New Frontiers in Translation Studies

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Defeng Li
Lu Tian *Editors*

Translation Education

A Tribute to the Establishment of World Interpreter and Translator Training Association (WITTA)

Springer

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Series Editor

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Introduction

In today's global village, translation plays a pivotal role in and has profound implications for social and cultural development. Translation education, in this regard, is becoming increasingly a matter of global concern and interest. Advances in artificial intelligence, big data, and cloud computing have brought about considerable changes in the translation landscape, presenting challenges and opportunities at the same time. As we strive to embrace the translation technology and brace ourselves up for the challenges ahead, the importance of international collaboration in translation education has become more prominent than ever before. More and more translation teachers have come to realize that the success of translation training in one context can benefit from that in other contexts. Sharing and collaboration have become two key terms in the success of translation education in the 21st century. It was against such a background that 44 academic institutions from around the world including tertiary institutions, academic journals and publishers, and language services providers from the UK, Australia, Canada, Russia, Japan, South Korea, Singapore, China (Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan) gathered together in Guangzhou, China, in November 2016 and founded the World Interpreter and Translator Training Association (WITTA), an academic organization dedicated to world interpreter and translator training and related research.

As a non-governmental and non-profit international association, WITTA works with other national and international organizations of translation and interpreting, such as the European Society for Translation Studies (EST), International Federation of Translators (FIT), Translators' Association of China (TAC), and so on. As the first international organization devoted entirely to translation and interpreting training and education, WITTA works closely with its strategic partners on projects and causes they all care for but it will also be working on its own projects of priority, with a focus on translation/interpreting studies and training in the Asian-Pacific regions, where the long-established international translation and interpreting organizations currently do not yet have a strong presence. Another feature of WITTA is its focus on knowledge transfer and the integration of institutional translator training with the translation and interpreting services industry.

WITTA sets the following as its aims. First, it is to create a platform for promoting interpreter and translator education and research, development of training resources, and collaborations among its members. Secondly, WITTA endeavors to build an international community combining interpreter and translator education, research, and technological services by taking advantage of the interdisciplinary role of translation studies in the integration of languages and cultures. Thirdly, WITTA strives to establish a number of centers of worldwide influence for cross-cultural communications, academic exchanges, research on translation education, development of teaching materials, as well as language services.

The First WITTA Congress was held with the theme "Translation in Education and Education in Translation" during November 19–20, 2016, at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China. More than a hundred experts and scholars of translation education attended the Congress and conducted in-depth discussions on a wide range of topics concerning interpreter and translator (T&I) education including T&I in an educational setting, new approaches to T&I education research, corpus, and computer technology in T&I education, language service industry and T&I education, development and assessment of T&I competence, and cultivation of critical and creative thinking in T&I education. A special forum was held on government–university–enterprise collaboration and innovation in T&I education.

The First WITTA Congress was a huge success with a lot of warm and positive feedback from participants, member institutes, and researchers in the field of interpreter and translator education. This biannual congress was then held during October 13–14, 2018, at the University of Westminster in the UK, and the Third WITTA Congress will be held at Nanyang Technological University in Singapore in 2021. To commemorate this new development in world interpreter and translator education, we are planning to publish a series of edited volumes containing selected articles submitted to the congresses. The first volume contains eleven articles selected from all the contributions to the First WITTA Congress. They cover a wide range of topics on interpreter and translator education. There are discussions addressing translation education from macro perspectives as well as studies focusing on more specific and practical issues. The contributors include both well-established scholars as well as young scholars from different parts of the world. We hope this book will offer our readers a glimpse of the recent advances in interpreter and translator education across the world and encourage teachers and institutions to join us in promoting the development of interpreter and translator training and research at this juncture of new challenges and opportunities facing us in translation teaching.

Positioning WITTA in the era of globalization and localization, **Martin Forstner** elaborated on the challenges and missions of translation education in this new kind of partnership in view of geopolitical developments, impending digitalization, and artificial intelligence. He argues that as the internationalization of higher education concerns the training of translators, interpreters and other language service providers, all translation and interpreting trainers, as well as our students, should acquire a global mentality. In addition, translation education and research on translation studies in the new era require collaboration and cooperation among colleges and universities, governmental bodies, and enterprises in the language service industry. There is also a need for adding neighboring subjects to interpreter and translator training. Forstner concluded that given the *Silk Road Economic Belt and the 21st Century Maritime Silk Road Initiative* of China and the public diplomacy in need for language services, WITTA as a new association should strive to grow into an autonomous transnational Think Tank that generates policy-oriented research, analysis, and advice on domestic and international issues in the field of language services.

Along the same train of thought of internationalization of translation education, **Anthony Pym** reiterated that ``we all benefit from the experiences of others; we all have our favorite tricks that we are remarkably willing to share' (this volume). For him, translator training was like any education, and it was contextual, embedded, and dependent on specific local circumstances. He proposed a sociology of translator training, which could be modeled along two intersecting axes: one for the distribution of languages and the other for the intensity of information flows. This model would enable translation teachers to locate their specific situation in the corresponding quadrant of the resulting grid and decide on the directions for their programs. Looking at translator training from such a sociological perspective, Pym put forward a number of recommendations—to rethink the role of translation in language teaching and to promote social recognition of translators at different levels and with different kinds of skills and to work together toward an international system of professional certification of translators.

One of the most popular moves in translation education in recent years is the adoption of a learner-centered curriculum. Translation teachers hope that this shift from the traditional teacher-centeredness to learner-centeredness in curriculum design and teaching methods will bring students better learning experiences and greater learning outcomes in their study of translation and interpreting. To realize the shift, many pedagogical ideas and methods have been borrowed from other disciplines. However, their application in the context of translation teaching has not been tested. **Defeng Li**, **Victoria L. C. Lei**, and **Kefang Chen** examined the use of group work, an activity borrowed from language education, in the teaching of translation from the learners' perspectives. It was found that translation students generally had positive experiences with the group work and noticed growth in their skills and knowledge but they also encountered difficulties.

In the business of translator education, teachers are one of the key players. Over the years, translation training has suffered from a shortage of competent translation trainers, particularly in contexts where translator training has been growing exponentially in recent years. **Nikolay Garbovskiy** and **Olga Kostikova** addressed the problem in their chapter on ways to train translation teachers. For Garbovskiy and Kostikova, translation didactics, as a special branch of pedagogy, investigates the process of forming a personality that enables one to develop special competencies and mental capacities and to realize the uniqueness of their social status. They first analyzed new challenges of training professional translators and interpreters in the new millennium and made a distinction between the notions of translator training and teaching translation activity. They then discussed the connections and differences between didactics of translation activity and language didactics, arguing that translation didactics only partially overlaps with language didactics as the goal of translation didactics is to form a translator's personality with adequate competences and their social role. Finally, they proposed a self-updating and self-developing system of translator training before calling for the exploration of the possibility to train both former professional translators and university foreign language teachers to teach translation and at the same time enable simultaneous development of the personality of the translation trainer and the personality of the translation trainee.

On a micro level, **Malcolm Williams** reported on Canada's first training in Translation Pedagogy Program launched by the University of Ottawa in 2016, the first of its kind in North America. Apart from translation pedagogy research which theoretically underpins the program, this chapter specifically illustrated how elements of "generic" education theory were applied to the design of the translation curriculum and teaching/learning activities during the first weeks of activities. As the author claimed, some of the ideas proposed and discussed herein should be quite useful to WITTA's mandate for teacher training.

One big event that has happened in translation training of the world over the past 15 years is perhaps the rapid growth of undergraduate and postgraduate translation training programs in China. According to the official website of China National Committee for Translation and Interpreting Education and China National Committee for BTI Education, China boasts of 259 Master of Interpreting and Translation (MTI) and 383 Bachelor of Interpreting and Translation (BTI) programs as of April 2020, with an estimated student population of 100,000. **Weihe Zhong** gave a panorama of the recent development and future directions of translation and interpreting education in China's mainland. He believed that the rapid social and economic development in China had been the driving force behind the fast growth of translation training in the country. Since its reform and opening-up in the 1980s, China has created a huge demand for translators and interpreters. As a result, translation and interpreting education in China's mainland has been growing with leaps and bounds, especially in the twenty-first century. As a legitimate and independent discipline, translation studies are now considered as a second-tier discipline under the first-tier discipline of Foreign Language and Literature in China with a systematic disciplinary structure including Ph.D. and MA programs in translation studies as well as Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI) and Bachelor of Translation and Interpreting (BTI) programs. While the former two programs focus on academic research on interpreting and translation studies, the latter two aim to train professional interpreters and translators. Zhong indicated that Doctor of Translation and Interpreting (DTI) as a new practice-based doctoral degree program was also to be established in the country soon. Other future directions in the country included the development of Test for Translation and Interpreting Majors-Band 8 (TTIM-8), the development of Translation and Interpreting scale in China's Standard of English (CSE) to align with the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), and the development of Translation and Localization Management Training Programs in the country.

Along with the rapid development of MTI and BTI programs in China, the issue of professionalization of the translation industry has received much research attention in recent years. As two researchers who have taken a keen interest in the professionalization of the translation industry related to the legal sector, **Junfeng Zhao** and **Xiaoran Xue** conducted a detailed analysis of the norms, standards, and code of ethics issued by Translator Association of China (TAC). As the only national professional association, Translators' Association of China, along with other relevant departments and institutions, issued a host of professional standards of translation, which, to some extent, has contributed to the orderly development of this industry in China. However, Zhao and Xue argued that related laws with binding force were yet to be developed to ensure the transition of the industry from "a chaotic market" to "a professional autonomy".

Translation competence as a perennial topic in translation training has always attracted translation teachers' attention. It was the issue **Lu Tian** wanted to address in her chapter. Holding that translation was a cognitive activity of text processing, Tian considered textual competence as the core of translation competence and redefined textual competence as an integrated competence in presenting the mental representations prompted by the source text in a coherent and justifiable manner in the target text. Enlightened by Text World Theory, textual competence was thus discussed and observed at the interface of language and cognition, with the focus on the matching of linguistic expressions and mental representations. Competent translators are sensitive to the influence of language use on text world construction and can make proper use of the target language in order to present the intended text worlds coherently and justifiably. Tian argued that a worldview on textual competence would promise a more proactive approach to translator training by encouraging translation learners to be aware of text world construction and presentation during the translation process.

One striking feature of translation training today is perhaps the application and training of translation technology, thanks to the rapid development of artificial intelligence, big data, and cloud computing. **Kizito Tekwa** focused on real-time machine-translated instant messaging, a relatively new phenomenon as an outcome of the development of technology, in particular machine translation. After giving an account of the definition, uses and evolution of real-time machine-translated IM, and an overview of some of the popular IM translation applications, Tekwa examined in detail the impact of real-time machine-translated IM on foreign language learning and translation practice and training. Tekwa also addressed the issue of possible job losses in certain areas as a result of the development of translation technology and more importantly proposed how that could potentially be compensated by job gains in other areas and how translation training institutions might need to be flexible in face of the changes in the profession triggered by rapid technological advances.

Audiovisual translation is one of the newest members of translation studies. It cannot be ignored in translation training today simply because of the market needs. **Alexey Kozulyaev** discussed the rapid development of various modes of content delivery and the number of audiovisual materials to be translated every year.

He argued that it was necessary to create a flexible and effective training system to cater to the increasing demand for audiovisual translators. Using a practical course of audiovisual translation in the Moscow School of Audiovisual Translation as an example, Kozulyaev shared with the reader his considerations in designing an audiovisual translation course. He proposed a seven-step approach to help students develop a full range of translation competences necessary for audiovisual translation.

Apart from audiovisual translation, sight translation has also attracted considerable research interests in recent years. As with other modes of interpreting, fluency is always one of the most important yardsticks for assessing translation quality and pauses are often taken as an effective indicator of interpreting fluency. Based on an empirical pilot study, **Jing Fang** investigated pauses in sight translation, a phenomenon often found in student interpreters. Two groups of student interpreters at different stages of training were recruited to sight interpret two texts with different syntactic complexity from English to Chinese. The study focused on the correlation between the pauses and the syntactic complexity and lexical difficulty of the source text, as well as the training the interpreters received. Fang reported that the syntactic complexity of the source text affected the pauses of short and medium length, though the effect on the long pauses of over two seconds was limited; the training reduced the number of short pauses in the simpler text and medium pauses in the more complex text; students with longer training had significantly fewer longer pauses than the student interpreters who has had less training. All these findings and confirmations have useful implications for the teaching of interpreting.

Translation as a practice has had a long history, almost as long as the mankind. As an academic discipline, it has undergone the most rapid development over the past decades. Translation training was considered as a component of applied translation studies in Holms' Map of translation studies (as cited in Munday 2016) or an extended area of study in translation studies according to Toury (1995). However, the further growth of translation as a discipline will have to depend on translation practice as its motivation and with the growth of translation practice comes the urgency to strengthen translation training in different economic and political contexts. As the world becomes further glocalized, all translation training contexts will depend on each other more and WITTA as one of the international associations is there to contribute. This collection of articles from both senior and aspiring translation researchers and teachers constitutes one of its efforts of this sort.

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About the Editors

Junfeng Zhao Ph.D. in forensic linguistics, is Professor and Director of Center for Translation Studies, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (GDUFS). He is now the secretary general of China National Committee for Translation and Interpreting Education, vice president of WITTA, vice director of Legal Translation Committee of TAC, and vice chairman of Translators Association of Guangdong Province, China. From 2014 to 2018, he was the dean of the School of Interpreting and Translation Studies (SITS), GDUFS. He has published extensively in translation and interpreting studies, especially in legal translation and court interpreting domains.

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WITTA Between Globalization and Localization: New Challenges in View of Geopolitical Developments, Impending Digitalization, and Artificial Intelligence

Martin Forstner

Abstract Internationalization of higher education also concerns the training of translators, interpreters, and other language service providers. Their services will continue to be of paramount importance for global development, where they become increasingly important as a bridge for economic and cultural exchanges. *The Belt and Road Initiative* of China will strengthen the demand for language services in an increasingly transnational environment. Since new forms of cooperation are necessary and desirable, WITTA as a new association should strive at becoming an autonomous transnational Think Tank that generates policy-oriented research, analysis, and advice on domestic and international issues in the field of language and translation services under the auspices of digitalization, big data management, and artificial intelligence.

Keywords Autonomous translation think tank · Multicentric translation studies under multipolar conditions · Human–computer interaction in machine translation

1 Internationalization of Education Due to New Geopolitical Developments

Internationalization of studying programs and sustainable development of higher education are key themes that also affect the training of translators, interpreters, and other language service providers. The idea of internationalization is connected with getting into contact with as many other universities as possible. Therefore, universities tend nowadays to break down borders in order to path new ways for broader knowledge exchange, for enlarged creativity, research and development. Very often, they strive for bilateral cooperation agreements with other, preferably foreign universities. Many universities are very proud of having bilateral agreements with twenty or even more universities abroad. The more the better!

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The reason for this remarkable mega trend of *internationalization* was in the past the global knowledge-based society that has emerged (Forstner 2004, p. 16f). One of its characteristics was the scientization of a bulk of occupations, professions, and careers in society, since highly qualified people for more and more high quality demanding jobs were needed.

Now, we have reached another level—the science society (Kreibich 2015, p. 24), and once again the universities have to play their role of providing society with qualified experts. More than ever universities have to satisfy the demands of this science society. Higher education has become streamlined according to the demands of economy. It is economy that matters, for instance in the European Union where Bachelor and Master studying courses have been implemented.

Therefore, things changed a lot during the past years, not least because of new geo-economic and geopolitical developments (cf. Blackwill and Harris 2016, p. 23ff.). Higher education became an international service. Western industrialized states, that are usually called in current modern economic discourse *Advanced Economies (AEs)*, created branches of their universities in foreign countries, preferably in South East Asia. American Universities, Australian Universities, and British universities try hard to attract students form overseas countries, preferably from those states that are called *Emerging Market Economies* (EMEs), for instance those of Southeast Asia and the Middle East. The result was that there is now a global market for education services, among them studying programs for the education and training of translators and interpreters.

Of course, all this has to do with globalization, which, until now, refers primarily to processes of increasing interdependence and, ultimately, convergence of economies, and to the liberalization of trade and markets, but—and we have to repeat it—of educational services, too. Those rather complex and interconnected developments have created new patterns of international interdependence, since trade and economic relations have been complemented by new kinds of educational collaborations.

From all this, it is becoming clear that our universities have to take into account this new internationalized educational situation when we plan our translation training curricula. Higher education must begin *to think global*, which means that we as trainers of translators and interpreters, and our students, have to acquire a global mentality.

It is incumbent upon us to convince the translation market that translation is and will continue to be of paramount importance for all economies, especially for emerging economies that are developing their own standards and which collectively shape a belt around the southern part of the globe what Naisbitt and Naisbitt (2016, pp. 1–3) call *The Global Southern Belt*, underlining the fact that those countries will be the new game changers and will reshape our world in the decades to come.

Different cultural backgrounds have to be taken into account, be it in the context of training and educating our students, be it when working as practitioners afterwards, since professional translation is culturally very sensitive, not only in the European Union or in Latin America, but also in South East Asia, and in Central Asia, and in the Greater Middle East Region.

2 New Forms of Partnerships

Another development that has taken place during the last two decades must be taken into consideration. Today not only universities and higher education institutions are responsible for the production of knowledge and for research in translation studies and for conveying this knowledge to the younger generation, but also institutions sponsored or financially supported by governments and by the translation industry or by mighty publishing houses. Because of this, we need not only an enhanced dialog and exchange between translation and interpreting trainers/educators and the private enterprises of the translation industry, but also with national and international foundations. Promoting this dialog is one of the tasks of international organizations like International Federation of Translators (FIT), but also, as far as China is concerned, of the China National Committee for MTI Education.

Through networking with them, we can contribute to enhance the quality of our studying programs. We have learned that there is an increasing demand for all forms of communication, not only translation and interpretation. More over, there is a need for adding neighboring subjects to our translation training. Very often students want additional majors like political theory, international law and global governance, multilateral diplomacy and foreign affairs, international organizations, international finance, and economic development strategies. All this will open a window of opportunity in the interest of all stakeholders: governments, universities and their students, translation industry, and not least the translators and interpreters themselves.

The necessity of creating and implementing new kinds of collaboration has been expressed in China, too. On the occasion of the *International Summit Forum on Translation/Interpreting Studies: New Orientations, October* 31st–November 1st, 2015 (organized by *School of Interpreting and Translation Studies, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies*) the idea of founding an international organization came to light; in the words of Professor ZHONG Weihe (Guangdong University of Foreign Studies): “Institutions of training interpreters and translators should go global for possible international memberships, internships, and collaboration for solutions to the problems.”

One month later, on the occasion of the *International Forum on Translators and Interpreters Education*, December 12–13, 2015, in Beijing, in the framework of *Session III, Summit Forum for Deans of Graduate Schools for Translation and Interpretation*, Professor ZHAO Junfeng (Guangdong University of Foreign Studies) delivered a speech entitled: “WITTA: Regional economic and cultural strategy based on the ‘Belt and Road’ Initiative & innovative research and practice program on the training of translators and interpreters.”

All this was an unmistakable portent that a reorientation was to be expected since the mentioned Beijing Conference was organized by the China International Publishing Group (CIPG) and the China Academy of Translation (founded 2014 in Beijing; President: Professor ZHOU Mingwei, also President of the Translators Association of China, TAC). Indeed, on June 17th, 2016, on the occasion of the Eighth Asia–Pacific Translation and Interpreting Forum in Xi’an, Professor ZHOU

Mingwei as president of TAC underlined: “TAC is ready to join our counterparts in Asia–Pacific and other regions around the world to enhance our T&I work and make a greater contribution to the cultural exchanges and dissemination of information in Asia–Pacific and the rest of the world.”

3 The *Belt and Road Initiative* and Its Repercussions

In this context, one has to take into account a change in Chinese international relations. With reference to the ancient Silk Road (and probably its importance for today’s China as Frankopan 2015, p. 518f underlined), President XI Jinping brought forward an initiative called *The Silk Road Economic Belt and the 21st Century Maritime Silk Road Initiative.* That initiative reflects China’s confidence and wish to invest in further connections in both directions—to the Eastern neighbors (ASEAN States and Japan, South Korea) and to the Western regions (Central Asia and Russia and the European Union, but also to the Middle East and even Africa).

During his visits to Central and Southeast Asia in September and October 2013, respectively, Chinese President XI Jinping unveiled the plans to implement this initiative in cooperation with related countries (China International Publishing Group and China Academy of Translation 2016, p. 205). Those countries will have a great chance to cooperate in many fields including infrastructure, transportation, tourism, finance, energy, telecommunication, agriculture, and manufacturing. All countries and international and regional organizations are welcome to participate in the initiative (from the English Edition of *Qiushi Journal* January–March 2016 Vol. 8, No. 1, Issue No. 26).

4 Public Diplomacy in Need for Language Services

The *Belt and Road Initiative* of China with its two projects *Silk Road Economic Belt* and *Maritime Silk Road* will have, as Kühnhardt (2017, p. 195) emphasized, a strong impact on reshaping the global map of power. However, Kühnhardt continued, both projects had received ambivalent reactions outside China since they have been perceived “as an instrument of unpredictable Chinese power projection, but also as a welcome tool to advance economic modernization and integration in the weak regions of Asia and Africa.” Therefore, China and all states concerned need an effective and efficient Public Diplomacy in order to find acceptance of both projects. The importance of language services for such a Public Diplomacy must be taken into consideration when planning translation and interpretation training curricula in the whole region, since other languages besides English will probably have a chance to develop their specific translational potentials (cf. Forstner 2017a, p. 304).

Increasing economic collaboration among countries in East Asia, Eurasia, and Middle East will produce voluminous transnational trade flows that, most probably, will demand the mediation of qualified translators, interpreters, and other language professionals for communication purposes. China as an important global game changer (Naisbitt and Naisbitt 2016, p. 128ff) will be in the forefront, since the *Silk Road Economic Belt Initiative* must be looked upon as an important part of the above-mentioned *Global Southern Belt*. In his book *The Silk Roads*, Peter Frankopan (Oxford) explained conclusively that today the Silk Roads are rising again. "New connections are springing up across the spine of Asia, linking this key region to the north, south, east, and west, and taking many different routes, shapes, and forms – just as they have done for millennia" (2015, p. 514).

Looked at closely, a new world order is emerging under prevailing geopolitical circumstances. Mahbubani (National University of Singapore), author of *Has the West Lost it? A Provocation* (2018), is thoroughly convinced that the era of Western domination is coming to an end. He holds the view that, "it *is* inevitable that the world will face a troubled future if the West can't shake its interventionist impulses, refuses to recognize its new position, or decides to become isolationist and protectionist" (2018, p. 91). Khanna (2019), an Asian intellectual influencer, is even more audacious when stating the Asianization of the World, since "The Asian way of deciding things is spreading. Governments are taking a stronger hand in steering economic priorities. Democratic impulses are being balanced with technocratic guidance" (2019, p. 21).

According to this ground gaining view on Asia's Global Future (Khanna 2019, p. 357), the implementation of a *WORLD INTERPRETER AND TRANSLATOR TRAINING ASSOCIATION (WITTA)* makes sense since it would enlarge and enrich the international discourse scene and make it more diverse. Therefore, WITTA has an important task, even a grand mission. Under prevailing international conditions, it has the opportunity to become a global key player as an international umbrella organization that will take advantage of the above-mentioned developments by offering a FORUM for knowledge exchange and networking between universities, ministries, international organizations, and the labor market.

5 Digitalization and Artificial Intelligence as Impending Challenges

Advances in machine learning and machine translation in combination with digitalization, datafication, big data management, and artificial intelligence will most probably bring about changes in translation training and translation services in the professional world of translation industry as part of *economy 4.0* and *working environment 4.0*. All this will put translation services at risk (cf. Forstner 2017b). In order to avoid any unpleasant surprises, we have to think about the future of translation professions. But focusing on the future of translators' education does involve the danger that our visions of it will continue to be grounded solely in the presence which means that they will be merely *potential present futures* and not by any means *future presents*. One can avoid this by considering an absolutely contingent multiple future that will comprise all kinds of imagined futures (Beckert 2016) and by taking always into account unforeseen events since they may abruptly change the future completely and gave it a new shape.

