Cassie played Barbie dolls at her feet. I heard Colton’s footsteps padding up the hallway and caught a glimpse of him circling the couch, where he then planted himself directly in front of Sonja.

“Mommy, I have two sisters,” Colton said.

I put down my pen. Sonja didn’t. She kept on working.

Colton repeated himself. “Mommy, I have two sisters.”

Sonja looked up from her paperwork and shook her head slightly. “No, you have your sister, Cassie, and . . . do you mean your cousin, Traci?”

“No.” Colton clipped off the word adamantly. “I have two sisters. You had a baby die in your tummy, didn’t you?”

At that moment, time stopped in the Burpo household, and Sonja’s eyes

grew wide. Just a few seconds before, Colton had been trying unsuccessfully to get his mom to listen to him. Now, even from the kitchen table, I could see that he had her undivided attention.

“Who told you I had a baby die in my tummy?” Sonja said, her tone serious.

“She did, Mommy. She said she died in your tummy.”

Then Colton turned and started to walk away. He had said what he had to say and was ready to move on. But after the bomb he’d just dropped, Sonja was just getting started. Before our son could get around the couch, Sonja’s voice rang out in an all-hands-on-deck red alert. “Colton Todd Burpo, you get back here right now!”

Colton spun around and caught my eye. His face said, What did I just do? I knew what my wife had to be feeling. Losing that baby was the most painful event of her life. We had explained it to Cassie; she was older. But we hadn’t told Colton, judging the topic a bit beyond a four-year-old’s capacity to understand. From the table, I watched quietly as emotions rioted across Sonja’s face.

## Appendix 2. Evaluation sheet

Type of mistake	Direct translation	Inverse translation
Opposite meaning, incoherent meaning	-1	-1
Not the same meaning, false meaning	- 0.5	- 0.25
Unnecessary omission or addition of meaning	- 0.5	- 0.25
Grammar, spelling, punctuation. word order, cohesion	- 0.5	- 0.25
<b>Other aspects</b>		
Transference of the message, use of translation strategies, solutions to translation problems, reading easiness	+ 0-2 points	+ 0-2 points