Industrialized societies are already now confronted with the expected interaction between people and machines by making use of artificial intelligence and deep-learning possibilities. A collaborative intelligence in form of *human–computer interaction (HCI)* is anticipated. Machines will undergo some kind of *humanization* and will learn to understand people and communicate with them better and better. Of course, one must not forget the significance of the human factor in machine translation, but "the rapid advances in the fields relevant to translation technology will certainly push the field further ahead in a way that is beyond what we imagine today," as Chan (2018, p. 6) from The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Shenzhen wrote. The working environment of translators will change just like all other occupations in the age of automation. Especially unskilled and semi-skilled jobs will be exposed to the automatability of existing jobs (Frey 2019, p. 350), and for some of them their substitution potential is already now rather high. According to Dengler (2016, p. 1) the latter "indicates the extent to which an occupation could already be substituted by computers or computer-controlled machines today."

Under those auspices and in order to avoid the threat of future obsolescence of translation professions, our models of training translators must be re-examined. WITTA has to take this into earnest consideration and should offer a discussion platform accordingly as a second pillar of its *raison d'être*. WITTA should also direct its attention to existing problems connected with *Artificial Intelligence Safety Measures* as discussed during the *Conference on Artificial General Intelligence* (Prague, August 22nd–25th, 2018). On the one hand, the organizers proclaimed that "The year 2018 could be considered the year artificial general intelligence (AGI) became mainstream" (Iklé et al. 2018, Preface). On the other hand, many of the experts occupied themselves with the task of developing *Safety Measures* in order to avoid far-reaching dangerous imponderabilities. It was Domingos (2015, p. 264), one of the fervent supporters of using learning machines, who nevertheless expressed strong warnings. "The more you teach it the better it can serve you – or manipulate you."

6 Missions for WITTA

WITTA member institutions will be located all over the world and thus will contribute actively to the necessary dialog between cultures even in difficult geopolitical situations.

WITTA should become an international Think Tank that generates policy-oriented research, analysis, curriculum design, and advice on domestic, international, and institutional issues in the field of General and Applied Translation Studies—all domains included, not just concentrating on training issues.

Not only propagating but also practicing new forms of cooperation will make WITTA a global player in an increasingly transnational environment by attracting members from all parts of the world irrespective of their political systems. In doing so, this new association should strive at becoming an autonomous transnational Think Tank that generates policy-oriented research, analysis, and advice on domestic and international issues in the field of translation and interpreting training.

Therefore, WITTA must not be bound to any traditionally or ideologically preconceived positions in T&I training and research. On the contrary, WITTA members must be open to adapt themselves to changed conditions in a less westernized and a more multicentric world where connections built over a long period of time are the basis of thinking in networks. WITTA members have to adopt all kinds of training methods practiced worldwide with regard to their specific circumstances and their regional demands, especially when it comes to the languages of Asia, Africa, and Latin America. In this way, WITTA will act in full conformity with the aims and goals of the United Nations Organization.

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For a Sociology of Translator Training

Anthony Pym

Abstract Translator training can be seen as depending on specific local circumstances, primarily the distribution of languages and the intensity (frequency and invested social effort) of information flows between languages. The conceptual space thus opened allows us to map each training situation in terms of local objectives, thus questioning ideologies of universal best practices. It is proposed that, on this wider social view, translator trainers should not neglect the role of translation within foreign-language learning, and they should accept the social responsibility of training people for short-term work in minority languages. The need for such training is clear from the many situations where, especially thanks to free online technologies, whole sections of society now *think* they can translate, while whole generations of language teachers *think* they know, with equal aplomb, that translation does not concern them. Finally, perhaps paradoxically, the conceptual mapping can also identify situations where we should be training for an international professional community, with its own pressing demands for certification.

Keywords Translator training · Sociology of translation · Language learning · Information flows

1 Why a Sociological Approach?

International cooperation in translator training (or education) is much needed and is always welcome. We all benefit from the experiences of others; we all have our favorite tricks that we are remarkably willing to share. There is, however, a basic question to be formulated and repeated in most such circumstances, at least to plant the following implicit doubt: To what extent are there *best practices* that can be disseminated?

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It is common enough in all kinds of education to invent a timeline that leads from benightedness to enlightenment: what we did in the past was bad, what we do now is much better, and so we are on the road to perfection. Language education, especially, is full of invented historical linearity, as one approach or another gains adepts with an enthusiasm worthy of football fans: transmission in the past, collaboration in the future; structure in the past, communication in the future; grammar translation in the past, collaborative communicative translation in the future, perhaps?

Anyone wary of reductive binarisms should take heed and pause to reflect on an obverse model: translator training, like all education, is contextual, situated, grounded, embedded, or whatever other methodological word one might use to represent practical aspects of the social. There are always specific collectivities involved in the production, dissemination, and use of the information subject to translation, just as there are other specific collectivities to be found in the groups that pay to be trained, are paid to give training, and are certainly paid for organizing the paying, that is, to the extent that groups of people are involved, social aspects infiltrate every aspect of the activity, from the economic to the cognitive.

Hence the possibility of a sociological approach of some kind (not a "turn," since we are not sheep, just an approach). Here, it is not my purpose to evoke any heroic sociologist as supplier of truth, or to crunch any numbers from surveys, interviews, and demography, the machines of sociology. My aim is merely to open a conceptual space for reflection on relativity. I propose that a sociology of translator training can be modeled along at least two intersecting axes: one for the distribution of languages, the other for the intensity of information flows. Ideally, if all goes well, once you locate your position on the resulting grid, you might start deciding how to train your translators (and interpreters as well, since at this level of abstraction there is not a great difference).

And so to the first axis.

2 Distributions of Languages

Imagine, if you will, a community where everyone learns their mother's language as a child, their father's language as they grow up, then their own language as they enter puberty. So, everyone speaks at least three languages, to some degree. Something like this happens in the more traditional indigenous communities in the very north of Australia. For example, a community of some 450 people on the island of Warruwi can use five different languages, with widespread receptive competence in each (Singer and Harris 2016). In such a community, no internal translating should be needed. Or rather, everyone can translate themselves, and translate each other, all the time. No translators should be needed, or everyone can be a translator. There is no translator training. Let us call this the "everyone can translate" model, for want of a technical term.[1]

Now imagine a community where everyone learns just the one language, and those speaking any foreign languages are regarded with suspicion. This might concern cases such as classical Sparta (according to Herodotus 450–420 BCE/1914, Book 7), West Africa in the eleventh and twelfth centuries (Smith 1989, pp. 15, 19–20, 25), or the *Oranda tsuji* in Japan (Cullen 2003, pp. 60ff.). In Sparta, a special family lineage, with their own demi-god, was charged with communication with foreign powers; in West Africa, the professional interpreters-cum-negotiators tended to be literate Muslims; in Japan from 1641, the interpreters of Dutch inherited their positions and lived in confinement, lest the nation be contaminated by too much foreign information. Let us call this the "professionals only" model, for the sake of descriptive transparency.

The distinction between these two models maps partly onto the way new mediators are recruited. If the distribution of languages is wide and there are many polyglots, then internal or domestic recruitment is possible: you train members of your own society. If not, you seek outsiders, either by employing unattached professionals (as in the examples above) or by capturing outsiders (as Columbus did, for example). This in turn creates different problematics of trust: you tend to trust your own kind, mistrust mediators from the outside, and enact rules and measures to control the difference (cf. Rizzi et al. 2019).

Almost all societies are between these two extremes: the distribution of languages is such that a greater or smaller proportion of the population is able to translate, and correspondingly greater or smaller groups of marked professionals are required. This can be complicated by the way the distribution operates in the two or more societies usually concerned in translation flows, but the basic logic remains the same.

The extreme mix of these two models is when online language technologies allow everyone in a monolingual society to *think* they can translate. Less radical mixes are prevalent when, for example, the "everyone can translate" model comes under pressure from a sudden influx of new language demands, due to migration or changing trade patterns. Similarly, the "professionals only" model is seriously challenged when a previously restricted language becomes a lingua franca, as might be the case of English or Chinese. When all primary school children in China start learning English, one day they will theoretically all be able to translate, to some degree. But when, for instance, the Chinese government wants to tell its story to the world right now, then many highly professional translators are needed, with extreme selection processes, in addition to all the other levels of competence and trust that still retains their social functions. Opera singers have to be selected and paid well,

[1]My Melbourne colleague Ruth Singer tells me that translation does actually happen on Warruwi, not because people need access to languages but because of taboos on certain social relations (broadly called "poison cousins"). For example, a man is not supposed to speak directly with his mother-in-law (there is wisdom in traditional societies), so various forms of indirect or mediation communication take place, sometimes involving translation. I nevertheless retain Warruwi as an abstract model of non-translation, despite the real-world reminder that a society without translation may be impossible.

but many other kinds of singers are listened to and appreciated, and all of us can enjoy singing badly. Translation has no reason to be different.

3 Intensities of Information Flows

If there is no demand to send or receive information, then there may be no demand for translation, no matter how propitious the distribution of languages. On the other hand, if there is constant demand for information, then there may be intensive translation activities, even despite an unpropitious distribution of languages. These factors oblige us to recognize the pertinence of at least one further axis, specifically for information flows.

By "intensity" of flow, I mean the *frequency* (how much information over a period of time) and the *degree of social effort* invested in moving the information (how many mediators, how much they are paid, how many resources are invested in their selection and of course in their training). Both these factors are heavily influenced by the available communication and translation technologies, which give this axis a marked historicity. "Intensity" is thus a composite variable, the most powerful component of which I presume to be technology.

The intensities of information flows are pertinent for three main reasons.

First, most information flows tend to be short-term and marked by extreme variation. The historical graphs plotting numbers of translations jump up and down, in quite a fractal way (the jumps are visible on both the small scale and the large scale). That is, many (though certainly not all) demands for translation tend to be short-lived and subject to change. This is why communities of mediators tend to be highly flexible: It should be no surprise that, overall, the professional translation community in Europe and elsewhere is about 60% part-time (translation and interpreting are mixed with teaching, editing, writing, and much else) and 74% freelance (there are relatively few in-house translation departments) (Pym et al. 2012, p. 4). These features allow the workforce to expand or contract in accordance with variable information flows.

Second, there are language pairs where the information flows are relatively strong and constant over time. In those situations, it becomes more cost-efficient for communication participants to learn languages than to rely on mediators. That is, the very intensity of the information flows works against the social demand for translators. So, one cannot bank on reproducing an extensive group of professional translators for generation after generation, unless there are particular high-risk circumstances that are repeated or a language is particularly difficult to learn for the other side (Chinese for speakers of English, for example). This is why the axis of information flows has significant effects on the axis of language distribution, and vice versa, and both inform the social need for translator training.

Third, the relative degree of social investment affects not just who is trained, but also who does the training. In low-frequency information flows, where the occasional translation carries out a phatic communication function ("Are you still there?" says one culture to the other), the intercultural community is likely to be very small, and training tends to be offered by a handful of experts. This is the case, for example, in NAATI examinations in Australia, where some of the languages of lesser diffusion have such small communities that there may be only one recognized expert, who is perhaps setting exams for the others with that specific language combination. On the other hand, in a language pair where everyone translates, the social investment may not be in translator training at all: language teachers will be the ones training the translators, as a side effect of the way they (should) use translation in the additional-language class. This might be the case of the European nineteenth century, where there were few other ways of learning how to translate.

A prime example of the way these axes interact can be seen in the growth of English as an international lingua franca. The more people learn English, the more widespread translation activities in English become, and the less social effort may be put into training the broad range of translators. Tian (2014) compares English novels translated into Chinese in the 1950s with the same novels translated in the 1990s; he finds that the later translations are lower in quality. Similarly, Fallada Pouget (2000) compares Spanish restaurant menus translated in the 1970s with those translated in the 1990s; she finds that the general quality has decreased. This is not because there is no translator training in China or Spain; it is rather because the information flows from English are so intense that the training cannot keep up with the demand, everyone learns a bit of English, and whole new generations *think* they know how to translate. One could imagine that the quality might eventually decrease further to the point where no one will trust the translations, everyone will learn English, and everyone will effectively be translating for themselves, perhaps badly but happily. This would be a situation where adverse selection leads to a collapse of the market for good translators (Chan 2008).

Once you open the conceptual space of these two axes, the tasks of translator training become highly situational. Whenever someone tells you how translators should be trained, or what an ideal program or class looks like, the first thing you should think is this: Well, it depends ….

Now we can start to say *what* it might depend on: the distribution of languages and the intensity of information flows, and then a whole lot more, of course, but we have at least marked out a territory and started to think in social terms.

4 Mapping Where You Are

Once you have these two axes as rough dimensions, it is theoretically possible to map out where you are and hopefully where you want to go. This will never be an exact science, but it can be an instructive intellectual exercise.

Figure 1 is my attempt to map the few cases I have mentioned here, along with a space for the “diplomatic translators” who were trained on a more institutional basis from the nineteenth century, mainly between national languages and French, the diplomatic lingua franca of the day. The two axes should be clear enough in

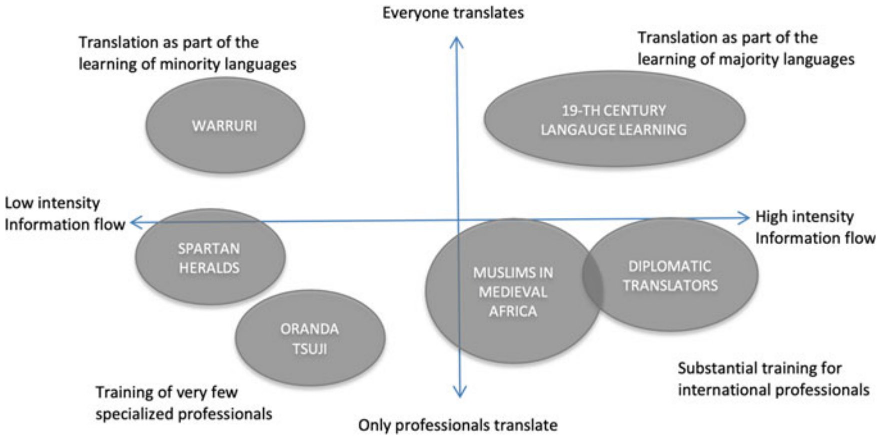

Fig. 1 Attempt to map basic translator-training situations

terms of the explanations given above. In each of the four corners, I have suggested the sort of training activity one might expect to take place there, if indeed there is any training at all (in the top-left quadrant, especially, one would expect the transfer operations to be absorbed into general language acquisition). I have then positioned the case studies as best I can, at least to the closest quadrant.

The first lesson to be learned from this exercise is that, in the top half of the space, translator training might be expected to be a part of language learning, and only in the bottom half should we expect to find separate programs for training translators, or indeed a separate academic discipline for research on translations. Whatever our imaginary disciplinary divides these days, the logics of languages and information flow suggest that too narrow a focus on just one kind of training is going to hide about half of what is going on: the hard-won independence of translation studies may not always be a good thing. I will return to this below.

5 What This Means

Looking at translator training from this perspective, I see two main things we might *not* need, and three that we could need.

5.1 *The Non-transferability of Best Practices*

The training methods you apply for long-term stable information flow between dominant languages clearly need be the same as those you use for short-term contact with lesser-used languages. Europe has been discovering this in recent years: It trained translators in the major colonial European (and occasionally Asian) languages, but not in the numerous languages from Africa and the wider West Asia that have been entering in the form of refugees and asylum seekers. Something similar might be happening around the fringes of China. The training system, geared for long-term conversations between national elites, was radically unprepared for the new challenges of mass immigration.

This same message can be applied across the board. What works between the major languages of Europe with pen and paper need not work between asymmetrically related languages in Asia with electronic media. In each particular training situation, for each particular language pair, for each technological generation, we need to think anew.

(In this regard, there is a self-serving concern in Western translation studies that we need to import non-Western perspectives. That binarism is self-serving and banal: what we need to do is think from the ground, in each new case, in each new situation, with little regard for what is east, west, north, or south.)

5.2 *The Perils of Abstraction*

One convenient way of avoiding the problems of specificity is to offer abstractions instead of teaching: offer students theories, research seminars, ethics, technologies, and several other flavors of "language-neutral" courses, instead of training sessions that are specific to a given language pair. This is bound to happen in any training program to some extent, but when the proportion of language-pair-specific courses drops below about 20%, then I suggest something different is afoot.

There are some ten one-year Masters programs in the United Kingdom that are members of the European Masters in translation network. Their average minimum proportion of language-specific teaching contact credits is about 15% of the total credits in the Masters (Torres-Simón and Pym 2019). So, it seems that some of these programs (certainly not all!) are putting students with many different language pairs together in the one classroom, teaching them all the same thing (except for the 20% or less of the time spent with language-specific tutors), then sending them out into the world as qualified translators (and sometimes interpreters). What is going on here? I suspect that international students are paying a lot of money to be in the United Kingdom in order to improve their English and learn something *about* translation. That is a good thing, but it is not translator training: It is dressed-up over-priced language immersion. It is happening now, and it is concealed under a huge cloak of abstraction: Since it is much cheaper for an institution to teach language-neutral content (all languages together in the one place), there is a lucrative institutional demand for theorization at all language-neutral levels.

5.3 *The Need to Rethink the Role of Translation in Language Teaching*

Since language teaching interacts with translation in several tricky and sometimes quite perverse ways, we cannot afford to exclude it from our vision.

In a situation where everyone is in a position to translate for themselves, there is no guarantee they are going to do a good job of it, or that they are in any way aware of the range of solutions that a professional translator can call on. In particular, the creation of situations where everyone *thinks* they can translate, especially through free online machine translation, creates an urgent social need for training in how to use those technologies (the basics of postediting), when to trust them, and more especially when *not* to trust them and that training can be called translator training, but a lot of it could also be called language teaching, since the technologies can also be used as language-teaching tools.

In Europe and North American, translation activities were wrongly excluded from foreign-language classrooms for most of the twentieth century, both by the ideologies of translation as an independent discipline (on the side of translation studies) and by immersion or "communicative" ideologies of language acquisition (in language education) (Pym 2018). This seems not to have happened so much in China (Pym et al. 2013, p. 108), but there is still a dearth of attention to the pedagogical virtues of translation.

A key idea here, enshrined in the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (Council of Europe 2001) but perhaps not elsewhere, is that translation is part of a wider skillset called "mediation" (alongside interpreting, gisting, and otherwise getting a message across in a foreign language).[2] This mediation is recognized as the fifth language skill (after speaking, listening, writing, and reading), as a properly communicative activity in its own right. Translation is thus something that all language learners might want to do with the languages they have learned; it is something that students are doing anyway in each act of transitory mental translation; it is a useful resource to be integrated into the language-teaching classroom, alongside many other forms of spoken and written activity. If this is to be done in any measured and substantial way, then a lot of language teachers have to discover the intricacies and creative potential of translation; they would benefit from seeing it as a truly communicative activity, rather than as a correctional check on language acquisition.

For too long, translation scholars and translation teachers have sought to live in splendid isolation from additional-language teaching. It is time that we corrected our

[2]The *CEFR Companion Volume with New Descriptors* (Council of Europe 2018) nevertheless says that translation and interpreting are excluded from its descriptors, ostensibly because professional translators and interpreters are so linguistically gifted that they enter some stratospheric domain, above the normal scales used for language learners (2018, pp. 35, 107, 113). That no doubt flatters professional translators and interpreters, but it does so at the price of disregarding translating and interpreting as widespread language skills.

erroneous institutional politics in this regard. It is time that we started talking with language educationalists, and they with us.

5.4 The Need for Social Recognition of Translators at Different Levels, with Different Kinds of Skills

Once you are aware of the various distributions and intensities, it becomes clear that translation is occurring at many different levels and for many different reasons. It is no longer enough to focus simply on the highest-level experts, as if the rest did not matter or could not benefit from training.

We should recognize that there are many different levels of translation performance: what is good enough on the time-pressured immigrant frontier is not good enough for state treaties, and what is done for state treaties simply cannot be done on the immigrant frontier, for want of time and social investment.

In practice, this means developing more short-term courses for those who are on the front line and are otherwise untrained in translation skills. And then, attention is needed to the many mid-level training programs that can be used to upgrade the translation skills of professionals who are not employed as full-time translators but carry out occasional translations nevertheless. They, too, should fall within our purview.

5.5 The Need for an International System of Professional Certification of Translators

In our grid, the axis of language distribution reminds us that translators can be recruited either domestically or from the outside. The extreme mobilities of globalization, however, suggest that even that division is no longer stable, since translators move from society to society, and they can sell their services online in many different societies. Once trained, mediators are not tied to the initial distribution of languages and translation flows. In the larger languages with the more intense flows, successful professionals tend to work as members of a professional intercultural community.

Recognition of this international dimension could threaten to pull down the entire edifice of everything I have said so far. If training is always tied to local demands and constraints, how can we be training for what would appear to be a truly international job market? Surely the global contradicts the local?

The answer concerns quantities. On my reckoning, there is the equivalent of some 333,000 full-time translator and interpreters in the world who declare this as their profession in tax returns and the like (see Pym et al. 2012, p. 133). Those are the people susceptible to work on an international market—it is not a huge number. Yet the number of people who have received or are receiving some training in translation is greater, probably much greater (if you include all the translation that is or should be used in additional-language programs). The practice of translation is much wider than the high-end global market, and the social demands are much greater in ethical importance. The localism persists because we should be training for the many different levels and types of needs; the international professional community remains a relatively small social group, certainly exercising allure but not providing sufficient basis for universal best practices.

Within that restrictive frame, one of the consequences of high-end mobility is the need to harmonize the many ways in which the quality of translators is signaled to those who pay for that quality. This can involve the mutual recognition of academic qualifications, but the more substantial challenge is to have mutual recognition of exam-based professional certification systems.

This has been attempted in Europe with the TransCert project. There have also been associated initiatives from the United States, notably through the efforts of Alan Melby. All those initiatives have so far run aground on the rocky shores where industry meets academia, where there is amazingly little mutual trust.

So one of the things I would like to see a world association of translator trainers work toward is a system for the mutual recognition of professional certification systems—not just for the elite of the profession but for many para-professional levels as well.

6 Several Ways Forward

Since the conceptual space of translator training is vast and complex, there is more than one way to solve problems and move forward.

I have suggested that the first thing that any trainer should do is look at where they are in local terms, at their specific part of the language-distribution and information-flow axes. Once you know where you are, and what kind of people you are training, and what specific kind of activity you are training them for, then you can look around and borrow models and ideas from anywhere you like.

A second suggestion is that one should resist the temptation to aim for the high end of the translation market only, as if all your graduates were going to find long-term employment there, and as if there were no other social uses of translation that can benefit from training.

Third, as a continuation of this call to basic social responsibility, I have suggested that we would take an active interest in the uses of translation in additional-language teaching, since that is where most students are gaining their knowledge of translation (often along with gross reductionism, if not outright prejudice).

And fourth, as a possible way forward for the more international community of professional translators, I have proposed that we take active position in favor of international certification, starting at whatever level proves most convenient.

The common point of departure for all these avenues is basic awareness that translator training is not just one thing. It evolves in human contexts, in relation to specific human demands, aspirations, and technologies. It should not be reduced to timeless principles and technicalities. And there is urgent work to be done, on both the local and international levels.

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Group Research Project in Translator Training: Students' Perceptions

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Abstract Learner-centred teaching is one of the key elements in almost all curricular innovations in translation training in the twenty-first century. Meanwhile, trainers and scholars have advocated the introduction of research and teamwork into the training of future translators and interpreters. While these ideas and approaches are often seen as desirable, we have little knowledge about whether and how they work in the context of translation training, which may have a very different set of goals compared with other disciplines. For instance, how do translation students see these notions and approaches? What are their experiences with them? Such questions warrant our attention in order to ensure any success of curricular innovations. This chapter adopts a qualitative approach and looks at the reactions of students from an MA in Translation Studies programme towards group work/project, which is commonly used in second language teaching, in their learning of translation. To offer the reader an authentic feel of how the learner-centred approach blending research and teamwork was received, the students' comments are presented verbatim with little editing. Their curricular and pedagogical implications are discussed where appropriate.

Keywords Learner-centred teaching · Translation training · Curricular innovation · Students' perceptions · Group work/project

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1 Introduction

Since the turn of the century, translation teachers and scholars have been calling for learning- and learner-centred curriculum in translation education (e.g. González Davies 2004; Li and Hu 2006; Orlando 2016; Tao and Xie 2019), and many approaches, methods and strategies have been proposed to realize this goal. Kiraly (2000) proposed the social constructivist approach to translation education and argued that learner-centredness is one of the most prominent characteristics of the approach. Li (2015) proposed the project-based approach to teaching business translation as a means to place translation students at the centre of learning. For similar purposes, Mellinger (2018) advocated problem-based learning in the teaching of computer-assisted translation, and Massey et al. (2014) suggested the application of action research in the teaching of translation. In all the propositions, learner-centred curriculum and teaching is one of the key features and often the primary motivation for their application.

What is a learner-centred curriculum? What does learner-centred teaching mean? According to Jones (2007), learner-centred teaching and learning refers to the shift of focus from the teacher to the learner in teaching and learning activities. It stresses learners' independence by having them take an active role in their learning and construction of meaning. The following are amongst the most prominent features of a learner-centred curriculum (Cullen et al. 2012; Weimar 2012):

1. Learners' active participation in learning and teaching activities
2. Learners' frequent communications with their peers and the teacher
3. Learners' active involvement in meaning construction
4. Learning from peers
5. Collaboration amongst peers
6. Learner's reflections on their learning.

Li sums up the differences between teacher-centred approach and learner-centred approach:

Teacher-centred approach	Learner-centred approach
• The focus is on the teacher, the holder of knowledge • Learners sit quietly, receiving knowledge from the teacher	• The focus is on the learner as well as the teacher • Learners construct knowledge of their own through experiencing and reflection
• The focus is on teaching, which is understood mainly as the transmission of knowledge	• The focus is more on learning than teaching; emphasis is placed on the development of learners' critical and problem-solving abilities
• The teacher talks • Learners listen and receive	• Learners interact with peers as well as the teacher • The teacher facilitates

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Teacher-centred approach	Learner-centred approach
• Learners work alone • The teacher monitors and evaluates learning	• Students learn (construct knowledge) • Through interactions with peers, the teacher and the materials
• The teacher answers questions • The teacher is responsible for the teaching and learning to occur	• Students take responsibility for their learning, which leads to a heightened sense of ownership and strengthened motivation about learning
• Specially designed contrived materials are used in teaching	• Authentic (or simulated) materials and contexts are adopted in teaching

Li (2013, p. 3)

The implementation of a learner-centred curriculum needs appropriately designed learning activities. In such activities, learners are to acquire knowledge via active participation, identifying problems, making decisions, constructing knowledge, collaborating with peers and monitoring their own learning. The teacher as the facilitator is to provide the support and consultation when needed. Amongst others, group work is often recommended as a useful and effective activity for this purpose, because it is easy to design and "students have equal responsibility for performing a task and find it difficult to 'hide' in a small group" (Brown 2007).

Group work refers to any learning and teaching activities that require students working together on a task in and out of the classroom. It can be small, involving 3–5 people, or large, involving more people in a group. According to Exley and Dennick (2004), group work should have the following aims.

1. Development of intellectual understanding, abilities and skills
2. Development of communication skills and teamwork spirit
3. Growth in self-confidence
4. Enhancement of sense of responsibility for their own learning
5. Development of reflective learning
6. Development of professional standards, values and ethics (pp. 4–5).

These aims fit in well with the skills and competences required of professional translators today. In addition to the bilingual, extralinguistic, strategic, instrumental competences and translation knowledge proposed by PACTE (2005), professional translators, especially those who aim to become full-time freelancers, will also need another set of skills to succeed in the market today (see, e.g., Rotheneder 2007; Coban 2015; Robinson et al. 2016). Communication skills are essential since they will be working with other team members and may have to deal with clients about their requirements, negotiate prices, seek clarifications about the source text or simply maintain good will with them. As freelance translators, they may need to make formal presentations about themselves and their services in order to bid a translation project and engage in a translation project. As part of the overall communication skills, their ability to make an effective presentation within a specified time limit will also be handy for a professional translator. Besides, large translation projects may have to be shared amongst several colleagues, especially due to time constraint and short turnaround time. As a translator, the ability to work with his or her teammates and maintain positive collegiality matters a great deal on such occasions. Lastly, when placed in a leading position for a project, the leadership and coordination skills will be called for to ensure a smooth execution and timely completion of the project. As Rotheneder (2007) suggests, these "transferable skills", like subject specific skills, should be "taught reiteratively and in context" to translation students (pp. 4–5). Various scholars and trainers have also stressed the importance of research skills in translator training, acknowledging the interrelationship between practice and research (e.g. Gile 1995; Nord 2005; Kelly 2005; Pöchhacker 2010; Orlando 2016). With the hope to bridge the gap between practice and research, Orlando advocates that translation programmes should train future translators and interpreters as *practisearchers*—a term coined by Gile (Orlando 2016, pp. 54–55). Group work can make students develop a host of skills vital for success in the professional world (Caruso and Woolley 2008). It is known to have, amongst many others, the following key advantages:

1. When working in a group, students will be tackling more complicated problems than working alone, thus are more likely to engage in a field of study and obtain more knowledge about their subject (Qin et al. 1995; Kuh et al. 2007).
2. When working in a group, students need to improve their communication skills, as they need to communicate with each other in order to complete the project at hand. They will also need to develop other professional skills, such as the skills to research for information, coordinate efforts, organize activities and present their views.
3. Finelli et al. (2011) found that employers value their employees' ability to work effectively within diverse groups. It has been claimed that group work can enhance students' skills in collaborating and coordinating well with others (Bennett and Gadlin 2012).

It is exactly because of these perceived benefits of small group work that group work has also been advocated for translation training (e.g. Nord 2005; González Davies and Scott-Tennent 2005; Rotheneder 2007). However, how effective is it when implemented in the context of translator training? Do students carry it out as the teacher expects? What are student's experiences of completing such group work? Do they gain as much from it as expected? Such questions are still insufficiently investigated, at least in the context of translation education. Li et al. point out:

> Although literature abounds with propositions of innovative methods and approaches to teaching translation [...] relatively few attempts have been made to provide empirical evidence to actually evaluate the anticipated strengths and effectiveness of the proposed methods. Consequently, we are sometimes left wondering whether they are indeed as effective as has been claimed. (Li et al. 2015, p. 2)

This study therefore seeks to find out how group work fared in the context of translation training as a means of putting the student at the centre of translation learning and getting them actively involved in the learning of translation. Besides depicting how students behaved when completing a group work, the study also looks at how students perceived their learning as a result of completing the assigned group work. It is hoped that the implications will be useful for future similar pedagogical endeavours. For that purpose, we conducted a questionnaire survey of the students who completed a group research project for a practical translation course in the context of English-Chinese translation in the Macau Special Administrative Region (MSAR), China.

2 The Study

2.1 Context of the Study

The study was conducted in the teaching of business translation at the University of Macau, where one of the authors taught the course Business Translation to a group of MA Translation students. Group work was adopted as a way to get students more involved in the curriculum and provide them with an opportunity to develop their skills beyond translation competence per se. As indicated above, these skills would be essential to them as modern-day translators. In fact, a majority of our translation students will not become full-time professional translators when they complete their training programmes, but instead may work as teachers or take up other professions where both translation and bilingual skills are put to use. This is actually an additional reason why it is important that the students get a chance to train and hone their skills in communication, research, collaboration and teamwork, as these are the skills they can easily transfer to other contexts and professions (Bellanca and Brandt 2010). These skills will not only enhance their employability upon graduation but also benefit them throughout their careers.

2.2 Participants and Group Work

There were altogether 22 students taking the course Business Translation, three male and the rest female, aged between 22 and 27 (averaged at 23.5). All of them were native speakers of Chinese and had English as their second language. The course was offered to them in the second year of their programme. The students were instructed to complete a group work in the form of a research project in groups of three or four. It turned out that the 22 students made four groups of four and two groups of three. They were told to choose one of the following topics for their group work:

1. History of business translation in Macao
2. Translation and local economy
3. Translation market in Macao and neighbouring Hong Kong and the Chinese Mainland

4. Translation in the Macao gaming industry
5. Tourist translation in Macao: methods and strategies
6. Working conditions of translators and interpreters in Macao
7. Use of translation technology in business translation
8. Professional translators' strategies for dealing with regional dialects of Chinese in business translation
9. Cultural and social issues in business translation
10. Business interpreting in Macao, Hong Kong and Chinese Mainland.

The students were also encouraged to explore topics not included in the above list but truly interesting to them. However, they were requested to consult with the teacher for suggestions and guidance before proceeding with their own topics.

There were three parts to the project. Part One was for the students to survey the literature related to their chosen topic as background reading or documentary analysis. On this basis, if necessary, they would collect translation examples or bilingual texts for analysis. For this part, they were told to focus on any one or more of the issues, such as the methods and strategies for translating the genre in question, the main issues particular to translation of this genre, the current market situation and so on. Part Two was to make a 45-min presentation in English to share their findings with the class and get feedback about their research. Part Three was to write up the research, detailing the project and summarize the findings, incorporating questions and suggestions from the audience, as well as their own reflections on the project.

2.3 *The Data Collection and Analysis*

The students were invited to complete a questionnaire regarding the project. The questionnaire consisted of three parts. The first part was to collect some basic information about the students, such as their age, sex and educational background. The second part was made up of questions about the project, such as their rationale for choosing their respective research topics, the procedures taken to carry out their projects, their major findings and the difficulties they encountered in the process. In addition, they were asked how they prepared for their presentations and to what extent they achieved their goals and objectives for their presentations. In the third part, the students were requested to reflect on their projects. Besides some general questions about their levels of satisfaction with the entire project and the presentation, they were particularly asked to reflect on their gains and possible growth in their research, presentation, communication and coordination skills. They were also encouraged to comment on their growth in team spirit and overall knowledge of the topic they were studying.

When they finished Part Two of the project—the presentation—the questionnaire survey was administered to the students to facilitate their reflection of the group work and collect the data for the present study. The students completed the questionnaires on a voluntary basis. All the customary measures were taken to make sure that the usual ethical requirements for empirical research were met to ensure the validity and reliability of the data collected.

As the questionnaires were mostly open-ended questions, the answers were either tabulated or encoded. The encoding of the data involved repeated reading of the questionnaire responses to identify themes. The summary of the instances of each theme mentioned and referred to in the questionnaire responses was then tabulated and/or listed for reporting. As this study was meant to be more an exploratory study and the subject sample was rather small, no inferential statistics were sought. We are taking a qualitative approach to present some of the most salient themes identified in the data regarding the students' execution and reflection of the group work, with each theme substantiated with related comments from the students. In order to let the reader have a real taste of the responses from the students, we shall enlist all the major relevant responses they made with minimal linguistic editing. That is, so long as the errors or glitches do not hinder understanding, they are left intact. The students' language and their way of expression can also tell the reader more about them.

3 Findings and Discussions

As mentioned above, the entire group work consisted of three parts—researching on the topic, presenting the findings, and summarizing and reflecting on the project. Specifically, the first part was to train the students their research skills, for instance, identification of research questions, conducting literature reviews, collecting and analysing data. Such search and research skills are necessary for translators today. Meanwhile, they would develop familiarity with the knowledge related to their topics. They would also gain some experience of working together in a team. The second part was to train the students in their presentation skills. They would obtain experience in summarizing their group work, highlighting the most important points, making effective visual aids such as PowerPoint slides, delivering the presentation, taking questions from the floor and so on. In this part, the students got to learn to present their ideas in a limited time, selecting the most important points and presenting them in the most effective fashion. The third part would be their reflections on the group work. Reflection has been seen as essential for learning to happen. They students would reflect on their experience of the group work, particularly their gains, the problems encountered and lessons learned.

As the study mainly aims to survey the students' behaviours and understand their experiences of carrying out such a group work, the data analysis focused on their selection of their project topic and particularly the reasons behind it. It was then followed by outlining how they executed the project, particularly the difficulties they might have come across in the process. An in-depth analysis was also made of the students' experiences of preparing and making the class presentations. Finally, the students' reflections of the group work were studied to gauge their gains via the group work.

3.1 Selection of Project Topics

The topics the students chose to work on included translation of advertisements, restaurant menus, tourist texts, texts from the gaming sector, audiovisual texts and musical texts. One group chose to explore how the Internet might be used to aid business translation. Most chose their topics from the provided list and two groups pursued their own topics. They considered a number of factors when making the decision (see Table 1). The most important reasons were that the topic was interesting to themselves and/or their peers (59.1%), the topic was related to their daily lives (54.5%), the topic was seen as useful to their future careers and they would like to learn more about it (50%). Another reason was that they found the topic they selected easy to manage for them. For instance, one group chose to carry out some research on the translation of local tourist brochures because two members of the group happened to be working in the local tourist industry and government offices and they could lay their hands on related bilingual documents or brochures on tourism in Macau. Another group chose to focus on science and technology translation as two of the members had a background in engineering. Other reasons were that little research had been done on the topic (e.g. translation for the gaming industry) and they would like to fill in this gap in research, and that translation of a certain type of text (e.g. subtitles) was distinctly different from other genres they often came across in their study and they would like to study more systematically how they would differ in translation principles and strategies.

It is apparent that the most important deciding factors for their selection of topics were their personal interests, relevance of the topics to their life, usefulness of the topic to their future profession and their ability to complete the project successfully. However, their considerations could differ tremendously. While the aforementioned reasons are mostly pragmatic ones, other reasons some students gave might be somewhat unusual. For instance, one student cited her topic being challenging as the reason—because she liked challenges, and another student chose her topic because it was seen as more relevant to the business translation course. Still another chose her topic because it had been little researched and she was considering she might be able to do something related to it for her graduation thesis.

The implication for teaching is quite straightforward. When teachers design their curriculums, particularly when designing research topics for students, they may want to take into consideration factors such as the relevance of the topics, the usefulness of

Table 1 Considerations in topic selection

Reasons for choosing the topics	Number of students	%
Interesting to themselves and their peers	13	59.1
Relevant to their daily lives	12	54.5
Knowledge useful to their future careers	11	50.0
Easy to find research materials and/or collect research data	9	40.9

the issues to be explored, their students' abilities, etc. That way, they will be able to come up with a list of topics of interest to the students. However, they need to be aware that students' interests and goals can differ considerably. Teachers need to consider their special interests as much as possible. Certain flexibility is therefore called for, i.e. teachers need to allow students to pursue something that truly appeals to them and motivates them and/or prepares them for their future, apart from providing them with a list of suggested topics.

3.2 Execution of the Task

The students displayed different patterns in their overall execution of the project. Some groups kicked off the project with a planning meeting, in which they decided together on the topics of their project and most importantly, their aims and objectives of the project, the timeline of execution, number of meetings they were going to have, division of labour and responsibilities. One group mentioned that they elected a group leader because they believed the project would be better organized and more efficiently executed with a leader. As revealed in the survey, the more frequently they held meetings, the more satisfied they felt about their projects.

On the other hand, two groups reported they held minimal face-to-face meetings. They decided on their topic via e-mails. After deciding on their topics, they simply divided the work and responsibilities. All members completed their bits. However, upon reflection, they found they did not enjoy the project as expected.

Put in perspective, what these two groups did was not group work in its true sense. There was little exchange of knowledge, negotiation of meanings and coordination of their roles in the group occurred in the process. Each member participated in the project as an individual. Little collaboration was enacted, which largely defeated the very purpose of group work. As it turned out, these groups' presentations were much less organized, appeared to be choppy and disintegrated, and the members enjoyed their project much less according to their own post-project reflections. On the contrary, the groups who truly worked together put out generally much stronger presentations, and their pride in their work and their satisfaction gained from this project were noticeable throughout their presentations.

As for pedagogical implications, the teacher needs to give more specific instructions about how the group work should be carried out. Group work is often given to students with the assumption that they all know exactly what it is, what it entails, and how it should be carried out successfully. But actually some students have different understandings about group work and how it should be carried out. They may have different expectations about it even amongst themselves and their expectations could well be different from those of the teachers. Therefore, to ensure that group work will be executed as expected, specific instructions must be given to students as to how they should proceed to carry out a project as a group, e.g. by meeting together, negotiating their methodology, discussing their findings and drawing conclusions.

3.3 Sharing of Their Projects

All the groups were asked to share their findings in class. Each group was given 45 min to present their work, including no less than 15 min of Q&A. They were also told to prepare activities for the class in order to get their audience to participate and practice. All the presentations were made within the allotted time. In general, most groups (18 out of the 22) set up very clear goals for their projects and presentations. For instance, the group on translation of movie titles in the Chinese Mainland, Hong Kong and Taiwan reported that they met up and decided the following to be their goals of the presentation:

1. To let our classmates know about [the] movie title translation (s6).
2. To let our classmates practice to enhance their translation skills of movies, particularly movie titles (s6).
3. To [make our classmates] aware of the influence of cultures when translating movies (s6).

While this group focused on sharing their knowledge so that their peers could get something out of their projects, another group, which studied translation of advertisements, emphasized they wanted to get feedback from their peers about their work besides sharing their knowledge with them. They decided on the following as their goals for the presentation.

1. To present the theories contextualizing the whole project (s9).
2. To demonstrate the main findings of the project (s9).
3. To offer a chance for discussion and look for suggestions for further study with respect to this research (s9).

All the groups reported that they generally achieved their objectives and goals. They felt their peers learned from their presentations. For instance, the group working on tourist translation reported that "we have [*sic*) made the presentation to get our classmates familiar with the topic […] we have [*sic*) included a session [for the class] to practice and apply the translation strategies" (s10).

3.4 Difficulties Encountered

Most of the participants encountered difficulties as they carried out the projects. Some groups reported they had gathered too many materials. They felt overwhelmed by the amount of data they gathered and felt the data were too complicated for them to sort out and analyse. However, some groups found the contrary. They found that they were not able to get sufficient materials for their projects. They had to explore the library and the Internet in addition to collecting data onsite, and they did not feel they had enough materials to work with.

The other difficulty was that they ran into disagreement on the execution of the project. One group reported their members disagreed on the analysis of the data and another reported they could not agree on their respective responsibilities. As one student reported, "we fought quite a lot over the analysis of our data" (s15).

To solve these problems, the students consulted the teacher and got his support. They held meetings amongst themselves and found ways to tease out the most irrelevant materials. For disagreement, they also negotiated over and over again amongst themselves. They learned to compromise in order to forge ahead with the project and complete it in time.

As teachers, we should expect students to have difficulties in carrying out group projects. Their challenges could have to do with data analysis or project management. Besides predicting their difficulties and taking necessary proactive measures, teachers should make themselves available for consultation as the students work on the group project. Students should also learn to work together to resolve their disagreements in a group project. They need to understand the importance of negotiation, compromise and empathy.

3.5 Reflections on the Project

The students were encouraged to evaluate and reflect on their projects. They were asked to indicate their satisfaction with their research and their presentation, respectively. They were generally happy or very happy with their research and their presentations. None of them expressed dissatisfaction in either case. However, a number of participants were neutral on this, and more people felt neutral about their presentation than about their research (see Table 2).

The students were also asked to reflect on the execution of the entire project, particularly the research part. Feedback differed quite considerably. Some reported they would like to have more time for the project and the group could be larger. Others thought their topics were too broad and wished they had narrowed down their topics to make them more manageable and focused. Still others thought they would like to have more discussions with their peers. However, they seemed to have more change of mind regarding the writing up of their projects. These changes could be provision of more details, supplying useful information, adding more theoretical foundation

Table 2 Satisfaction with the research project and the presentation

	The research		The presentation	
	N	%	*N*	%
Very satisfied	4	18.2	5	22.7
Satisfied	15	68.2	11	50.0
Neutral	3	13.6	6	27.3
Not satisfied	0	0	0	0
Very unsatisfied	0	0	0	0

Table 3 Growth in skills and knowledge

Skills and knowledge	Yes (%)	No. of neutral (%)
Research skills	17/77.3	5/22.7
Communication skills	19/86.4	3/13.6
Coordination skills	20/90.9	2/9.1
Team spirit	18/81.8	4/19.2
Presentation skills	18/81.8	4/19.2
Knowledge of the subject	22/100	0/0

and contextualizing the analysis and discussions, as can be seen in the following remarks by the students:

- I would write some details of this project. It is [*sic*] a little simple for me, but the important points are [*sic*] all there (s10).
- The useful websites are [*sic*] not all over there. If I could make changes, I would show all the useful websites (s17).
- To enrich the theory part, I think I can [*sic*] use more than one theory to support my research to make it deeper instead of staying on the superficial level (s9).
- Add classification of movie title translation [...] This could give a general idea about title translation of films (s6).
- Also, add 1 or 2 paragraphs to talk about our own experiences (s13).

The students were then asked to specifically reflect on their gains in the few key skills. They reported they had benefited from this in all the aspects including their research, communication, coordination, collaboration and presentation skills. Besides, they also became more familiar with the topic they studied in the group work (see Table 3).

3.5.1 Research Skills

As mentioned earlier, previous studies have shown the importance of proper research skills to professional translators and interpreters, and actually perhaps so for many professions. One of the major purposes of the group work was to help the students develop their ability to research for solutions when they encountered problems in translation. Amongst all the students, 17 confirmed that they noticed growth in their research skills through doing the group project.

They reported they became more confident in group-based research work, where research skills are essential for the success. In general, they found they had a better knowledge about where and how to find the related information they would need for a project and how to survey the existing research on the topic they would be studying. They had the following to say in this regard.

- We developed our ability to search for information not only online but also from the field as well (s15).

- I know now I can go to DVD shops for searching information. I'm also better at reading related essays (s14).
- I know more about searching useful information on the internet. I know how to read literature effectively using online resources (s16).
- I knew where I could find the data about Macao tourism. I knew how to choose the data suitable for our topics (s20).
- We should not only search the data from the internet but also from other related places (s12).
- We should know more about the source of certain research literature (s1).
- I know more effective ways to search for the information I want. I also know what journals to read in our library (s2).
- I'm more familiar and skilled in finding articles and books related to my research topic (s8).
- I know how to find most useful information from many different sources (s13).

They also felt they improved their skills in data analysis and critical thinking, and referred to this as an indication of their improved overall research ability.

- I think I have better critical thinking skills after working with my group, choosing data for analysis and selecting examples for illustration (s7).
- I've become more objective when analyzing the collected data (s17).
- We had to select data from different sources […] That made me more sensitive in data analysis and better at deciding on the most suitable data for analysis. Literature review on the related study provided me with a solid theoretical background. Analyzing the data, combined with the direct information, enabled me to summarize the findings of our research (s21).

Another indication of their growth in research was their enhanced awareness of the fact that they still needed to improve their research skills. The following two remarks were typical:

- But at the same time, there are many research skills I have not and I've got so used to my own skills. So if I'm to conduct more research, especially the ones I am interested in, I think I will still need to be equipped with much more research methodology (s21).
- I think I have made some progress in my research skills after doing the project with my group members, but I still have some room to improve (s14).

3.5.2 Communication Skills

All except three of the students felt that the group work helped them improve their communication skills and they enjoyed the process. For instance, they enjoyed the opportunity to exchange views with their peers.

- It has improved our communication skills. We were there to comment on each other. We exchanged our opinions (s1).

Some actually felt that they had great communication skills, which had been further improved in the group work.

- I think I have some good communication skills. I can communicate with our team members and know their intention very quickly and give them some comments (s9).
- I could explain my idea to my members clearly (s5).

Others thought they might not be as good at communication as they thought. They realized that they would need to practice more in order to get across their thoughts and ideas clearly and effectively. Besides they also found some tips for ensuring successful communication. Many felt they needed to find a proper method to talk to their group members and the audience. For instance, they had to speak loudly and clearly when expressing themselves and focus on key information when making presentations.

- Through talking with the group members, I learned how to express oneself (*sic*) (s11).
- Come to more the key points. Deliver my ideas more clearly with few repetitions (s15).
- Effective communication is important when doing group project. Try to speak loudly so that every member can hear your voice when discussing (s16).
- We should choose the appropriate way to communicate with the group members as well as the audiences [*sic*] of our presentation (s18).
- When the group was having discussions, try to express your opinions clearly and openly since it is also a learning process (s6).

They also felt they should maintain courtesy when making suggestions to peers and they should look at things from others' standpoint. They believed this was especially important when they had problems to solve.

- We must maintain courtesy when making suggestions to peers (s16).
- Listen to each group member's idea and give comments. Be gentle to each other when there is a conflict (s11).
- Think more about others' feelings. It is necessary to look at things from others' perspectives (s2).
- Consider others' positions; try to help others improve their performances (s16).
- When giving suggestions, try to be polite (s15).

They recognized that sometimes, compromise was needed for all parties to reach a consensus.

- How to reach an agreement needs clever negotiation and compromise (s3).
- Reaching a consensus among the whole group may require compromise and constant negotiation (s5).

3.5.3 Coordination Skills

All except two of the students felt they improved their coordination skills through doing this group work. They also reported that they had heightened their sense of clear division of labour: everyone doing his/her best, offering help and having sufficient discussions to resolve issues pertaining to the project. They stressed that due consideration should be given to each member's interests and his/her strengths when dividing the work and assigning responsibilities.

- Make full use of academic merits of group members. Some may be good at literature review and others may be skillful at collecting data (s7).
- Obey the division [of labour] and according to the schedule, make progress and combine our work together (s8).
- Balance group members' preferences and the whole project in the assigning of tasks (s13).
- Divide the project into different parts. Let my teammates take charge of the parts which they are interested in (s14).

On the other hand, they felt that as a group, they should meet more often to discuss the problems they encountered and together find solutions.

- At the beginning when the general idea of the project is not formed, regular discussions are necessary (s6).
- Members should discuss about the problems that happened (s4).
- When coming across problems, share them with the group members so that they can give suggestions and solutions (s19).
- Each member was responsible for each part of the project. When we encountered difficulties, we would ask our members of help (s17).
- It is very important to set the goal for the presentation so that we could work towards the same direction (s11).
- Negative emotions should not appear in front of group members. More discussions should be involved (s7).

3.5.4 Team Spirit

Through the group project, the students had a first-hand experience of working together with their peers on the research project. Towards the end, they reflected on this experience and all except four felt positive about the teamwork. Most appreciated the importance of working together and every member making his/her contribution. They also understood more about teamwork and learned how to make it better.

- We must do the research together at any stage of the research (s11).
- Cooperation is the key element in team work project and everyone got their own mission and we shared the owner[ship] together (s4).
- Cooperation is important for teamwork […] (s6).

- Understand the common objectives of the team. Engage each other to finish the project on time. Encourage each other to finish the project on time (s7).
- All the members are equal and should be cooperative in collecting and analyzing the data (s16).
- It's really a good time to work with my group members as they are very friendly, efficient and hardworking (s19).
- Know how to cooperate to achieve the project. Learn how to work efficiently (s9).

They realized that in order to work together, communication was essential. This included knowing when to seek help in difficulties.

- Communication is a must during the process (s7).
- More participation, more communication, and more time to cooperate (s13).
- I have learned how to communicate with my group members if we have disagreement (s17).
- Learn to reach out and ask for help from other group members (s19).
- Every member was responsible for each part of the project. When we encounter [*sic*] difficulties, we would ask our group members for help before the presentation (s12).
- With a good team leader, we can work efficiently and every problem can get solved via communication (s21).

They realized they needed to be more understanding and supportive to each other ensure effective communication. They helped each other in times of difficulties.

- Give support to those who have busy jobs and allow those to come and meet at more convenient times (s11).
- Although most of us were working in the daytime, we still tried to spend time discussing our project all together, which I think was really good (s14).
- Each members [*sic*] will help each other if one has any problems (s16).
- We helped each other when we had difficulties (s7).
- We had a good team spirit. We all supported each other and we were eager to contribute our best to this group project (s10).
- We helped each other when we had difficulties (s19).

They stressed that they must also have clear plans about the division of labour so that all knew exactly what he or she was expected to do and everyone contributed to the project.

- Assign tasks to group members to make a reading of materials more focused (s3).
- Everyone should have his own part to contribute. No one is exceptional (s19).
- Everyone should make a contribution and no one can just sit aside (s7).
- A large project needs division of labor. Group members need to negotiate the part for which they are responsible. Different members may have preference for different parts. We need to make full use of their respective advantages on different parts (s5).

3.5.5 Presentation Skills

All students except four felt positive about their presentations and reported that their presentation skills improved as a result. First of all, they felt they gained more confidence in public speaking after the exercise. Several students mentioned their satisfaction at their boosted confidence.

- I'm more confident when making a presentation in front of my classmates and [I have got] to know how to control the time of presentation (s10).
- I feel more confident to present than ever [before] (s20).
- I'm more confident than before. I can present [it] without notes. I can present [it] fluently (s5).
- I was confident when I explained our findings. I had eye contacts with the classmates when I presented the ideas (s15).

Many students appreciated the opportunity to make a public presentation to their peers. They believed that through the exercise, they had improved their presentation skills. They felt they were more ready to talk than read when making a presentation and they would be better at managing a presentation both in terms of time and the organization of contents.

- I can now present without taking any paper notes with me (s13).
- I can explain the argument to the audience instead of reading it out. But I believe there is still room for me to improve (s17).
- I can control myself to speak slowly and clearly (s5).
- We know how to find out the main points from a lot of materials (s10).
- There should be activities but they shouldn't take too much time [of the presentation] (s9).
- I understand a presentation is not only about presenting information to the audience, but also sharing our experiences and our findings (s7).

They realized how important it was to make their presentation engaging in order to make a successful and effective communication. They felt that the sharing of their work with the class was also an opportunity to learn from their peers.

- It is important to interact more with the classmates (s22).
- I hope to make [my] classmates involved in the activity (s1).
- When doing presentation we should arouse the listeners' interest and let them join our presentation so that it would receive more attention and response during the whole process (s11).
- We must attract [the] audience's attention by interaction, such as getting them to answer your questions (s13).
- I need to have more interaction[s] with the audience. Maybe I need to prepare more activities to arouse their interest (s9).
- During the presentation, you need to engage your audience as much as possible. Presentation is an interactive activity. You're not only presenting your findings to others, but also you can be enlightened by your audiences [*sic*] (s8).

Perhaps more importantly, they thought about how they might get the audience involved. Upon reflections, some said they would add more activities in order to engage their peers more or they could prepare more thoughtful questions to make the presentation more interesting and encourage more interactions amongst the audience.

- I would like to engage my peers more during the presentation. Before the presentation, some exercises of movie title translation can be handed out to the classmates […] [I]ncrease interactive exchanges among the presenter and the class (s20).
- Add more activities. Get them participate in the presentation (s22).
- Don't talk too much. Let the audience think and do [translations] so that they will get involved (s12).
- I would like to include more practices if we have enough time. I want more interactions (s17).
- Delete the interaction link […] It was a little boring because many classmates didn't join in (s11).
- I'd like to let [the] students think of the best translation of each text before showing our findings to them. In this way, we can gather more. Information about the way of translation through sharing tasks. We can also get our audience involved (s6).
- Give effective and instant feedback to the audience's questions (s1).
- Therefore we should have some sessions for the audience to consult what they have heard from us and refresh their mind a while by doing some activities (s12).
- It is much more important to have a feel of what you are going to present to others. If you have a clear picture of what you are going to present to others, surely no presentation is boring (s21).

They also said they might alter the way they designed their presentations. They might try to have an outline for their presentations, organize their contents differently or simply simplify their presentations to ensure that the students will stay tuned and learn something from their presentations. Below are some comments from the groups:

- Set up the outline of the presentation first … Make the presentation simple to make sure that the audience have more interest in our topic (s2).
- I think we spent quite a long time in giving our presentation that may be quite boring to them. I think I would make it much simpler (s3).
- Furthermore, I might make some changes on the way how we present the subject to the audience (s8).
- It would be nice if we give more explanation on the literature review. It is [*sic*] because not everyone was familiar with the translation theory (s18).
- I would like to add a part on the features and functions of movie titles for they are quite important to know when translating (s19).

Several groups proposed they would make changes to their examples for illustration. Some groups thought their presentations would have been more focused if some of their examples had been deleted. Others thought they should enhance the relevance of their presentation to the local community by, for example, adding more examples concerning local business and culture so that the students would relate to them.

- I might make some changes on the examples so as to better illustrate our points (s7).
- We may delete several examples to make our explanation more focused (s17).
- I may cut some of my examples because there were [too) many examples (s18).
- Find more [and] better local examples in order to explain our points well (s9).
- Add more local examples when explaining the translations (s22).
- Provide more interesting examples (s3).

To enhance their presentation skills, they thought of designing more attractive PowerPoint slides as their presentation aids and rehearse more beforehand.

- A good power point [*sic*] slide is an important element for a good presentation. I learned how to make attractive power point [*sic*] slides when doing this project (s16).
- I understand presentation is not only presenting information to the audiences, but also sharing experiences and our findings (s4).
- Well organized speech needs to be prepared (s18).
- We think we did well in the presentation parts as we had a couple of rehearsals before the presentation (s7).

It is encouraging to note that some realized that the public presentation was their weak point and felt inspired as they felt their speaking skills improved after the presentation. Some even expressed the desire to have more projects in this course.

- This is always my weakest part of the project. I hope that I would have a better performance in the future (s2).
- One more presentation in the semester is welcome (s22).

Overall, the students treated their presentations with care. They displayed proper attitudes towards it though some emphasized more sharing of their findings whereas others put more stress on obtaining feedback from their peers. They also realized the importance of engaging the class by offering more activities with the students. Some may want to illustrate their points with more local examples and others would like to make their presentations more focused by removing some examples.

It can also be seen from the students' reports that making presentations can be a useful skill to develop and improve for them. They found the problems with their presentations by actually making them and they also got to know how they could improve their presentations in overall planning, content selection and exemplar illustration. Such skills will be transferrable into other contexts and in their future careers.

3.5.6 Knowledge of the Topic

All the students confirmed that they had learned a lot about their topic through this group work. The learning occurred in the form of better and more comprehensive knowledge about their research subjects, be it tourism, gaming, Internet use or movie title translation. Some stressed they became familiar with the research related to their topics.

- Then I have a comprehensive idea of previous research on this topic (s6).
- I know more about features of tourism translation, particularly in Macau (s20).
- Definitely. I have more knowledge about the translation of film titles in different regions in China (s8).
- We are more familiar with subtitle translation (s4).
- We have a better understanding about what subtitle translation is (s5).
- We have a better understanding of the casino names and casino slogans (s13).
- We have a better understanding of the government tax and translations regarding gambling (s11).
- It provided me with a good knowledge about tourism and translation of this genre, and made me well prepared for the future when I need to take a translation assignment in this area (s19).
- We are all more familiar with the topic and we will be able to use appropriate translation theories and approach in the case analysis of examples for illustration (s9).
- Before researching on this topic, I seldom paid attention to or thought about translation of this genre (s22).
- I now know the background of Macao tourism very well. I do have a progress in knowing the topic (s21).
- Have a better understanding on the topic, especially through analyzing the examples (s1).

Some students reported that they gained more knowledge about the translation methods and strategies particularly useful for translating the type of texts they were studying. The students were also pleased that they learned a lot about resources that might be helpful for them as future translators.

- I have been much familiar with the strategies of movie title translation (s6).
- We also have a good command of the strategies for subtitle translation (s3).
- That is really helpful, too. I know now more e-dictionaries that have different strengths and weaknesses when doing translations for different fields. We can make use of them (s16).
- We have also learned some common translation strategies in subtitle translation (s4).
- We now know more about the close relationship between translation and the internet resources (s17).
- I have a much more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between the Internet and translation. And I have also found the advantages of the Internet which can help us translate (s14).
- I have now a better knowledge about the sources of the materials I need (s5).

3.5.7 Other Additional Comments

The students also made some other additional comments regarding the group project. For instance, they would like to have more comments from the teacher on their projects and their presentation skills. Rather detailed comments were given to the students, but they thought they would benefit from even more comments about the project.

- It would be better if the professor could offer more comments on our work after our presentation respectively (s5).
- Give very detailed comments after we finished the presentation. Ask related questions about the presentation (s13).
- Get the findings or useful resources for each group and distribute them to classmates (s4).
- The professor can make more comments on the presentation by each group so that we can know our strength and weaknesses. And I think this will be helpful for our future improvement (s9).

Some students suggested that more guidelines should be offered to help them.

- More guidelines and advice about the project would be better (s3).
- It would be better if we could have more guidance on how to realize the objectives of the research topic (s11).
- Need more guidelines and advice on research. Also, it would be perfect if project topics had remained close to topics taught in the course (s17).

While some students preferred that the research topics should be limited to the course, others thought it would be better if there could be a wider range of topics to choose from, or if they were allowed to come up with their own research topics.

- Since this course is mostly about business and legal translation. It would be better to limit the project topics to be more related to this. It would be more practical (s22).
- It would be perfect if the project were related to topics taught in the course (s20).
- To offer more interesting topics for students to choose from (s10).

We can tell from the students' above reflections that the majority of them took an active part in the group work. They performed their own duties as individual members but also worked together with their team on their topics and achieved growth in a variety of skills in the process. Some of their tips for maintaining effective communication, building team spirit, delivering effective presentations and increasing knowledge of their topic have important implications for future students of translation.

4 Concluding Remarks

The study sets out to investigate whether group work as an instrument to promote learner-centred translation teaching is indeed as effective as claimed or expected, and meanwhile to understand students' behaviours and experiences when completing group work, a joint research project in the context of English-Chinese translation teaching. Overall, the student had had positive experiences in doing the group work. They enjoyed working closely together with their peers for the same goal. In the process, they further developed a number of transferable skills essential for them as translators or other bilingual professionals in the twenty-first century. All these suggest that group work is indeed useful in translation training as it puts the learners at the centre of all teaching and learning activities.

While most students took an active part in the group work and gained a great deal in both subject knowledge and social skills, a small number of students appeared lukewarm about the group project and less positive about their experiences of completing the project, and consequently, did not feel they had achieved much growth in their skills. Different reasons might have accounted for this and the present study, meant as a preliminary study of this sort, was not in a position to answer this question. A full understanding will occur when future in-depth studies are designed to investigate different aspects of such pedagogical attempts. However, the fact that not all the students were enthusiastic about the group work does remind us that when introducing new ideas into translation teaching from neighbouring disciplines, we cannot take it for granted that all students will be equally receptive or welcoming. Much needs to be done to ensure all students will take an active role in the learning. How that can be done again awaits more exploration along this line of research.

The real significance of this study is perhaps more of a call to examine the benefits of some of the teaching activities, strategies, methods and approaches in our attempts to go learner-centred in translation teaching. We need to find out whether they really work in translation teaching, to what extent they are applicable, in what and which aspects they are useful, whether the key stakeholders—the students and the teachers, may encounter any difficulties, and how adjustments may be made to ensure a positive experience and benefits for all learners. This is especially important today as we are keen to adopt and benefit from an interdisciplinary approach in translation education and translation education research. To answer these questions, evidence, qualitative and quantitative in nature, will be essential and data-based empirical approach will be a powerful tool to assist us achieving this goal.

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Translation Didactics: What Are the Ways to Train a Translation Teacher?

Nikolay Garbovskiy and Olga Kostikova

Abstract The chapter deals with the most common issues of translation didactics as a special branch of pedagogy that studies the process of forming a personality that will have special competencies, mental capacities and realize the uniqueness of their social status. The authors show that translation didactics is in high demand in the field of pedagogical studies today due to the fact that mass training of translators is getting indispensable to the society. In contemporary common educational environment, there is not sufficient place for training a translation teacher, who is the central actor within the system of translators training. Forming and training of educational staff within the domain of teaching translators are of primary importance. Translation teachers, even most successful and competent ones, are in effect "didactic autodidacts," people who were able to develop necessary competences by comprehending their own translation experience, making their own pedagogical experiments, conducting research, acquiring the experience of senior colleagues and studying the theory. In order to form the required competences a certain "superstructure" is necessary, which would make it possible to train both former professional translators and university foreign languages teachers to teach translation. Such a superstructure might be in the form of international update course or specialized university Master's programme, in the course of which the experienced teachers of translation, who had discovered all the secrets of this craft, would convey their experience to the less experienced colleagues. This superstructure will promote a more successful adaptation to professional activity of those graduates of translation educational institutions, who find themselves university teachers of translation, seeking wider application of their skills and knowledge. Forming and training of educational staff within the domain of teaching translators are the sphere in which the work of international professional and educational associations becomes vital.

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1 Introduction

Training professional translators and interpreters has a shorter history compared to training specialists in a lot of other fields: medicine, law, engineering, teaching, etc. Only a little over half a century ago did society realize the need for training professional translators and interpreters, therefore, the need to understand the nature of translation activity, to develop curricula and to devise a new field in the theory of training—translation didactics. Over this period, a lot of countries in the world have trained hundreds of translators and interpreters, who make up the intellectual elite of their nations. T&I schools, institutes, and university departments contributed to a didactic system aimed at training professionals able to ensure interlanguage communication of various complexity.

Translation didactics is based on general notions of didactics that have been in place for centuries. In the early seventeenth century, *Nova Didactica* by Wolfgang Ratke (*Ratichius, Ratich, 1571–1635*), German philosopher and pedagogue, was published. Since then a lot of European languages coined the scientific and pedagogical term borrowed from Latin to define the field aimed at dealing with education and at developing the theory of teaching. After W. Ratke, Jan Komensky, Czech humanist and pedagogue, in his *Didactica magna* referred to didactics as arts of all arts, to be more precise, science of all sciences.

The major objective of didactics stated long ago has not changed, it has sought to give a substantiated answer to the two questions: what to teach and how to teach. These are two fundamental questions in didactics emerging in teaching any art, science, or craft. They represent the essence of didactics as the science of interaction between a teacher and a student: major and indispensable stakeholders of any organized training system. However, the human society is changing, and new teaching conditions are emerging; therefore, even long-standing questions of didactics on the content and ways of teaching require new answers. Certainly, teaching practice poses plenty of other problems with no evident or unambiguous solutions. Nowadays, aspiring interpreters learn and make progress in new conditions, which sets new goals for translation didactics.

2 New Challenges

The new millennium has presented new challenges for training professional translators and interpreters that can be divided into three categories:

- universal processes concerning both the profession itself and professional training;

- new realities of professional translation and interpretation, innovations in technology;
- new realities of teaching professionals.

2.1 Universal Processes Concerning Both the Profession Itself and Professional Training

Nowadays, economic, political, legal and, to some extent, educational processes are globalizing, which inevitably leads to uniformity of verbal communication means. English has been steadily gaining ground as a dominant tool of international communication and has become a "lingua franca" for quite a lot of fields. However, social processes sometimes copy physical ones, to which Newton's third law applies: to every action there is always an equal and opposite reaction. The trend toward language uniformity for easier international communication gives rise to an equally powerful resolve of nations to preserve their language and cultural identity and promotes the national idea. Yet, strong language and cultural identity does not mean isolation and refusing to know and assimilate "the foreign." To give an opportunity to experience the diversity of the "foreign" world is a major social function of translation in all times, which is indispensable nowadays.

Experiencing "the foreign" through translation is a two-way road. Not only does a nation aspire to experience and assimilate "the foreign," it also seeks to introduce and present itself and its own culture to the "foreign" world. This trend, which is one of the ways to preserve cultural identity through translation when the international community is rapidly globalizing, has triggered political processes that have long remained latent, i.e., providing political support to translating and publishing works of national literature in other languages. For example, at the turn of the millennia, the French government adopted programs aimed at funding French literature translations, notably, the Pushkin program to encourage translations of French literary works into Russian. The same goal was set in Russia at the start of this millennium when the Institute for Literary Translation was set up in Russia. Its objective is to encourage translations of Russian literature into other languages and to promote training of Russian literature translators.

2.2 New Realities of T&I Activity and Providing T&I Services

New realities of T&I activity and providing T&I services are primarily brought about by two factors:

- boom in information technology innovations;

- greater specialization of translation according to fields, new emerging areas of T&I services (e.g., community interpreting), more formalized requirements to quality assurance based on clearer assessment criteria.

Boom in IT innovations has not only changed the technology of translation process, but also the translator's image. The ideal image of a translator with encyclopedic knowledge in various fields of culture, science, and business dating back to first generations of translators is gradually replaced by a new image of a learning translator. New challenges brought about by booming information flows require that a translator in this information network has new competences. It is impossible to know everything. Nowadays, it is essential to learn, i.e., to find out all necessary information as truthful and complete as it can be within the shortest space of time.

Translation process itself is undergoing radical change due to new and constantly updating automatic translation and translation memory software. Interaction between a human translator and a machine, i.e., artificial intelligence, has not been explored yet. CAT translation technology makes faster progress than understanding how a human and a machine interact. The international professional community is deeply concerned with the issue, cf. the heading of the IFT-FIT 20th World Congress in 2014.

Requirements to quality of translation services are growing in variety. It concerns even long-standing employers, notably international organizations and institutions, publishing houses, translations, and news agencies.

These radical social changes, which are *external* factors in relation to translation, and new realities of translation activity have triggered a severe *internal* human resources crisis. It is caused by aging of professional translators in language services departments of international organizations, ministries, publishing houses, information centers, etc., which have been providing quality services for decades.

2.3 New Realities of Teaching Professionals

Translation training itself is becoming globalized nowadays. Professional translator training is integrating into the global education area.

Russia is positively moving toward the global educational area, and Russian universities that train translators have to keep in mind their neighbors' experience, to take into consideration their global counterparts' opinion, to harmonize programs and curricula and to change, sometimes dramatically, their training system.

The easiest would be to abandon the existing traditions of translator training and to copy programs, methods, and all other educational tools from international colleagues. On the other hand, national systems of translator training, including the Russian one, which took shape in the late twentieth century and is based on cultural traditions, have aroused international colleagues' interest. The global professional community recognizes outstanding Russian translators' professional competences. Traditions of Russian school of translator training differ significantly from those existing in the West. Russian universities, which largely inherited their didactic principles from the Soviet era, train graduates that are supposed to have competences necessary for both translation and interpretation. Until recently, this training took five years, and the program included intensive training in languages throughout all the period of studies and developing skills of translation and interpretation.

The question arises whether it is possible to train "a translator in general," i.e., a specialist having sufficient knowledge and skills to practice both professional translation and interpretation of adequate quality to meet the requirements of the public. Traditional translator training in Russia has been based on this model. Training "a translator in general" is considerably different from the models traditionally used in top T&I schools in the West based on the concept that translation and interpretation are different communicative activities. This distinction is reflected in languages: translation—interpretation *(English)*, traducción—interpretación *(Spanish)*, Übersetzung—Dolmetschen *(German)*, traduction—interprétation *(French)*. T&I schools in Paris and Brussels, Geneva, and Monterey teach translation and interpretation as separate programs.

The question concerning the advantages of various approaches is not futile at all. At international summits and high-level forums, when stakes are very high, Soviet and then Russian professionals were considered competent both in translation and interpretation and were not inferior to their Western colleagues. This is a tangible proof of the efficiency of Russian translator training system dating back to the Soviet times. Innovations in translator training nowadays consist of finding common ground between the existing national system and international T&I training experience and in devising an efficient model that would boost the graduates' competitiveness.

The fundamental principle for training translators nowadays is that a new generation should not lack in professionalism compared to the previous one. It is no secret that public in many countries including Russia do not unequivocally give favorable evaluation of the new generation's competences. There are both subjective and objective reasons. The evaluation is subjective, since it is based on an unconscious comparison between beginners and their experienced colleagues. A lot of employers hope to get a young translator who can, from the outset, solve any difficult task; they forget that performance improves with experience.

Yet, there are objective factors with an impact on translator training, two of which are especially conspicuous:

- indulgence of the public toward non-professionalism in translation based on a false belief that a translator is anyone who knows two languages;
- lack of qualified translator trainers.

To devise such a model it is necessary, first of all, to consider the chronological order of translator training both within the one-cycle nationally specific system and the two-cycle system borrowed from the West and to compare competences and professionalism of graduates of these two programs and to focus on the ways to harmonize them, which would allow students to make a choice.

Issues of axiology, i.e., values of translation activity, deserve particular focus. It is no secret that in translator training, competence evaluation is often superficial, and sometimes sporadic. There is an evident need for impartial assessment of translator competences taking into account all the factors. However, systems of translator evaluation are far from perfect.

Moreover, it is to be determined how conditions of translator activity, i.e., the conditions in which a source text is perceived and a target text is produced, influence the essence of translator activity, i.e., to understand whether translation and interpretation are types of the same activity or different activities.

Finally, it is to be clearly realized how efficient translation "specialization" is, which means teaching "legal," "economic," "medical," etc., translation.

Thus, the existing system of translator training poses a number of questions to teachers and administrators. The solutions should be based on rational and harmonious combination of international experience, "educational services market" requirements and, certainly, extensive own experience, which generally is aimed at forming a personality with broad general knowledge and brilliant professional competences.

Pedagogical debates of the recent decades triggered by the reform in education demonstrated that there are plenty of different opinions on solving problems of teaching theory and practice, including long-standing questions of the content of education (what to teach?) and teaching technology (how to teach?) appropriate for globalized education area entangled in information networks.

Why is the existing national educational system not efficient? What can we borrow from educational systems in other countries? How could these models be used in the national education area based on national traditions, history and identity? What role does research play in educational systems of different form and levels? How can teaching be helped and hindered by the Internet and other information technologies? These and many other questions of didactics are also true for translation teaching.

In order to give a research perspective to these issues, the CIUTI General Assembly sets up a working group on translator training. CIUTI—Conférence Internationale Permanente d'Instituts Universitaires de Traducteurs et Interprètes—is a non-governmental organization, a prestigious international "club" gathering dozens of university faculties and schools training professional translators and interpreters. The major criteria for admission are to meet strict quality requirements.

The research working group is to study and to share international experience in professional translator training as well as to come up with innovations in teaching in the light of globalized education and advancing information and communication technology. Nowadays, although translator training is in demand and its popularity is growing, it is often limited to an empirical field. Therefore, the launch of the international research working group aimed to deal with issues of translation didactics and to present research outcomes to teachers is quite timely.

The group is comprised of head of T&I schools and faculties, professors, and teachers from, Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Lebanon, Russia, Spain, Switzerland, and the UK. The Higher School of Translation and Interpretation, Lomonosov Moscow State University is honored to head the group. The international research working group activities include setting up an international short-term course of training for trainers. The first pilot session was attended by participants from Russia, Ukraine, Uzbekistan, Estonia, and Poland. The outcomes of the trainers' and participants' work are presented in the *Bulletin of Moscow University. Theory of Translation* under the headings *Theory of translator training* and *Issues of translation didactics.*

3 Translation Didactics

The current situation in education is characterized by new challenges that shape research in translation didactics. Among plenty of new challenges, the most significant are boosting general knowledge of aspiring interpreters and differentiation of learning. The rapid introduction of advanced information technology into translator training and professional work also poses a number of questions to translation didactics that are to be solved in order to find the best ways of interaction between humans and CAT tools in training as well as in real professional activity.

There emerge new requirements to general knowledge and cultural awareness of aspiring translators. Today a translator is a person able to professionally handle huge flows of information. An ideal translator with encyclopedic knowledge is becoming a thing of the past. We cannot help agreeing with Hannelore Lee-Jahnke, outstanding researcher of translation theory and didactics from Geneva University:

> Le champ d'activité du traducteur est forcément devenu plus concis, plus pragmatique, plus spécialisé aussi. Il a perdu avec cela quelque peu de ce savoir encyclopédique que ses "ancêtres" possédaient. De nos jours, le traducteur est formé non seulement au transfert linguistique, mais également et de plus en plus à la communication interculturelle. (Lee-Jahnke 2006, p. 64)

Nowadays, translators have to deal with enormous information flows while accomplishing their mediation mission. No school or program can give a translator all the knowledge he or she might need. No mind is able to keep all the knowledge that might turn out useful in practical work. Every teacher knows a quotation from an ancient philosopher that a student is not a vessel to fill up, but a torch to inflame, and this idea is especially true in translation training.

3.1 Educational Models

However, educational models focused on learning terminology are reluctant to give way to models aimed at developing professional translation competences. In the latter case, learning is not limited to a specific field, however necessary or complicated it is, i.e., law, economics, international relations, etc. Yet, quite a lot of models of translator training are still focused on "filling up a terminology vessel."

We deliberately make a distinction between the notions of translator training and teaching translation activity. We prefer the latter broader concept, since translator training and teaching translation activity are different spheres of education, which overlap in certain aspects, but differ in goals, forms, and methods of teaching.

The analysis of organizing teaching of translation activity shows that it is appropriate to single out didactics of specific types of human activity into separate fields of pedagogy, which require specific didactic models of the training system. Theory of such specific didactic systems might be referred to as *specialized didactics.*

One of such specialized didactics is translation didactics, which might be compared to medicine didactics. This comparison is suggested by Mounin, one of the first French linguists who tried to devise a theory of translation activity. He wondered whether translation might be considered a science:

> On peut, si l'on y tient, dire que, comme la médecine, la traduction reste un art – mais un art fondé sur une science. (Mounin 1963, p. 16)

Medical didactics, as a science of teaching how to treat, took shape when enough empirical data had been gathered, comprehended, and systematized to answer the questions "what and how to teach," to devise theoretical models and to build up a model of teaching. Yet, an anatomical theatre, i.e., hands-on experience, is still an integral part of medical training. Translation didactics also includes "translator anatomical theatre," i.e., understanding translation concepts though dissecting translations made by other people. We might hope that in medical training nowadays the anatomical theater makes up just a small part of the training system. An organ anomaly found during an autopsy is analyzed by students under their teachers' guidance using genetics, sociology, biology, psychology, and other sciences studying the human body. As for translation training, some educational systems still favor dissecting translation into interlanguage equivalents in their quest for "equivalent translation."

Translation didactics or, to be more precise, didactics of translation activity is no less specific than medicine didactics, which devises specific models of teaching treatment as a specific activity, or diplomacy didactics, politics didactics, etc. Specialized didactics combines and embraces goals of subject didactics and the specific objective to form a personality with competences and psychological features necessary to carry out specific professional actions. Specialized didactics highlights interdisciplinary approach to teaching, which is a major principle for devising higher education models nowadays.

It might be assumed that the fact that specialized didactics has been ignored, especially by classical universities, which is largely subject-based, explains why the principle of *interdisciplinarity,* well-known to trainers in all specialized fields, is put forward as something innovative and compulsory. Quite a lot of researchers reproach university education, which largely remains monodisciplinary. For example, A. Hurtado Albir in his article on competence-based approach in translator training joins his colleague in criticizing university education and points out that it is conspicuously monodisciplinary:

> Nous partageons le reproche qu'Escotet fait à l'enseignement universitaire actuel, lorsqu'il dit que celui-ci suit des shémas propres du passé et que le cursus est conçu de façon unidisciplinaire. (Hurtado Albir 2008, p. 18)

3.2 Didactics of Translation Activity Versus Language Didactics

Didactics of translation activity is closely connected to language didactics, i.e., a field of didactics that combines features of subject didactics with those of specialized didactics, since language teaching requires gaining knowledge (about the language system, its phonetics, vocabulary, and grammar) and acquiring speech skills (reading, listening, writing, and speaking) in different situations of communication.

However, this close connection is extremely dangerous for translation didactics, as there is a widespread opinion that translation didactics is just a specific case of language didactics. In our view, locating translation didactics within language didactics is a misperception just as referring to science of translation as an applied field of linguistics.

The first and foremost reason for this misconception is that translation is a verbal activity. Thus, the focus is often set on linguistic aspects of translation. Ontologically, translation is a specific case of verbal activity. Therefore, a lot of pioneers of translation studies, such as J. G. Catford, G. Mounin, E. Nida, A. V. Fedorov, and many other linguists made an attempt to study translation using theoretical principle of linguistic science.

The second reason, in our view, is that public opinion has developed a stereotype that translation is easy and available to everyone. Natural or acquired bilingualism has long been considered as the only requirement to become a successful translator. A person with a command of a foreign language, i.e., a bilingual person, is regarded as a translator. Thus, there is an opinion that teaching translation as a specific type of activity is not necessary and that it is sufficient to study languages. In other words, language didactics absorbed translation didactics.

Language didactics deals with how to teach listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills using the knowledge of the language systems (their phonetics, vocabulary, grammar, and stylistics). In translation, listening and reading, speaking and writing are just external and observable aspects of a translation act. The core of this act is translation per se, i.e., a complicated intellectual operation and socially valuable action that requires not only knowledge, skills and abilities or, as we say now, specific competencies, but also awarness of exceptional responsibility, a certain idea of speech expression aesthetics and of social behavior ethics.

In other words, specifics of specialized didactics are accounted for by understanding translation as a social function. To determine what competences need developing, we might turn to the definition of translation we suggested a few years ago, in which translation is referred to not as an operation, but as a social phenomenon.

Translation is a social function of communication mediation between people who use different language systems that is realized through psychological and physical activity of a bilingual person aimed at reflecting reality using his/her interpretative abilities who ensures transfer from one semiotic system to another with the aim to convey equivalently, i.e., as completely as possible, but in any case only partially, the system of meanings of a source message.

Such a notion of translation determines the goal of translation didactics as a goal of forming a translator's personality with adequate competences and social role and ensures that translation didactics only partially overlaps with language didactics.

One might say that translation didactics starts at a point where language didactics finishes.

The subject matter of didactics is teaching of translation activity, while the objective is to determine ties between the teacher's activity and the learner's activity as major agents of a complex learning system with its goal, content, methods, means, principles, structure, and impartial assessment procedures.

Determining the objective of this academic discipline allows

- describing and explaining translation teaching in different conditions with different goals and within different organization forms;
- choosing efficient organization forms;
- developing new technologies of translator teaching;
- elaborating the most objective criteria of learning outcome evaluation;
- substantiating the learning content.

Prior experience is one of the pillars of this science and it plays an appropriate role in translation activity teaching. However, even the most "didactic," i.e., prescriptive treaties on translation by Bruni, Dolet, Méziriac, Tytler and other humanists demonstrated how to translate, but not how to teach translation.

Apart from the traditional didactic question of *what to teach* and *how to teach*, nowadays translation didactics addresses a number of other crucial issues, of which essential ones are: Why to teach? Who can teach?

3.3 Skopos-Didactics

Thus, there are seven major questions of translation activity didactics. Among them, *why to teach* is the pivot. Therefore, translation activity didactics might be referred to as skopos-didactics, following the example of pragmatically based theories of translation.

The objective of teaching determines its contents, methods, ways and forms, admissions procedure, and staff composition.

It is the teaching objective that makes it possible to distinguish between two very close, however, separate spheres of teaching, i.e., translation teaching and translation activity teaching. The objective of translation activity teaching is to form a translator's personality with necessary psychological qualities, ethical notions of his or her social status and appropriate behavior norms, as well as special competences to carry out the specific social function.

Forming a translator's personality requires to solve a number of other problems and goes far beyond teaching language skills. The general objectives of translation activity teaching are forming specific psychological qualities of a translator's personality, cognitive activity and research aptitudes as well as developing interpretative competences, communicative and specialized competences necessary for different types of translator activity that is carried out in various social conditions.

Thus, translation activity didactics is closely connected with such spheres of contemporary science of translation as sociology and psychology of translation activity, epistemology, hermeneutics, communication studies, etc.

Didactics is to offer ways to make aspiring translators understand their social function and the role of translation in social relations. A translator's behavior is a reflection of his or her social role. A translator's social role, to be more precise, social roles and the public's expectations of these roles are reflected in such dichotomies as *translator* and *author*, *translator* and *reader*, *translator* and their *predecessors*, *translator* and *critic*, *translator* and *editor*, *translator* and *client*, etc.

Such an approach to translator's behavior does not fit the stereotype that all translator's decisions are determined solely by the symmetry or asymmetry of linguistic or cultural phenomena faced by the translator. This behavioral stereotype goes back to the enlightenment, when the idea of human emancipation was put forward and the society domination over a person was denied. The human society was seen as a self-regulating interaction between free individuals. Therefore, a translator was not regarded as a component of the social system, but a free individual limited only by linguistic factors.

The translator's social function has been largely predetermined, i.e., to bridge gaps in intercultural and interlanguage communication, to be more precise, to ensure understanding when different languages and cultures are faced. Yet, this major social function of translation often eclipses the one that is less obvious, but that determines the translator's specific behavior. This function consists in indicating the presence of "the foreign," in signaling that the public dealing with translation is facing "the foreign." Shaping attitudes to "the foreign," i.e., understanding, overcoming, accepting, and explaining "the foreign" appears to be a major task of translator teaching and training.

3.4 Translation Activity as a Specific Form of Behavior

The concept of translation activity as a specific form of behavior brings to the fore the behaviorist teaching model, that was quite widespread in psychology in the 1950s, when translation theory and didactics were taking shape.

J. Watson, founding father of behaviorism believed that specific organization of the environment could make any individual an expert in a particular field. This idea is discernible in some translator training systems. "Give me a monkey with a command of two languages, and I will make it a simultaneous interpreter!" This could be the slogan of the behaviorist translation teaching concept.

However, the behaviorist approach ambiguity, as it in fact denies the notion of personality and psychological predisposition to a specific activity, encourages us to consider the question whether it is possible to train anyone to be a translator. Is specific environment sufficient to form a translator's personality with appropriate psychological qualities and competences? Neither translation teaching practice, nor didactics can give an unambiguous answer to this question.

The experience of translator training at the Higher School of Translation and Interpretation, Lomonosov Moscow State University shows that after a five-year course not all the students who were admitted after general examinations in Russian, history, and languages, i.e., without any specific professionally oriented selection, are capable and willing to work as a full-time translator or interpreter (Гарбовский 2012, p. 9).

It might seem to prove that the behaviorist approach to teaching is invalid and make us assume that not all the students were psychologically and intellectually ready to carry out this function from the outset.

However, the situation might be considered from a different perspective, not that of the students and their psychological predisposition to this activity, but that of the learning environment. A question arises whether the learning environment was adequately organized so as to encourage all the students to acquire appropriate competences. Was the program of reinforcement and punishment for certain behavior, indispensable within the behaviorist approach, correct? Was the *stimulus–response* mechanism, regarded by behaviorists as fundamental for behavior conditioning, appropriate?

It can be assumed that truth is in the middle. It is ideal to have trained in a four-year course a bachelor with a brilliant command of languages, aware of the intricacies of their mother tongue, with broad cultural horizons and profound knowledge of the humanities. The master's course would allow them to acquire skills to become a professional translator, language teacher, international company manager, journalist, etc. They could also pursue a career in academia and, having completed a master's degree, to become a researcher, a lecturer, or to work for top corporations, international organizations, or public service. This is an ideal picture of multiple options in various spheres. Nowadays, a wide range of professional options for a graduate is a major component of education.

However, this seemingly optimistic picture conceals a number of contradictions. First and foremost, bachelors, having completed their undergraduate degree, are not *required* to go on to a master's program. Many students will stop there. They will not make an informed choice of a promising field, or do research, or teach at top universities, or work for international or governmental organizations. Even a bachelor program graduate with a good command of languages will face a professionalization problem, i.e., the lack of professional competences.

The Russian education system traditionally introduced professionalization at the early stages, which today correspond to the bachelor's level. This teaching model allowed students to adapt to the professional environment very quickly. Most difficulties were faced by those who tried to broaden their professional options, e.g., when a translator by education started teaching or vice versa when a teacher had to provide professional translation. Here, a comment is necessary, since *to translate* and *to translate professionally* are different things. Many language teachers translate to a certain extent. They translate paragraphs or even pages when their colleagues ask them to. They are able to *help* at talks and to ensure interlanguage communication in some social situations. With some experience they intuitively gain appropriate skills for professional translation and are not inferior to professional translators. Yet, this situation concerns few happy talented people.

A different case is some *sporadic* translations of questionable quality; however, some English teachers are convinced that anyone who knows a language is able to translate. This is exactly the reason why a lot of languages departments at universities where languages are a general, but not a professional subject have been confident enough to offer translator training.

Movement in the opposite direction is also possible; however, it is less common. Sometimes translators start teaching languages. For obvious reasons, they often teach languages "through translation and for translation." With experience some of them might become brilliant teachers. As in the first case, it concerns only few happy talented people. Yet, educational models and programs are not devised only for talented people. Quite a lot of young people might face the need of professional adaptation, which might take a long time.

Obviously, the requirement that education at present should provide broader prospects is stipulated by the job market. A young person with a broad bachelor's degree in languages might try working in translation, teaching, journalism, management, etc. Yet, the lack of professional skills and the need of time-consuming adaptation to a specific professional environment will hold back promotion and will not benefit either for the employee or the employer. It seems reasonable to introduce specialization into bachelor's programmes, which will allow talented students to specialize in a few contiguous fields.

At the undergraduate level, the national experience of translator training might turn out useful; it was based on the notion that translation is a communication activity with two forms: written and oral. Written and oral forms of communication exist in different conditions, but they are based on the same principles that determine verbal activity as a whole. This view on translation as communication activity assumes that interpretation is different from translation to the same extent as oral communication is different from the written one, since in both cases they are based on different speech perception and production conditions. Yet, the conditions of an activity, however important they are, do not shape its essence.

It is hardly reasonable to expand the choice of master's programs by introducing specific areas, such as "legal," "economic," "medical," "business," or any other translation. Such splitting up based primarily on specific terminology may be covered in teaching, but it cannot be a separate degree program as it could significantly limit the graduates' options. Professional master's programs are to be supplemented by research in translation history and theory, criticism and didactics, which would encourage young people to pursue a career in academia.

4 Who Teaches the Translation? What Are the Ways to Train a Translation Teacher?

We need a training system that would unleash the true intellectual potential of both the students and the teachers. Moreover, this system should be self-updating and self-developing.

The chapter is devoted to the search for possible ways of forming such a system, when the personality of the translation teacher develops simultaneously with the personalities of the trainees.

Who teaches the translation? The training of interpreters and translators is, in most cases, assigned to linguists who have the required knowledge of two languages—the source language and the target language. The corps of teachers of interpreting and translation usually comprises two categories of linguists: (1) teachers of foreign languages and (2) translators and interpreters, practitioners, the so-called experts of the professional community, who made a decision to devote themselves to teaching what they have succeeded in as professionals. Experience shows that neither teachers of foreign languages nor translators and interpreters are able to efficiently train interpreters and translators on their own without undergoing additional training.

The first category—teachers of foreign languages that do not have their own practical experience of translation—tends to confuse two different areas of didactics: linguodidactics, i.e., theory and practice of teaching languages, and translation didactics. They are familiar with the technique of using translation in order to teach grammar and vocabulary. However, using translation exercises in terms of teaching grammar and vocabulary has nothing to do with teaching interpreting and translation. The artificiality of the material, the lack of context, the lack of historical and social conditioning required by the translator in order to make decisions, do not contribute to developing translation skills through such exercises. Translation exercises as a method of teaching foreign languages precede the teaching of translation, but cannot replace it. It can be argued that translation didactics begins where linguodidactics ends.

The second category of people involved in the training of translators and interpreters is professional translators and interpreters who have extensive expertise and are publicly recognized as experts, that is, "the best among equals," and, therefore, having a high self-esteem. Dissatisfaction with the results of the work of foreign language teachers, who took up the teaching of translation and interpreting, concentrates the training of translators and interpreters around experts. An erroneous idea is created that those who have extensive practical expertise are able to teach. They are offered attractive terms, and it is believed that they can develop students' translation and interpreting competences that will make them as successful in the profession as the experts are.

It is known that the process of teaching any activity, including interpreting and translation, involves the transfer of three types of knowledge to the students:

- declarative knowledge (i.e., "knowing that")
- procedural knowledge (i.e., "knowing how")
- knowledge "from within."

Declarative knowledge refers to a theoretical type of knowledge and involves the ability to explain why something is happening. It does not always imply the possession of practical skills. Teachers of foreign languages involved in the training of translators and interpreters are meeting the challenge of providing declarative knowledge about the systems of languages, the symmetry and asymmetry of these systems, the specific features of the functioning of these systems under certain cultural and historical conditions. The problem arises in the transition to providing procedural knowledge. Procedural knowledge is practical knowledge and refers to know-hows and skills. Unlike declarative knowledge, it does not involve the ability to explain why something is happening. Procedural knowledge is the ability to act under certain circumstances.

The teachers of foreign languages are able to give procedural knowledge, but it is at the level of procedural or situational knowledge that the main problems arise. Teachers of foreign languages have all the necessary intellectual and instrumental, methodological arsenal for the formation of practical skills of four well-known language activities: visual and auditive reception (reading and listening) and written and oral production (writing and speaking).

However, in real translation practice, these four language activities represent only the exterior of the translation process in which speech reception in one language inevitably suggests speech production in the other. Within this process, there is a complex cognitive operation of transition from external language structures to internal, cognitive ones, and vice versa.

Foreign language teachers cannot explain how to carry out the transition from the source language to the target language in simultaneous or consecutive interpreting, fiction or technical documentation translation.

Representatives from the professional community possess the third type of knowledge which American psychologist Shotter called knowledge "from within" (Shotter 1993). Such knowledge may be implicit and unavailable to "the uninitiated." This knowledge is manifested in professional collective practice but it is not just practical, procedural knowledge. Knowledge "from within" has a behavioral character and manifests itself in relations of work collectives. The members of such collectives always morally oblige each other to be a certain type of person, which means having a "professional identity," and behave in accordance with the "rules" and use the "right" terms.

Knowledge "from within" is necessary for rookie interpreters to gain a foothold in translation collectives and linguistic services of international organizations, ministries, and institutions.

Nevertheless, the real practice of translators and interpreters training indicates that involving experts in the training process has quite a few limitations.

Firstly, the experts can only break away from their professional activity for short periods of time and only at their own convenience. It complicates the gradual study process necessary for success. Second, professional experience does not necessarily mean success in teaching because not every expert can teach things they are good at. Therefore neither a linguist-language teacher, nor a linguist-professional translator or interpreter can guarantee an efficient system of translator and interpreter training, even if they act collectively and accordingly. Both can perfectly touch the peripheral areas of the training system.

Graduates of translation faculties and schools can take up places in the center of the translators and interpreters training system. However, young graduates can effectively work only in a certain training system. This system unites efforts and experience of all education process participants. In this case, the system shows its main characteristic—emergence, which means appearance of such opportunities that no separate system's components has.

There might be different ways of uniting the efforts: observing more experienced participants, analyzing one's personal performance and that of other people, constructing one's own models, etc. An active process of individual learning and mastering translation/interpreting secrets is combined with the passive process of "experience assimilation" within the framework of career enhancement training.

In conclusion I would like to quote the nineteenth-century Russian philosopher and teacher Konstantin Ushinskiy (Ушинский 1988) who claimed that "only system which is, of course, reasonable, coming from the essence of things gives us power over our knowledge. A head which is full of fragmentary and disjointed knowledge is like a pantry in a mess where the owner himself can't find anything; a head which has a system but no knowledge—is like a shop where all boxes have inscriptions but they are actually empty."

5 Conclusion

A new system of translator training poses quite a lot of questions to trainers and administrators. Solutions should not only be based on international experience of job market needs, but also on traditions of classic university education aimed at forming a personality with broad horizons and professional competence.

We have tried to draw the attention of both experienced and novice translator trainers to major questions that arise any time someone makes an attempt to train an educated and competent translator able to face fierce competition on the job market. Obviously, we cannot provide exhaustive answers to these questions. We have outlined possible solutions and now invite fellow translators and trainers to consider and discuss these and many other questions arising in a rapidly changing world when globalization is pitted against national and linguistic identity. Translation is at the forefront of this fight.

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Canada's First Training in Translation Pedagogy Program: Theoretical Foundations

Malcolm Williams

Abstract In July 2016, the University of Ottawa's School of Translation and Interpretation launched its first Training in Translation Pedagogy Program (TTPP). The program, the first of its kind in Canada and perhaps in North America, was set up in response to requests from a number of participants in another summer training initiative, the Chinese-English Translation and Interpretation Program (CETIP). Building on its initial success, the TTPP ran again in 2017 and 2018. At time of writing, a fourth edition was being planned for the summer of 2020. This chapter presents the theoretical foundations of the 2016 program, which comprised lectures and practical work on theories of instruction and assessment and their application to translation teaching; the teaching of specialized and literary translation, revision, editing and post-editing; the teaching of translation technologies; the teaching of terminology and documentation research; and the teaching of translation theory and research methods. For its theoretical underpinnings, the program draws not only on translation pedagogy research, including the work of Nord (La traduction professionnelle. Former et perfectionner. Institut Etienne Dolet, Lausanne, pp. 37–58, 1999; Training for the new millennium. Pedagogies for translation and interpreting. John Benjamins, Philadelphia, pp. 209–224, 2005) and Kelly (2008) but also on aspects of "generic" education theory developed by Wiggins (Educative assessment. Designing assessments to inform and improve student performance. Wiley, San Francisco, 1998), Wiggins and McTighe (Understanding by design. ASCD, Alexandra, VA, 2005), Anderson and Krathwohl (A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing. Longman, New York, 2001), Pintrich (Theory Pract. 41(4):219–225, 2002), Prégent et al. (Enseigner à l'université dans une approche-programme [Program-based university teaching]. Presses internationales Polytechnique, Montreal, 2009), Wesselink (Comprehensive competence-based vocational education: The development and use of a curriculum analysis and improvement model (Unpublished thesis). Wageningen, Netherlands, 2010), Biggs and Tang (Teaching for quality learning at university. Open University Press, Maidenhead, 2011), Knowles et al. (The adult learner. Taylor & Francis, New York, 2012), and Mulder (J. Agric. Educ. Extens. 18(3):305–314, 2012), among others. Accordingly, the chapter describes how elements of "generic" education

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theory were applied to the translation curriculum and teaching/learning activities during the first week of activities.

Keywords Assessment rubric · Competency-based translation course · Constructive alignment · Standards referenced assessment · Training in translation pedagogy

1 Introduction

In July 2016, the University of Ottawa's School of Translation and Interpretation launched its first Training in Translation Pedagogy Program (TTPP). The program, the first of its kind in Canada and perhaps in North America, was set up in response to requests from a number of participants in another summer training initiative, the Chinese-English Translation and Interpretation Program (CETIP). A total of 11 professors of translation and related disciplines attended the four-week TTPP: five from China, four from the Middle East, one from the Philippines, and one from Cyprus. Generally, they were very proficient in English, which was the teaching and learning language of the program.

In this chapter, I will outline the theoretical underpinnings of the program, among other sources, it draws on Nord (1999, 2005), Wiggins (1998), Wiggins and McTighe (2005), Anderson and Krathwohl (2001), Pintrich (2002), Prégent et al. (2009), Kelly (2008), Wesselink (2010), Biggs and Tang (2011), Knowles et al. (2012), and Mulder (2012). Specifically, I will illustrate how elements of "generic" education theory were applied to the translation curriculum and teaching/learning activities during the first week of the program. Hopefully, the ideas expressed here will in some measure contribute to WITTA's efforts to fulfil its teacher training mandate.

2 Program Design and Content

2.1 Instructors

Teaching duties were shared by three full-time professors at the school with extensive teaching and research experience, two sessional lecturers with Ph.D.'s and specialization in translation technologies and terminology, and an entrepreneur (language services provider) with an MA (thesis on post-editing) and extensive experience in translation, revision, editing, and teaching.

2.2 Design and Content of Activities

We decided to take a top-down approach in putting together the four weeks of activities. It made sense to cover the theory and principles of education, both generically and in relation to translator education, before covering specific components of the translation curriculum. Accordingly, the first week was devoted by and large to the theoretical underpinnings of competency-based education, course design, the development of teaching and learning (T/L) activities for declarative knowledge, the development of T/L activities for functioning knowledge, and assessment.

A lecture format was adopted for the morning sessions. In the afternoons, the learners worked in teams to apply the theory, developing course plans, designing T/L activities, and building assessment tasks and rubrics.

Weeks 2, 3, and 4 covered the teaching of specialized and literary translation, revision, editing, post-editing, language technologies, term and concept research for translation projects, translation theory and research methods, as well as the supervision of Master's and Ph.D. theses.

2.3 Program Evaluation

Since the TTPP was a new venture, the participants' feedback on the program was of vital importance. We realized that we were packing a great deal of content into four short weeks and that participants might feel overwhelmed by one single evaluation questionnaire on a variety of themes and course types. We therefore decided to ask them to complete a four-item questionnaire at the end of each week and e-mail it to the school's director, who was acting as program coordinator. In this way, we were able to collect and group together opinions on specific program components and thus be in a position to make adjustments for future editions of the TTPP.

We supplemented these written evaluations with the information gleaned from a wrap-up session with the participants on the final day of the program.

3 Theoretical Foundations

The first day of the program was devoted to an overview of the Canadian translation and interpretation industry and to a presentation on the future of the global industry from an economic and sociological perspective. Attention then turned to the theoretical foundations of the program, which the author of this chapter laid during the remaining four days of the first week. The theory of translation pedagogy needs to be approached from two angles: teacher education and student education.

Regarding teacher education, Kelly (2008, p. 102) stated that new members of teaching staff were being left to sink or to swim in the classroom and that more attention was being paid to their training as researchers in their discipline than to their training as teachers. In the same article, she reported on a survey of university teachers that she conducted to ascertain their training needs. According to her findings, there was a broad consensus on the need for training in three main areas:

> *The discipline*, including research methodology, research supervision, and information and communication technologies (ICTs).
>
> *The professions*, including market trends and prospects for the future, job opportunities for graduates, and project management.
>
> *Teaching and assessment*, including assessment methods and criteria, and the design of teaching and learning activities. (Kelly 2008, pp. 117, 118)

The founding of WITTA and the response to the TTPP initiative suggest that, nine years later, demand for more services and research in the third area, teaching and assessment, remains strong.

Having established the need, the next step was to develop a theoretical framework for the program. What elements of educational theory could provide the most useful guidance and inspiration for curriculum/course development, the design and conduct of teaching/learning activities, and the design and application of assessment models?

3.1 Theory and Curriculum Development

On the second day, I introduced a number of generic themes to which all the participants could relate, including the following:

- Can translation be taught?
- Competency-based education
- Program-based education
- Backward design
- Course design—theory and practice.

3.2 Can Translation Be Taught?

We opened with this controversial question, which has dogged our discipline ever since modern university translation programs took shape in the second half of the last century. The aim was not to challenge the raison d'être of translator training but, rather, to suggest, in the wake of Christiane Nord's famous article "Wer nimmt denn mal den ersten Satz" ("So who wants to translate the first sentence?") that a translation course—and a translation program itself—must offer a variety and progression of activities extending beyond group translation and analysis of translations. The fact is that, even today, too many courses are largely or totally comprised of collective translation work in class and translation assignments marked and commented on by the instructor. In short, there is no theory, no attempt to link theory to practice, no focus on specific knowledge sets and skills through targeted exercises, and no progression from work on discrete translation problems to broader translation assignments requiring application of knowledge of several kinds.

3.3 Competency-Based Education

The participants taught translation within broader programs (English, modern languages, literature, etc.), but we started from the premise that, for the purposes of this program, they were teaching in a university institution mandated to prepare students for jobs in the language industries. This was in fact the case for most of them. Accordingly, the starting point for the program was the theory of competency-based, or competence-based, education (CBE).

In opting for the competency-based approach, I drew on the writings of Canadian educational theorists Evers et al. (1998), Lasnier (2000) and Prégent et al. (2009), as well as Dutch researchers Wesselink (2010) and Mulder (2012). They all establish a clear and direct parallel between professional tasks and the competencies required to carry out those tasks successfully. In line with Lasnier's (2000, p. 32) and the European Master in Translation (EMT) taskforce's (2009, p. 3) definitions of the term, I presented "competency" as a broad concept embracing the combination and integration of a variety of abilities, skills and knowledge required to carry out tasks in a family of similar situations.

The key here is that the pursuit of competencies ties the university program directly to the occupation/profession and the professional act. Wesselink calls this process "connectivity," underlining the fact that, in CBE, academic disciplines are no longer the starting point for curriculum development; that starting point is now the competencies needed for employment and participation in society (2010, p. 12).

From this linkage between a broad definition of "competency," the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values encompassed by it, and the tasks and problems facing students in the workplace, the case can be made that CBE is more closely related to a constructivist model than to a behaviorist one. Specifically, students in a CBE environment should be trained to work on authentic projects and problems representative of the target occupation and should at the same time be assessed on their degree of success in completing authentic projects and solving authentic problems.

Accordingly, the bedrock of the TTPP is competency-based education in a constructivist learning environment. However, as the reader will see later on, such an approach does not preclude the development of T/L activities targeting specific knowledge items and skills, requiring the completion of discrete tasks, and based on a set of T/L outcomes or objectives.

For the purposes of a university translation program, what overarching competencies will determine the design and development of the curriculum for each program year? The actual definition of these competencies in the field would have to be adapted to the context and overall thrust of each program, but the following formulations could form the basis for CBE-based curriculum development:

- Translating texts in specific fields (to be determined in light of program orientation)
- Revising texts in specific fields (to be determined in light of program orientation).

These two overarching competencies could, of course, be supplemented or supplanted by others, depending on the type of program and mandate. The next step is to determine how the individual course will serve to develop student competencies for successful labor market integration.

3.4 Program-Based Education

The choice of competency-based education has far-reaching implications for curriculum development in the broad sense, and it was the relationship between the two concepts that formed the next theme related to educational theory. The primary source for this theme was the program-based approach to university teaching developed and promoted by Prégent et al. (2009). Enthusiastic advocates of CBE, these authors suggest that the modern student should be helped to acquire two types of competencies: disciplinary and transversal. They focus on the four main transversal competencies defined by Evers et al. (1998) in their seminal work on skills required for the twenty-first century:

- Managing one's own resources
- Communicating
- Managing people and tasks
- Developing a propensity for innovation and change.

In the TTPP itself, the focus was naturally on disciplinary competencies, with participants adapting the two overarching ones to their contexts. To help them with this task, I reviewed some of the numerous competency models designed in Translation Studies, including PACTE (2003), Hurtado Albir (2008), EMT (2009), and the American Translators Association (Koby and Melby 2013). Though I did not ask them to target transversal competencies in subsequent planning and T/L activities, the group did engage in a wide-ranging discussion for the purpose of identifying key transversal competencies for the translation workplace of today. This afforded an opportunity to introduce them to the findings of several research projects on the subject (Mauriello 1999; Bowker 2004; Calderón Contreras 2012). There was a consensus that communicating (with colleagues and clients), working in a team, planning, managing time, and using technology were all critical competencies in a world where competition is fierce, relationship building is a prime business asset, and ever-greater productivity is a goal.

3.5 Backward Design

Before moving on to practical applications of curriculum theory, it was necessary to introduce the group to another main thrust of the theoretical framework for the TTPP: backward design. Developed by Wiggins and McTighe (2005), backward design reverses the conventional order of course construction. Typically, the teacher would design the T/L activities for a course first and then think about how he or she was going to evaluate student performance or learning. With backward design, the teacher first determines what students are to learn: achievement targets, based on program-level competencies. Then, he or she determines what evidence he or she needs to collect to assess their learning progress and what assessment tools would be appropriate for that purpose. Only at the third and final stage of design does the teacher develop T/L activities enabling students to achieve the competency-related targets.

Note that Biggs and Tang, whose work is another cornerstone of the TTPP, adopted backward design for their influential work *Teaching for quality learning at university* (2011). They called the process "constructive alignment" (2011, pp. 95–100) in keeping with their constructivist approach to teaching and learning. Their process can be visualized as follows:

$$\mathbf{ILO} \rightarrow \mathbf{AT} \rightarrow \mathbf{TLA}$$

where ILO stands for the intended learning outcome(s) of the course, AT for assessment task, and TLA for teaching/learning activity.

It was the first time that participants had been exposed to backward design, but they quickly bought into the rationale for its application.

3.6 Course Design

Clearly, in developing a theoretical framework for a translation teacher training program, one has to make certain choices. I chose CBE as the starting point because of the direct correlation between the professional translation and interpreting program, professional competency, and graduate success on the labor market. I could have given priority to the "learning by objectives" approach inspired by Bloom, which is usually associated with behaviorism and cognitivism, or the "intended learning outcomes" approach advocated by Biggs and Tang, which is associated with constructivism and which, according to the authors themselves, conflicts in some measure with the CBE model.

You do not throw the baby out with the bath water. Rather than selecting one educational theory or approach to the exclusion of all others, I opted for a combination of approaches to be adopted at different levels of a university program. While Biggs

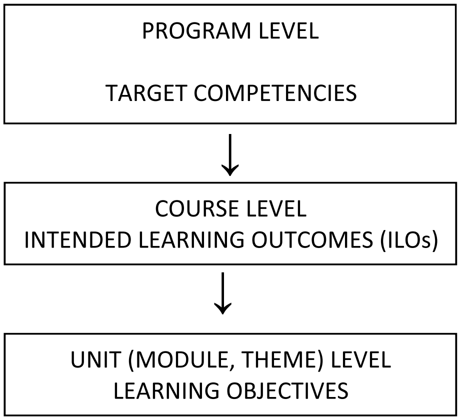

Fig. 1 Three-level hierarchy of curriculum goals

and Tang clearly move beyond the task-based, "learning by objectives" model associated with behaviorism and Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, they draw liberally on the Revised Taxonomy of Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) for formulating ILOs.

In my view, the three approaches are not mutually exclusive. On the contrary, all three can be definite assets to the teacher for course planning and delivery, and in the TTPP, participants were asked to apply elements of all three. Theories overlap and feed off one another, and educational theories are no exception.

In keeping with the program-based approach, I presented participants with a hierarchical structure for course design, as shown in Fig. 1.

In other words, participants were to drill down to the course level and then to the unit level in setting learning targets. In this way, students would have a very clear picture, at a "micro" level, of the learning they would have to demonstrate in working toward ILOs and target competencies.

Accordingly, the first practical activity for participants was to prepare a course plan framework in line with the one proposed by Prégent et al. (2009, p. 177). I divided the participants into four teams, based as far as possible on shared language combinations, and asked each team to complete the first three steps of the framework: (1) select a course that would form the starting point for their practical work during the rest of the week, (2) identify the key occupational tasks targeted by the course, and (3) formulate one or more competencies that their course would help to develop.

Then, they had to complete Step 4, "Write ILOs," specifying the target cognitive processes and knowledge categories. They were to use the ILO formulation proposed by Biggs and Tang. As the authors themselves state (2011, p. 119), the outcomes must be written from the student's perspective—not the teacher's—and convey the level of performance required so that the student, when reading an ILO, would know what to do and how well to do it in order to meet that ILO.

Although they advocate ILOs in the place of teaching objectives because of and in opposition to the behaviorist model and Bloom's "mastery" approach (Bloom 1968), Biggs and Tang nonetheless incorporate many elements of the Revised Taxonomy developed by Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) for the cognitive[1] domain. Specifically, they draw on the revised hierarchy of cognitive processes and the many action verbs that Anderson and Krathwohl list for each process, and they also use the revised conceptualization of the knowledge dimension as a means of clarifying ILOs.

In Bloom's original taxonomy of educational objectives for the cognitive domain (1956), knowledge was the lowest component of the six-category hierarchy. In the Revised Taxonomy, knowledge is no longer seen as one of the six processes but as a separate dimension feeding into cognitive processes (input) and resulting from them (output):

- Cognitive process dimension (in ascending order of complexity)—remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, creating
- Knowledge dimension—factual knowledge, conceptual knowledge, procedural knowledge, metacognitive knowledge.

Anderson and Krathwohl show (2001, pp. 67–68) that the six cognitive processes can be broken down into subcategories. For example, interpreting, exemplifying, classifying, comparing, summarizing, inferring, and explaining are subcategories of the "understanding" cognitive process, while generating, planning, and producing come under "creating."

In their model, Biggs and Tang adapt the above dimensions as follows:

- They combine factual knowledge and conceptual knowledge under the term "declarative knowledge."
- They combine procedural and metacognitive knowledge under "functioning knowledge."
- They reconceptualize the six cognitive processes as four "levels of understanding" (unistructural, multistructural, relational, and extended abstract) forming the structure of observed learning outcomes (SOLO) taxonomy and categorize the actions (verbs) of the Revised Taxonomy accordingly.

The benefits of the Revised Taxonomy and of Biggs and Tang's adaptation for teacher training are multiple:

- They enable teachers to set clear, measurable outcomes.
- They provide a detailed list of verbs to express measurable outcomes reflecting the six cognitive domain categories.
- They help the teacher to identify and communicate the types of knowledge that students are expected to acquire.
- They help the teacher to organize the course in terms of progression from declarative to functioning knowledge and from less complex (remembering, understanding, and applying) to more complex (analyzing, evaluating, and creating) cognitive processes, depending on the nature and goals of the course.

[1]The two other domains covered by Bloom—the affective and the psychomotor—were not included as TTPP themes.

In formulating the ILOs for their respective courses, TTPP participants could use this information on the Revised Taxonomy and, in particular, draw on the plethora of cognitive process verbs listed in Anderson and Krathwohl's work. They were also asked to adopt a specific format for writing the ILOs. The ILO statement had to contain the following (adapted from Biggs and Tang 2011, p. 125):

- A *verb* denoting a measurable action/process;
- The *content* the verb is meant to address (the object of the verb);
- The *context* of the content discipline in which the verb is to be used;
- The required *standard* or *level* of performance.

Note that, in developing their ILOs for their course plan, participants were to ensure, and demonstrate, that their course ILOs fed logically into the program-level competencies.

This was a means of helping them maintain a program-based approach. Here is an example of how they connected ILOs with target competencies (Table 1).

Note the following:

- The team selected verbs denoting measurable processes and included required levels of performance (italicized).
- An explanation of terms indicating the required standard, such as "accurately," "intermediate-level," and "effectively" should be included in an assessment rubric that is part of the course plan (see Sect. 5).
- The team followed Biggs and Tang's recommendation (2011, p. 125) that there be no more than five or six ILOs.
- The proposed target competency "Evaluating translation solutions and use of strategies" is perhaps not broad enough to constitute a program-level competency and should be subsumed as a course-level ILO under the primary competency.

Table 1 Statement of target competencies and ILOs for translation course

Course title: Translation for the media and public services
Target competencies Translating specialized texts from L1 to L2 and vice versa Evaluating translation solutions and use of strategies *Level* Associate of Arts in Translation and Interpreting (Year 2) *Intended learning outcomes* Upon successful completion of this course, students will be able to:
1. *Infer* the translation specifications *accurately*, e.g., register, translation purpose, intended text function, intended readership, when receiving a professional translation assignment in the field of media and public services
2. *Translate to the intermediate-level quality standard* texts in the field of media and public services from English to Chinese and vice versa
3. *Conduct* research on textual conventions and terminology *effectively* when translating for the media and public services, i.e., recourse to parallel texts and electronic resources
4. *Justify effectively* the translation strategies employed in an assignment

In accordance with backward design, I should have worked with the participants on assessment tools at this point in the course. However, it also made sense to return to course outcomes and objectives to complete that part of the design process. The link, or continuum, between Biggs and Tang's ILOs and the Revised Taxonomy had already been established, so participants were asked to break their course down into weekly or biweekly modules or units targeting specific themes and establish discrete objectives for each unit, again borrowing from the list of verbs in the Revised Taxonomy.

In working with participants on design of ILOs and objectives, I stressed the importance of choosing verbs denoting measurable, or assessable, actions and processes. Thus "*understand* the principles of the functionalist model of translation" does not lend itself to measurement, but "*explain* the principles of the functionalist model of translation" does. I also asked them to identify the knowledge dimensions of the Revised Taxonomy that would be activated in relation to each ILO and to the relevant cognitive process.

4 Teaching and Learning Activities

In an effort to remain as coherent and consistent as possible, I continued to draw on the Revised Taxonomy and Biggs and Tang to provide participants with a theoretical framework for designing and presenting their T/L activities. They were now familiar with the four Revised Taxonomy dimensions of knowledge as inputs into and outputs from the six cognitive processes and with Biggs and Tang's binary categorization: *declarative* knowledge and *functioning* knowledge. For planning purposes, it was proposed that we spend one day (Day 3) on declarative knowledge T/L activities and one (Day 4) on functioning knowledge T/L activities during the first week.

In this context, I emphasized three points:

- Nord's requirement, outlined earlier in this chapter, that a translation course be much more varied than the collective translation of running texts followed by unilateral marking and comments.
- The need to make sure that students can walk before we ask them to run. There was a need to qualify the constructivist and social-constructivist focus on "learning by doing" and the effectiveness of problem-based learning. The acquisition of declarative knowledge (of facts, concepts, methods, and theories) must precede that of functioning knowledge if students are to achieve their ILOs and develop professional competencies.
- Knowles' whole-part-whole method and Nord's pigtail method.
- The value of giving students an opportunity to develop and activate their metacognitive knowledge primarily through reflection on their work, their strengths and weaknesses, and ways to improve.

4.1 Declarative Versus Functioning Knowledge

The participants were teaching in different types of programs at different levels, and their clientele was made up of students with varying degrees of academic and professional experience. It was therefore important to qualify the constructivist and socio-constructivist emphasis on situated learning and project-based activities. This approach proves to be very productive for students who have already “constructed” a large body of declarative and functioning knowledge and are able to engage in real-world projects and “construct” new knowledge with the teacher operating as facilitator and coach, but it is less appropriate for less knowledgeable students. I referred the group to the problems encountered with project-based learning (PBL) in medicine in the 1990s and 2000s. Medical faculties had bought into the PBL method, which was developed in large part by Canadian educators and was predicated on the premise that information, concepts, and skills learned by the student are put into his or her memory in association with a specific problem, facilitating easier recall when the student encounters another problem in which the information is relevant; recall is constantly strengthened and developed as the student tackles other problems (Barrows and Tamblyn 1980, p. 13).

Other disciplines followed suit, including Translation. However, PBL practitioners ran up against several stumbling blocks, caused in general by students’ inadequate declarative knowledge. According to one group of researchers, one consequence of constructivist theory was a shift away from teaching a discipline as a body of knowledge toward an exclusive emphasis on learning a discipline by experiencing processes and procedures (Kirschner et al. 2006, p. 78). The problem was that students had not acquired the requisite body of knowledge through lectures and direct guidance that would enable them to exploit PBL effectively and build new schemata (knowledge items) in their long-term memory.

Having been apprised of these reservations about PBL, participants worked on activities targeting acquisition of declarative knowledge on the first T/L day and activities targeting functioning knowledge on the second. Note that this two-pronged organization of activities does not preclude planning both declarative knowledge and functioning knowledge activities for the same three-hour class.

4.2 Whole-Part-Whole and Pigtail

One of the obstacles we face as translation researchers and educators is the translation industry’s lack of interest in, and even antipathy toward, theory. Yet one of the criteria for determining whether an occupation is a genuine “profession” is the existence of a body of theoretical knowledge underpinning the occupation. It is therefore essential to incorporate theory and its practical application into coursework through declarative knowledge T/L activities and functioning knowledge T/L activities.

The whole-part-whole and pigtail methods afford us an opportunity to structure teaching and learning in this way. Knowles et al.'s method (2012) starts with a "whole" (a unifying concept such as a theory or competency), follows up with "parts" of the whole involving components or practical applications of the "whole" that enable the learner to build specific knowledge or skills through a task-based activities and repetitive practice, and concludes with an activity that places the new knowledge or skills in context, giving the learner a second chance to gain a more nuanced, situated understanding of the whole.

Nord's pigtail method is similar, revolving around a theory–practice–theory T/L structure: Students are introduced to a small component of theory, apply it in practice, grasp the need for more theory, absorb more theory accordingly, apply it, and so on (2005, p. 34). She proposes a number of theoretical starting points, all with a practical dimension, including the following: translation as a purposeful activity, models of the translation process, text functions, text typologies, the translation brief, textual macrostrategies, argumentation, text design and organization, theme–rheme, cohesion, and metadiscourse.

Having outlined the two methods as ways of organizing their classes, I asked the participants what practical activities they could develop to apply the above theoretical themes and build declarative knowledge. As a group, we then compared their proposals with Nord's selection: analysis of texts written for different readerships, for different purposes, on different media, at different times, in different places; identification and evaluation of text strategies; comparative analysis of texts belonging to different types or genres and identification of text-type conventions; identification of function markers; identification of cohesion markers; spotting (and correcting) text defects; revision of faulty or unfunctional texts; analysis of texts dealing with other cultures, identifying ways of providing background information; paraphrasing utterances and identifying differences in use or communicative effect; wordplay, crossword puzzles; building semantic fields (and concept maps); summarizing and abstracting. What is interesting about Nord's suggestions is that, in inviting application of theory, they afford an opportunity to build declarative knowledge (e.g., identification of function markers) and at the same time pave the way for new functioning knowledge (e.g., revision of faulty or unfunctional texts).

What is also noteworthy in Nord's selection is the fact that she included generic T/L activities such as wordplay, crossword puzzles, concept maps and paraphrasing. This fits in with her insistence that translation teaching go beyond collective translation. Accordingly, I reviewed with participants the declarative knowledge T/L activities described by Biggs and Tang, including the conventional lecture, the concept map, the minute paper, the work-along exercise, think-pair-share and empty outlines, and I encouraged them to design such activities in the practical segment of the class. Note that a number of these activities are "active" and encourage "learning by doing" and that they can be individual or collaborative.

The second class on T/L activities was devoted to functioning knowledge. Again, I promoted the whole-part-whole method as a means of reinforcing learning. In working on functioning knowledge, the goal is to:

- activate high-order thinking processes (applying and especially analyzing, evaluating and creating);
- use declarative (factual/conceptual knowledge) as a base from which to construct functioning (procedural and metacognitive) knowledge;
- place an even greater emphasis on competencies, since it is through the application of procedural and metacognitive knowledge in actual translation and revision activities that students will build the two overarching competencies established at the outset;
- focus on learning by doing, for the reason stated above—once the declarative knowledge base has been built, situated- and project-based learning can be given priority.

As in the case of declarative knowledge T/L activities, I familiarized participants with Nord's suggestions for hands-on translation work, including translation revision, translation with parallel text, summary translation, multiple-choice translation, guided translation, small-group translation, team translation, sight translation, translation without a brief, and project-based (situated, experiential) translation. (This last activity has been explored in depth by Kiraly 2000, 2001, 2005, 2016.) Again, participants were encouraged to consider adapting to their context some of the generic functioning knowledge activities proposed by Biggs and Tang, such as case-based learning, the jigsaw classroom, and problem-based learning.

Here is an example of a T/L activity designed by one of the TTPP teams. It targets both declarative knowledge and functioning knowledge (Table 2).

4.3 Metacognitive Knowledge

The metacognitive dimension has gained increasing currency in the education research literature, largely because of the emphasis placed on reflective learning and active learning as primary pathways to competence. Pintrich, an authority on the subject, identified two main components of metacognitive knowledge:

- Knowledge of cognition in general and awareness of or knowledge about one's own cognition
- Metacognitive control and self-regulation (Pintrich 2002, pp. 219–220).

According to the same researcher, elements of these components combine to form *strategic knowledge*, which embraces rehearsal, elaboration and organizational techniques for building and retaining declarative and functioning knowledge; knowledge of metacognitive strategies for planning, monitoring, regulating thinking, and learning; knowledge of problem-solving strategies; and knowledge about sociocultural conventions on using strategies.

In Pintrich's opinion, the value of metacognitive knowledge finds expression in better problem solving, better learning, better performance, and better transfer of knowledge from one task to another. But can it be taught? In his opinion, it

Table 2 T/L activity for a poetry translation course

ILOs	Analyze critically the source language poem in terms of voice, tone, rhythm, imagery and symbolism and in relation to its sociocultural context
	Explain accurately the similarities and differences between the literary traditions of the source language and culture and those of the target ones
Cognitive processes	Remembering
	Understanding
	Analyzing
	Evaluating
Target knowledge	TL poetics
	Stylistic devices students have been introduced to
Activity	THINK-PAIR-SHARE
In pairs, compare and contrast two Filipino translations of the poem "Ars Poetica" by Archibald Macleish	
Identify the differences in versification, diction, register and imagery between the two translations and evaluate the positive and negative aspects of each	
Share your conclusions with the rest of the class	

can, through explicit labelling of metacognitive and cognitive processes, modelling, explanation, and discussion.

Yet metacognition has received little attention in Translation Studies, with the notable exception of Echeverri's work (2010). In the TTPP, participants were introduced to the main components of metacognitive knowledge and to one T/L application designed to elicit student metacognition: the "examination wrapper" (Lovett 2013). In this activity, students are invited to write (on a questionnaire) their answers to three key questions following a test or examination: How did they prepare for the test or examination? What errors did they make? What will they do differently next time? The teacher gives feedback on, and follow-up questions in response to, the completed wrappers. Other possible applications include the reflective paper, which could afford an opportunity for greater reflection on performance and learning and for long-term planning, based on the six cognitive processes and four knowledge dimensions of the Revised Taxonomy.

5 Assessment

The first, theory-focused week concluded with a one-day session on assessment, arguably the most contentious issue facing university teachers. This is because, even today, many are reluctant to venture beyond an "impressionistic" appreciation of a student's work and come up with a more detailed, defensible grading scheme. Accordingly, I opened with a comparative evaluation of the three broad assessment/evaluation models designed and implemented over the years: norm-referenced (NRA), criterion-referenced (CRA), and standards referenced assessment (SRA) (see Biggs and Tang 2011). I suggested that, in a professional translation program context, the model be a combination of the last two. First, students' progress has to be measured in relation to professional competencies that find expression in a professional standard. For the Canadian Translators, Terminologists Council (CTTIC), for example, competency is reflected in a translation that is faithful and idiomatic and requires little or no revision (CTTIC national examination marker's guide 2016).

Thus, this standard would be the student's ultimate goal as a professional translator, and achievement of the course ILOs and program competencies would be significant milestones on the way toward meeting the standard.

Second, performance or degree of learning needs to be assessed against a set of discrete criteria, which may vary with the nature of the assessment task. What is the focus of the achievement targets or ILOs set for the course? Accuracy? Target language quality? Effective and efficient term search? Effective and efficient methods? A combination of these? Participants were asked to consider which criteria would be relevant and what their relative importance, or weight, would be for a given assessment task.

Using this combination and SRA and CRA, we then drew heavily on Wiggins and McTighe's educative assessment model, which Biggs and Tang's model mirrors to a considerable extent, to propose the development of detailed assessment rubrics.

The following essential rubric components for a course assignment or test were presented:

- Statement of task;
- Statement of target ILO(s), knowledge dimension(s), and cognitive process(es);
- Criteria (or parameters)—the features of quality and performance of the assessment task against which students are to be assessed, such as accuracy, target language quality, quality of terms/concept research;
- Weighting—the relative importance of criteria to successful completion of the task;
- Alpha grades;
- Grade descriptors;
- Grade percentage ranges;
- Indicators, or performance-level descriptions, providing concrete evidence for the grade or marks assigned (Wiggins and McTighe 2005; Biggs and Tang 2011).

As a practical activity, participants were then asked to select an assessment task in line with one or more of their course-level ILOs and to develop a rubric for that task. Here is an example targeting both declarative and functioning knowledge (Table 3).

Given that it was produced in approximately two hours, the rubric is an excellent draft. However, the team would have to develop specific indicators, or evidence, of performance levels in order to justify a particular grade.

Table 3 Poetry translation course—rubric for assessment task

ILOs	Upon the completion of the course, students will be able to: 1. Analyze critically the source language poem in terms of voice, tone, rhythm, imagery, and symbolism and in relation to its sociocultural context 2. Explain accurately the similarities and differences between the literary traditions of the source language and culture and those of the target ones 3. Solve methodically problems of equivalence and untranslatability, especially paronomasia and ambiguity 4. Produce resourcefully a translation of a source language poem that can be recognized and appreciated as a poem in the target language and culture				
Cognitive process(es)	Remembering, Understanding, Applying, Analyzing, Evaluating, Creating				
Task	1. TRANSLATE AN ENGLISH POEM INTO FILIPINO 2. REFLECTION ON THE PROCESS UNDERTAKEN				
Performance level	POOR	MARGINAL	SATISFACTORY	GOOD	EXCELLENT
Grade	E	D → D+	C → C+	B → B+	A− → A → A+
Grade % range	0–49%	50–59	60–69	70–79	80–100
Criterion (wgt)					
Comprehension (35%) *ILO: 1, 2*	Very limited understanding of the SL poem	Very limited understanding of the SL poem	Adequate understanding of the SL poem	Very good understanding of the SL poem	Excellent understanding of the SL poem
Target language quality (35%) *ILO: 1, 3, 4*	Limited knowledge of TL grammar	A number of nonsensical grammatical usages in TL	Some awkward grammatical usage in TL but not impeding sense in a significant way	Advanced proficiency in grammar	Native-like fluency in grammar

(continued)

Table 3 (continued)

Stylistic/Poetic quality (30%) *ILO: 4*	Very limited rhyme and meter Use of figurative language achieves intended effect in no instance	Limited rhyme and meter Use of figurative language achieves intended effect in occasional instances	Adequate rhyme and meter Use of figurative language achieves intended effect in several instances	Very good rhyme and meter Use of figurative language achieves intended effect in most instances	Excellent rhyme and meter Use of figurative language achieves intended effect in all instances

6 Conclusion

Trying to fit the many and varied types of courses into our four-week program was challenging. Accordingly, adjustments to content were made for the 2017 and 2018 editions of the TTPP, and further adjustments were planned for the shorter, three-week program to be offered in the summer of 2020. Regarding the first week, equally challenging for the students was the limited time they were given to absorb the theoretical information before being asked to apply that information in the afternoon sessions. That being said, the principles and tools developed, explained and illustrated by Anderson and Krathwohl, Wiggins and McTighe, Prégent et al., and Biggs and Tang, among others, provide an eloquent and constructive way to build a coherent, well-organized, competency-based translation course that will enable students to make progress toward professional competence. Specifically, they deliver a logical course design, assessment and activity development process generating detailed, useful information for student and teacher alike.

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Recent Development and Future Directions of Translation and Interpreting Education in China's Mainland

Weihe Zhong

Abstract Translation and interpreting education in China's Mainland came into being with China's policy of reform and opening-up in the late 1970s, and has been developing with leaps and bounds in the twenty-first century. The past few years have not only seen a wave of interest but also exponential growth of translation and interpreting education across China's Mainland. In this paper, the author introduced the recent development and future directions of translation and interpreting education in China's Mainland.

Keywords Translation and interpreting education · BTI and MTI programs in China · Training of interpreters and translators

1 Historical Background of Translation and Interpreting Education in China's Mainland

1.1 Disciplinary Positioning

When talking about translation and interpreting education, we should first have a clear understanding of the disciplinary positioning of translation and interpreting (T&I) education in China's Mainland. The national education system in China's Mainland categorizes disciplines into different fields and different levels. According to the latest version (2012) of the *Disciplines Catalogue of Conferring Doctoral and Master's Degrees* (*Disciplines Catalogue*) of China's Ministry of Education (MOE), there are 13 fields of disciplines of conferring academic degrees. They are: Philosophy, Economy, Law, Education, Literature, History, Science, Engineering, Agriculture, Medical Science, Military Science, Management, and Art. Within each of these fields, there are the first and the second level of discipline. Translation studies are placed within the field of Literature. Twenty years ago, in the 1997 version of the Catalogue, Translation studies were merely an educational direction placed under the

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second-level discipline of Linguistics and Applied Linguistics. In 2008, translation studies, for the first time, became one of the 13 second-level disciplines under the first-level discipline of Foreign Language and Literature, being the same level as Linguistics and Applied Linguistics and other disciplines such as English Language and Literature, Cross-cultural Communication, and Comparative Literature. Thus, translation studies became a legitimate and independent discipline in China according to the *Disciplines Catalogue* of MOE.

Why disciplinary positioning of translation studies is so important for T&I education in China's Mainland? Because different levels of discipline enjoy correspondingly levels of support from the central and local government, including both financial support and policy support. In China's Mainland, a second-level or above discipline can enroll Ph.D. students in its own right. Such legitimate disciplinary position is a prerequisite for developing a complete T&I education system from BTI (Bachelor of Arts in T&I) to MTI (Master of T&I) and even to DTI (Doctorate of T&I).

1.2 History of T&I Education in China's Mainland

Prior to 1978, no higher learning institutions in China's Mainland could claim to have a real "professional" translation and interpreting education program. Interpreting was seen as a part of foreign language enhancement, and translation, mainly literary translation at that time, was taken for granted as a selective course in the four-year program of a foreign language major. Virtually no research had been done at that time to explore the component of translation and interpreting training in a complete syllabus.

One might argue too, at that time, that China's need for professional interpreters and translators was still small, given the country's limited participation in international affairs that were mainly dominated by the two superpowers and the Western world. It was natural then that only a few excellent graduates from foreign language program in the best tier of universities went on to pursue a career in translation and interpreting, a large proportion of which for political purposes. Translation and interpreting, therefore, at that time, were seen as a skill that any good foreign language learners could naturally master, and there was no need for additional (or professionalized) training.

Considering the fact that the first professional interpreter training school in the world was established in Manheim in 1930 (Pöchhacker 2004), China's Mainland lagged behind in its interpreter and translator training by nearly half a century. The first real effort was taken after the People's Republic of China gained its legalized position in the United Nations in 1971, after which there was almost a sudden surging need for interpreters and translators working at the United Nations.

It was in 1979 that China's Mainland established its first interpreter and translator training program at the then Beijing Foreign Languages Institute, the so-called UN Interpreter and Translator Training Class (*Yi Xun Ban*), which was jointly initiated by the United Nations and the Chinese Government. Since the United Nations Language

Services were directly involved with syllabus design, teaching, examination, and recruitment at the end of the program, the UN Interpreter and Translator Training Class, which was run for a consecutive 12 sessions, was an example of the first effort of "going global" for interpreter and translator training in China's Mainland. The success of the UN program gave rise to the Graduate School of Translation and Interpreting of Beijing Foreign Studies University in 1994.

However, prior to the establishment of the first T&I school in China's Mainland, different universities had already set up their collaboration programs in interpreter and translator training with foreign partners. Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (GDUFS), for example, started its interpreter and translator training program under the framework of the English Language and Culture Program with British Council in 1993. Other efforts were made predominantly by Xiamen University, who cooperated with Deakin University between 1990 and 1993 to set up an experimental class for interpreter training, and later with Westminster University between 1994 and 1998 for interpreting training and research.

Translation and interpreting studies in China's Mainland soon acquired its academic status, with its first Department of Translation and Interpreting established in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies in 1997 (Zhong 2007). This academic status was further enhanced by the establishment of the independent Ph.D. and MA programs in translation and interpreting studies by Shanghai International Studies University in 2004, followed by Guangdong University of Foreign Studies in 2007 and Beijing Foreign Studies University in 2009 respectively.

In the year 2012, the legitimate status of T&I discipline was officially confirmed when *Disciplines Catalogue* was released by the Academic Degree Committee of the State Council as mentioned above. With ever increasing interest and enthusiasm in the young (sub-)discipline, translation and interpreting studies scholars soon moved into this specific territory from various other disciplines such as English language, literature, and linguistics. Since then, T&I education in China's Mainland has been gradually shifting from what Gile (2010) calls the "academic pole" to the "professional pole." And it is such a kind of shifting that helped generate the BTI and MTI Education in China's Mainland.

The establishment of degree programs of BTI in 2006 and MTI in 2007, respectively, by the Ministry of Education and the Academic Degrees Committee of the State Council was very important for Translation and Interpreting education in China's Mainland.

In 2006, BTI program was approved by the Ministry of Education. Fudan University, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, and Hebei Normal University were the first group of authorized universities. By January 2020, there were 282 colleges and universities with national approved BTI program with a student population of over 30,000. The language pairs of translation and interpreting include English–Chinese, Russian–Chinese, French–Chinese, and Japanese–Chinese, etc.

In 2007, the Academic Degree Committee of the State Council approved MTI program in its 23rd Plenary Session. Fifteen colleges and universities were authorized with the program, including: Peking University; Beijing International Studies University; Fudan University; Guangdong University of Foreign Studies; Hunan

Normal University; PLA University of Foreign Language; Nanjing University; Nankai University; Shanghai Jiaotong University; Shanghai International Studies University; Tongji University; Xiamen University; Southwest University; Central South University; and Sun Yat-sen University. By January 2020, there were 253 colleges and universities in China authorized to enroll MTI students. The overall enrollment ever since reaches 40,000. And the language pairs of translation and interpreting include: English–Chinese, French–Chinese, Russian–Chinese, Korean–Chinese, Japanese–Chinese, German–Chinese, Spanish–Chinese, Arabic–Chinese, Thai–Chinese, etc.

Translation and interpreting education in China has received unprecedented attention with more and more universities applying for such programs. With the birth of BTI and MTI education, a systematic disciplinary structure of translation and interpreting education in China's Mainland has come into shape, including Ph.D. in translation studies lasting 3–5 years, MA in translation studies (equal to M.Phil. in translation studies) lasting 2–3 years, MTI with 2 or 2.5 years, BTI 4 years.

The BTI and MTI programs, being differentiated from the T&I course in traditional foreign language and literature programs, have represented China's shift toward professionalized interpreter and translator training.

1.3 BTI and MTI Programs in China's Mainland

BTI program aims to train innovative graduates with global vision, integrity and academic excellence, bilingual competence and cross-cultural communication skills. Graduates of the program should master relevant language skills, professional ethics, basic theories, and translation and interpreting skills. The program also prepares students to utilize the translation tools and technology, and to gain the basic knowledge and operating processes of language services industry. It trains students to be experts in translation, cross-cultural communication, and language services in various fields, including diplomatic, trade, education, culture, science, technology, etc.

MTI program aims to train high-level, practical-oriented and professional translators and interpreters with all-round development in ethics, intelligence, and physical health, who could meet the demand of the country's economic, cultural and social development, so as to enhance the countries' international competitiveness in the era of economic globalization (Zhong and Mu 2008).

As for the disciplinary governance of BTI and MTI Education, in March 2007, the China National Committee for MTI Education was founded. (Renamed as China National Committee for Postgraduate Translation Education in 2011). In October 2010, China National Committee for BTI Education was founded. In 2013, the new English Language Teaching (ELT) Advisory Board under the Ministry Education was elected, responsible for preparing the National Standards of BTI Education Quality. In September 2016, China National Committee for Translation and

Interpreting Education was founded to manage T&I education as whole in China's Mainland.

2 Recent Development of Translation and Interpreting Education in China's Mainland

In order to monitor and guide the sustainable development of T&I education in China's Mainland, a series of guidelines and standards have been released by China National Committee for T&I Education, including *the National Standards of BTI Education Quality* and *the National Guidelines for MTI Education.*

2.1 The National Standards of BTI Education Quality (the BTI Standard)

In the *BTI Standard*, educational objectives are explained from three aspects: qualities, competences, and knowledge.

2.1.1 Quality Requirements

Graduates majoring in translation and interpreting are required to have social responsibility, sound language ability, language sensibility, curiosity, passion for knowledge, creativity, the ability of working under pressure, global vision, humanistic and teamwork spirit, etc.

2.1.2 Competence Requirements

Requirements on competences include language competences, cross-cultural competence, and translation competence.

1. Language competence includes the competence of the foreign language (B-Language) and the competence of the native language (A-Language). Graduates majoring in translation and interpreting should have a good competence of foreign language input and output, be able to understand the radio and TV programs and films at an average speed of speech, be able to read foreign literature and articles of medium difficulty on newspapers, periodicals and electronic media, be able to conduct oral communication accurately and fluently and express personal ideas in a coherent and systematic way, and be able to write different genres of texts in a substantial, smooth, and proper manner. Graduates majoring in translation and interpreting should have a high level of competence of their native language,

and be able to conduct oral and written communication effectively in terms of different genres, topics, and registers.
2. Graduates majoring in translation and interpreting should have acquired cross-cultural communication skills and have the sensitivity of cultural differences, and be able to deal with cultural conflicts by means of proper strategies.
3. Graduates majoring in translation and interpreting should be able to complete a general translation task in an independent or collaborative way by applying basic theories and skills of translating and interpreting and utilizing translation technology and translation tools.

Graduates majoring in translation and interpreting should be able to undertake liaison interpreting tasks of medium difficulty in such areas as cultural exchanges and business meetings, and be able to fulfill conference interpreting tasks of medium difficulty.

Graduates majoring in translation and interpreting should be able to undertake translation tasks of medium difficulty in such areas as politics, economy, society, culture and science and technology, with the target text accurate in meaning and terminology and proper in register and manner.

2.1.3 Knowledge Requirements

Graduates of translation and interpreting should have a multidimensional and encyclopedic knowledge structure, and are especially required to master the knowledge of language, translation and culture.

1. As for knowledge of language, graduates should have a sound knowledge of both the foreign and native languages. As for the foreign language, they should master the knowledge of its phonetics, vocabulary, and grammar, and be familiar with its basic linguistic concepts and theories. As for the native language, they should master the knowledge of its phonetics, vocabulary, and grammar, be able to understand its evolving and developing history and basic features, and be familiar with the basic knowledge of writing in the native language.
2. As for knowledge of translation, graduates majoring in translation and interpreting should master basic concepts and theories of translation, be familiar with basic requirements and methods of translation practice and be able to understand the basic operating mechanism and the code of professional conduct in the language services industry.
3. As for knowledge of culture, graduates majoring in translation and interpreting should be familiar with the knowledge of such areas as culture, history, literature, geography, politics, economy, and society in the foreign language nation, and form the cultural knowledge structure required for the discipline of translation studies.

Moreover, the *BTI Standard* also listed the requirement of educational infrastructure. For example, the ratio of full-time professional teachers to part-time guest lecturers (from the language service industry) should be 5:2; Computer-aided translation classroom/laboratory should be adequate; Simultaneous interpreting classroom/laboratory should be equipped, etc.

These educational requirements have set up standards for the development of BTI programs in China's Mainland. And the *BTI Standard* has become an important reference for universities to design their T&I curriculum and evaluate related educational quality.

2.2 The National Guidelines for MTI Education

There are mainly three documents on the guidelines for MTI education, i.e., *Guideline for MTI Thesis Writing and Supervision, Guideline for Granting Certification to MTI Guest Lecturers*,[1] and *Guideline for Granting Certification to MTI Internship Partners*.[2]

2.2.1 Guideline for MTI Thesis Writing and Supervision

In the *Guideline for MTI Thesis Writing and Supervision*, the format of MTI thesis is divided into three major types: Internship reports, translation/interpreting practice report, and experiment/survey report (thesis format examples provided in Appendices 1, 2 and 3). The internship reports include three types: project manager internship report, translator/interpreter internship report, and translation editor internship report.

2.2.2 Guideline for Granting Certification to MTI Guest Lecturers

This *Guideline* specifies the requirements for MTI guest lecturers. For lectures of T&I practice courses, the requirements are published translation work or 2 million words of translation practice. For those in interpreting, lectures should have experience of interpreting for large-scale international activities. And they both should have middle or above level of professional ranks and titles, qualification Certificate of Translation Proficiency (Level II) or above and be expert member of Translators Association of China.

As for MTI guest lecturers of Translation Management and Technology courses, the requirements include:

- More than five years of working experiences in translation project management or translation technology.

[1] https://www.tac-online.org.cn/index.php?m=content&c=index&a=show&catid=481&id=1925.
[2] https://www.tac-online.org.cn/index.php?m=content&c=index&a=show&catid=481&id=1926.

- Experiences of managing a translation team of over 20 members or leading a translation technology team of over 5 members.
- Experiences of translation project management of a single case of translating over 3 million words or interpreting project management of a single case of interpreting for over 10 customers.
- Experiences of developing CAT tools or mastering three or more CAT tools.

2.2.3 Guideline for Granting Certification to MTI Internship Partners

This *Guideline* listed the screening standards for MTI programs to select legitimate internship partners for their students, which includes:

- Registered legal institutes with 5 years of T&I businesses
- More than 150 m^2 of office areas
- Annual turnover of more than 2 million RMB yuan
- More than 20 full-time employees, with more than 5 employees having middle or above level of professional ranks/titles, owning Qualification Certificate of Translation Proficiency (Level II) or above, being expert member of Translators Association of China or MTI guest lecturers.

The above three guidelines are of vital importance in leading a health development of master programs in T&I education. In the near future, more guidelines and plans will be put forward.

3 Future Directions of T&I Education in China's Mainland

With decades of development, T&I education in China's Mainland has made great achievements. The new era of economic and social development in China's Mainland has posed new challenges and opportunities. Therefore, the practitioners in T&I education, research, and the professional fields in China's Mainland are collaborating for the following future works: the establishment of DTI education; the development of Test for Translation and Interpreting Majors-Band 8 (TTIM-8) (Mu et al. 2017), the development of T&I scale in China's Standard of English (CSE) to match with Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), the development of Translation and Localization Management Training Programs, and the development of the World Interpreter and Translator Training Association (WITTA).

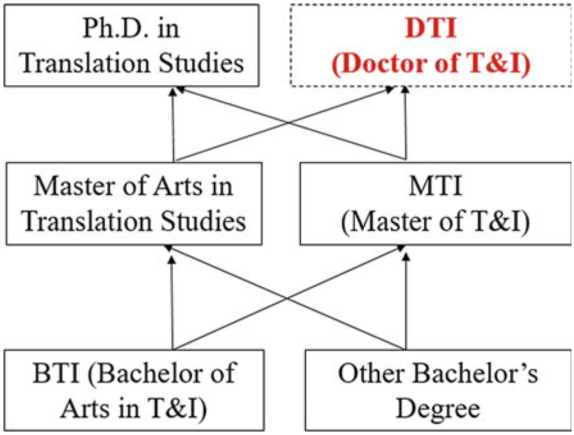

Fig. 1 T&I education system (Mu et al. 2013)

3.1 The Establishment of DTI Education

Currently, T&I education system (Fig. 1) can be divided into professional education path (on the right) and academic education path (on the left). The professional education includes professional degrees, BTI, MTI, and DTI which is in preparation. As for academic path, there are Master of Arts in Translation Studies (TS) and Ph.D. in TS. Figure 1 demonstrates the whole system of T&I education to illustrate the positioning of each degree. At present, there is a lack of DTI program in China's Mainland.

DTI is different from Ph.D. education in its professional-oriented nature. Ph.D. (in Translation Studies) aims at training academic researchers in T&I while DTI aims at training high level practitioners with problem-shooting capabilities, such as managerial professionals, senior practitioners, and senior trainers of language services.

3.2 The Development of Translation and Interpreting Majors-Band (TTIM-8)

Currently, there is TEM-8 (Test for English Majors-Band 8, an achievement test) for English majors, CATTI-2 (China Accreditation Test for Translators and Interpreters Level 2, a proficiency test) for MTI students, but not a test to check the educational quality of students in BTI programs. Therefore, we are designing an achievement test especially for BTI students according to *The National Standards of BTI Education Quality*. The test, combing both translation and interpreting, will be hold in the 8th semester of the four-year BTI program.

As for the part of translation (around 100 min), the test includes: translation-related knowledge: knowledge about translation skills, translation profession, etc., summary writing (in the target language), textual translation: both language directions.

As for the part of interpreting (around 100 min), the test includes: listening comprehension, encyclopedic knowledge, profession ethics (with oral answers), summary retelling (in the target language), and dialogue interpreting and consecutive interpreting.

3.3 The Development of T&I Scale in CSE

The formulation of the CSE is the basis for the construction of a national foreign language proficiency assessment system (Liu 2015). Based on the communicative language ability model, CSE aims to develop a national proficiency scale for English language. However, according to the literature review of the existing language competence scales (Han 2006; Han and Chang 2011), there is only one scale illustrate T&I (i.e., ILR).

Since the teaching environment and education system in China is different from other countries, we cannot simply apply the ready-made language proficiency scales. Moreover, with the large number of T&I programs in China's Mainland, it is necessary to include T&I in CSE.

In CSE, T&I competence is regarded as a mediation competence connecting listening, reading, speaking, and writing. With T&I scales in CSE, we could not only differentiate T&I behavior with other English language activities but also divide T&I competence with numerous concrete descriptors that could be used in teaching, learning, and testing.

3.4 Translation and Localization Management Training Program

We are now also working on the development of translation and localization management training programs in MTI and BTI Education. Take GDUFS, for example, the program targets different levels of students.

- For BTI students
  - 1st year, 2nd semester: the course mainly focuses on the introduction to the translation profession and its related technology
  - 2nd year, 1st semester: basics of computer-aided translation (CAT).

Table 1 Curriculum of translation and localization management program at GDUFS[a]

Course type	Course title	Credit	Credit hour	Semester
Compulsory courses	Advanced computer-aided translation	2	36	1
	Introduction of language services	2	36	2
	Project management of language services	2	36	3
	Localization and internationalization projects	2	36	3
Selective courses	Website localization	2	36	2
	Terminology and corpus management	2	36	2
	Software localization	2	36	3
	Localization desktop publishing	2	36	3
	Project workshop of language services	2	36	3

[a]Refer to the Training Program (revised in June, 2015) for MTI Students of School of Interpreting and Translation Studies, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies

- For MTI students
  - 1st year, 1st semester: the course mainly focuses on the theory and practice of CAT
  - 2nd year, 1st semester: workshops on translation tools and technology.

Table 1 shows the detailed curriculum of Translation and Localization Management Program at GDUFS.

3.5 *World Interpreter and Translator Training Association (WITTA)*

The aims of WITTA are to operate as a strategic partner of such international associations as CIUTI, FIT, and TAC; to bring together governmental, industrial, pedagogical, and academic institutions to promote worldwide interpreter and translator training/education; to pull together translation and interpreting resources and expertise to assist its members in their endeavors to train qualified interpreters and translators.

Its members include educational institutions, research institutes, academic journals, language service providers/companies, governmental departments, professional organizations, and other related organizations of translation and interpreting from all over the world.

Simply put, with governmental support, industrial motivation, pedagogical contribution, and academic research, WITTA could achieve a synergy effect to a commonly better future of T&I education for our next generations.

Appendix 1: Thesis Format Example of the Internship Reports (Mu and Zou 2013)

1. Overview of the translation internship	1.1 Background: source of the internship, company introduction, and job responsibility	
	1.2 Project description	Project name, project details (language pair, topic/field, word count, time limit, etc.), target user(s): target readers or audience, client's quality requirement, etc.
	1.3 Structure of the report	
2. Preparation of the project	2.1 Demand analysis	Feasibility or cost–benefit analysis
	2.2 Project planning	*Project manager: translation task arrangement (translation, revision, typeset, customer service), project specification, project flowchart etc. *Translator/interpreter: work schedule, quality control, etc. *Translation editor: work schedule, translation quality standard, etc.
	2.3 Technical support: project management tool, telecommunication tool, CAT tools, terminology management tool, etc.	
	2.4 Emergency plan	
3. Process of the project	3.1 Project implementation	
	3.2 Emergency handling	
4. Evaluation of the project	4.1 Feedback and evaluation of the customers	
	4.2 Feedback and evaluation of project members	
	4.3 Self-evaluation	
5. Conclusion	5.1 Problems occurred in the project and their solutions	

Appendix 2: Thesis Format Example of the Translation/Interpreting Practice Report (Mu and Zou 2013)

1. Task description	1.1 Background: source of the internship, reason for choosing the text	
	1.2 Task features	Source text: language pair, linguistic style, cultural elements, topic/field, word count, etc.
		Client requirement: format, delivery date, quality standard, etc.
	1.3 Structure of the report	
2. Process description	2.1 Preparation of the task	Task distribution, preparation of CAT tools, glossary, translation strategies, translation schedule, quality control method, emergency plan, etc.
	2.2 Process of the task	Implementation and emergency handling
	2.3 Post-translation matters	Choice of editors, methods of revision (self-revision/editor), etc.
		Feedback and evaluation of the client
3. Case analysis	3.1 Problems occurring in the practice	Different types of problems, representative examples
	3.2 Solutions	Corresponding translation strategies
	3.3 Discussion	
4. Conclusion	4.1 Unsolved problems 4.2 Implications	
5. References	Documents or literature cited in the report	
6. Appendices	Appendix 1 Source text/audio	
	Appendix 2 Target text/audio	
	Appendix 3 Glossary	
	Appendix 4 CAT tools used (if applicable)	
	Appendix 5 Contract of the translation/interpreting task	

Appendix 3: Thesis Format Example of the Translation Experiment/Survey Report (Mu and Zou 2013)

1. An overview of the experiment/survey	1.1 Background	Rationale, objectives, etc.
	1.2 Methods	Hypothesis, major questions to be answered, methods of the experiment/survey, etc.
	1.3 Structure of the report	
2. Process of the experiment/survey	2.1 Preparation	Time, place, tools, etc.
		Choice of subjects, conditions, sampling, etc.
		*Experiment design: pilot, pre-test, variables control, post-test, etc. *Survey design: survey questions, pilot and revision, etc.
		Emergency plan
	2.2 Implementation and emergency handling (if applicable)	
3. Results and discussion	3.1 Data collection	
	3.2 Data description	
	3.3 Data analysis and discussion	
4. Conclusion	4.1 Problems occurred in the project and solutions	
	4.2 Unsolved problems and reflections	
	4.3 Implications	
5. References	Documents or literature cited in the report	
6. Appendices	Appendix 1 Original data in the translation experiment/survey	
	Appendix 2 List of tools used in the experiment/survey	

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Professional Standards and Norms of Translation: Reflections from the Perspective of the Sociology of Law

Junfeng Zhao and Xiaoran Xue

Abstract As the only national professional association, Translators' Association of China (TAC), along with other relevant departments and institutions, developed and issued a host of professional standards and norms of translation which, to some extent, has contributed to and will continue to push for an orderly development of language services industry in China. Nevertheless, related laws with binding force are yet to be developed to ensure the transition of the industry from "a chaotic market" to "a professional autonomy." Interactive relations between industry norms and prospective laws are explored from the perspective of the sociology of law, and suggestions on the legislation of translation industry are accordingly presented in this chapter.

Keywords Translation profession · Standards · Norms · Legislation · Sociology of law

1 Introduction

As China's only national association of the translation and interpreting community, Translators Association of China (TAC), founded in 1982, takes the responsibility to safeguard the interests and rights of translators, interpreters, and any people who participate in the language service industry, support, and ensure the quality of translation and interpreting. It also promotes understanding and coordination among all sorts of practitioners in the language service industry. Besides, the Chinese translation industry is in the progress of professionalization, which has become an integral part in the social system and is playing an increasingly important role in the social development of the country.

TAC gradually began to respond to the call of the industry for guidance and regulations. Since 2003, it has helped to establish and promote three national standards

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of the language service industry, and also formulated and issued 18 related specifications. The making of these standards has shown the progress in the regulation and professionalization of the translation industry in the country and can provide some feasible reference for the legislation of the translation industry. This chapter is to study the status quo of the norms and standards in Chinese translation industry issued by TAC, and then to explore the feasible ways of legislation in the Chinese translation industry based on the gaps identified between the industrial standards/norms and prospective laws, i.e., codified statutes.

2 Sociology of Law

The sociology of law, also called legal sociology, is a sub-discipline of sociology and also an interdisciplinary approach within legal studies. It consists of various approaches to the study of law in society, which empirically examine and theorize the interaction between law, legal/non-legal institutions, and social factors (Trevino 2008). Areas of socio-legal inquiry include the social development of legal institutions, forms of social control, legal regulation, the interaction between legal cultures, the social construction of legal issues, legal profession, and the relation between law and social change.

The sociology of law benefits from and occasionally draws on research conducted in other fields such as comparative law, critical legal studies, jurisprudence, legal theory, law and economics, and law and literature. It became clearly established as an academic field of learning and empirical research after the Second World War (Deflem 2008). In contrast to the traditional understanding of law, the sociology of law does not normally view and define the law only as a system of rules, doctrines, and decisions, which exist independently of the society out of which it has emerged. The rule-based aspect of law is, admittedly, important, but provides an inadequate basis for describing, analyzing, and understanding law in its social context (Nelken 2009). Thus, legal sociology regards law as a set of institutional practices which have evolved over time and developed in relation to, and through interaction with cultural, economic, and socio-political structures and institutions. As a modern social system, law does strive to gain and retain its autonomy to function independently of other social institutions and systems such as religion, polity, and economy.

Some influential approaches within the sociology of law have challenged definitions of law in terms of official law (also state law). From this standpoint, law is understood broadly to include not only the legal system and formal (or official) legal institutions and processes, but also various informal (or unofficial) forms of normativity and regulation which are generated within groups, associations, and communities. The sociological studies of law are, thus, not internal normative orderings of various groups and communities, such as the community of lawyers, businessmen, scientists, or members of political parties. In short, law is studied as an integral and constitutive part of social institutions, groupings, and communities. This approach is developed further under the section on legal pluralism, which whereby "two or more legal systems coexist in the same social field" is the dominant feature of most legal orders worldwide (Merry 1988, 869–896).

Legal pluralism is a concept developed by legal sociologists and social anthropologists "to describe multiple layers of law, usually with different sources of legitimacy that exists within a single state or society" (Olgiati 2007, 1117–1119). Legal pluralists define law broadly to include not only the system of courts and judges backed by the coercive power of the state, but also the "non-legal forms of normative ordering" (Merry 1988, 869–896). Under this pluralistic legal system, "law" consists of official rules such as legal regulations set by state authority, and unofficial rules announced by associations, organizations or government agencies, such as citizens' convention, village regulation and agreement, industry norm, and association charter (Wang 2016, pp. 5–19). In translation service industry, which can be seen as a given domain, the existing standards are one form of "non-legal forms of normative ordering." In this chapter, the translation industry norms and prospective translation law are discussed with regard to the legal pluralism.

3 Norms, Standards, and Code of Ethics Issued by TAC

This chapter focuses on the existing translation industry standards (issued before January 1, 2018), and presents a holistic and detailed description through information gathering, literature analysis, and theoretical analysis. Before the analysis of the industry standards, the current situations of Chinese translation industry and Chinese translation associations are to be discussed.

3.1 Current Situations of Chinese Translation Industry

In the past thirty years, traditional translation industry has grown rapidly and developed toward a more complicated and comprehensive service sector. Thanks to the globalization and the soaring increase of the Internet, it has become a very important part of the global industry chain, and has played an increasingly significant role (Guo 2010, pp. 34–37). In China, the translation industry has also experienced such fast growth rates and high profit rate. According to *China Language Service Industry Development Report 2012*, written and issued by Translators Association of China, and Institute of China Translation Development, by the end of 2011, the output value of Chinese translation industry had reached RMB 157.6 billion, and there were 37,197 language service providers and about 1.19 million practitioners (translators and interpreters account for 53.8%) in this industry. In *China Language Service Industry Development Report 2014*, the data were updated, showing a rapid growth in this industry. By the end of 2013, the number of language service providers had increased to 55,975, growing at an average annual rate of 18.5%.

The Blue Book of Language Service for Chinese Enterprise Globalization (2016) depicted a much more detailed full view of Chinese translation industry. Against the background of the China's Going Global Strategy, the importance and necessity of language service had drawn the attention of going-out-for-investing enterprises. With more and more enterprises expanding their overseas business territory, the demand for language service had been soaring, and it had also promoted the industry's rapid development. According to the Blue Book, between the year of 2011 and 2015, the growth rate of average annual output value of China's language service industry was 19.7%, 1.2% higher than last statistical survey. This showed that the language service sector, as an important part of the tertiary industry, displayed a good rising tendency (Wang et al. 2016).

Two years later, TAC issued a new industry development report—*China Language Service Industry Development Report 2018*. Based on a holistic and systematic analysis and research, the report showed the latest statistical data, newly-emerged industry phenomena, and the new development trends. By the end of June, 2018, there were 320,874 companies providing language services; compared with the figure of 2016, 72,495 new companies were set up within the two years, which meant a huge growth in industry practitioners and investors on one hand, and a dramatic improvement in social recognition of the language service sector and a further growth in the societal need for language services on the other hand. At the same time, more and more Chinese language service providers were named as world's Top 100 language service providers. According to Common Sense Advisory, there were eight Chinese language service providers on the Top 100 list in 2018. They were Pactera Technology International Ltd., CSOFT International, Sunyu, FBC GLOBAL, EC Innovations, Inc., Sichuan Lan-Bridge Communication Co., Ltd., WordTech International Co., and Master Translation Services. Among them, Pactera Technology International Ltd. was ranked eighteenth, the highest ranking achieved by a Chinese company so far.

Nevertheless, as a relatively newly developed industry, especially at the stage of implementing the Belt and Road Initiative, Chinese translation industry is also facing several serious problems. There are some industry norms, standards, and specifications available at the moment, but they are not well-organized and cannot work in a systematic way. The underdevelopment of translation associations partly leads to a less well-regulated translation industry market. The lack of effective supervision and administration allows for unqualified translators, interpreters, or even language service providers to wedge themselves into this industry, causing a disordered business environment. The low requirement for market access not only fills the industry with incompetent practitioners, but also drives away highly qualified translators. Authorities and regulators of the translation industry are confronted with questions, such as how to attract and retain the highly qualified language talents, how to formulate and implement the standards that can regulate the industry in an ordered way and keep out the unqualified translators, and how to administrate and supervise the industry in an effective and efficient way. Urgent solutions are needed to tackle these problems.

3.2 Basic Conditions of Chinese Translation Associations

Functioning as an academic and professional association, TAC consists of institutions, enterprises, associations, and individuals all around the country engaged in translation and interpretation, on a voluntary basis, with group, corporate, and individual members in China's provinces, municipalities, autonomous regions, and special administrative regions. With the language service sector fast growing, TAC founded several branch associations, such as Translation Service Committee, Localization Service Committee, Legal Translation Committee, and so on, to take charge of specific affairs and provide targeted services. TAC, as a developing professional association, has several functions. The first is the function of control, including control of expertise. They organize research, offer training, and help to establish a formal education system. The second is the function of control of admissions. They accredit or certify language service providers. Their third function is the control of members. They establish and enforce code of ethics, set standards, negotiate over prices, and ensure quality management. They also have the function of public-related control. They educate the clientele and the public about translation. Lastly, they have the function of government-related control. They conduct political persuasion and lobbying.

In addition, TAC offers training to ensure the expertise of practitioners, organizing all sorts of training programs, such as administrative training, teacher training, and technology training. For instance, in formal translation education, TAC participated in the establishing, developing, and promoting of the education for the master of translation and interpreting (MTI). In current translation industry, accreditation mainly refers to a process in which certification of translation competency, authority, or credibility is presented. TAC helped to organize China Accreditation Test for Translators and Interpreters (CATTI), which was launched in 2003 by the Ministry of Personnel of People's Republic of China. The test is considered the most authoritative national level translation and interpretation proficiency qualification accreditation test in China. It has been designed to assess the proficiency and competence of professional Chinese translators and interpreters in an objective, scientific, and fair manner. TAC also conducted the accreditation of part-time MTI teachers and offered accreditation of MTI practice bases.

With the professionalization of translation industry and the increasing maturity of TAC, some standards and regulations of different areas were formulated and issued to help regulate the members and practitioners' professional behaviors. Since 2003, TAC has devoted to promoting the formulation of industry standards and specifications and helped General Administration of Quality Supervision, Inspection, and Quarantine of the People's Republic of China to establish the first three national language service standards: *GB/T 19363.1-2003 Specification for Translation Service: Part 1: Translation*, *GB/T 19682-2005 Target Text Quality Requirements for Translation Services*, and *GB/T 19363.2-2006 Specification for Translation Service: Part 2: Interpretation.* In particular, the proposal and drafting work of the third national language standard was mainly taken on by TAC's Translation Service

Committee, which indicates TAC has gained more experience in standard making and provided more professional consideration in it. Except for the three national language service standards, TAC successively formulated and issued several industry specifications, requirements, and regulations: *T/TAC 1-2016 Translation Service—Requirements for Translation Service*, *T/TAC 1-2017 Competences of Translator and Interpreter*, *Quotation for Translation Service*, *Quotation for Interpretation Service*, *Quotation for Localization Service*, *Localization—Basic Terms and Concepts*, *Specifications for Selecting Localization Service Providers*, *Regulation on Accreditation of Part-time Teachers of Master of Translation and Interpreting*, *Regulation on Accreditation of Training Bases (Enterprises) of Master of Translation and Interpreting*, and *Guidelines on Procurement of Translation Service—Part 1: Translation.* In terms of ethics of translation industry, TAC released the *Professional Code of Ethics of Chinese Language Service Industry* in 2013, as an attempt to regulate the industry by ethical autonomy. However, it is worth noting that these standards are not compulsory, but recommended standards. The lack of relevant accreditation and assessment mechanism also leads to some awkward situations, where the language service providers are short of wide recognition and strict observance of them.

3.3 Status Quo of the Standards in Chinese Translation Industry

In translation service industry, translation norms are embodied by the standards formulated and issued by national standard-setting bodies and industry associations. In China's translation service industry, General Administration of Quality Supervision, Inspection, and Quarantine of the People's Republic of China as the national standard-setting body has released three national industry standards, China Association for Standardization as the national standard-setting association has also taken part in some standards' setting, and TAC, the only national association in the field of translation in China, has almost participated in all the work of standards setting for translation industry. Therefore, this chapter considers TAC as the main body for setting the standards for the Chinese translation industry.

3.3.1 An Overview of Existing Standards in Translation Industry of China

In the translation industry of China, the release of the first industry standards goes back to 2003 with the publication of the document *GB/T 19363.1-2003 Specification for Translation Service: Part 1: Translation,* which filled the gap and took the first step to regulate the industry activities. Guided by GB/T 19,000/ISO 9000 and referring to Germany DIN2345 Standard, the first industry standards presented the requirements for translation service providers to run in the whole process of business. To be specific, since the process management of the translation service providers is a useful measure to ensure translation quality, this standard establishes the requirements for translation service providers regarding all of the following activities—preparation, translation, revision, editing, proofreading, checking, client feedback, documentation management, accountability, confidentiality, and so on. The translation service providers keep their eyes on the whole process and help to form a complete quality guarantee system and service system, which can provide a mutual-trust ground for both translation service providers and clients.

Following the first standard, the other two national standards came into being in 2005 and 2006, respectively. *GB/T 19682-2005 Target Text Quality Requirements for Translation Services*, mainly focusing on the target text quality, can be viewed as a product norm. The standard contains the target text quality evaluation part, listing the evaluation related elements, general evaluation principles, the scope of target text quality, etc. *GB/T 19363.2-2006 Specification for Translation Service: Part 2: Interpretation*, the first interpretation standard in this industry, was mainly proposed and drafted by TAC's Translation Service Committee. As the second part of *Specification for Translation Service*, it also puts emphasis on the requirements for interpretation service providers governing the process of interpretation service. The standard sets up several requirements on the qualification of interpretation service providers, including the elements (such as site, personnel, contents, and the charging standards) of business contacts, interpreter's qualifications, client's support, business management, the process control of interpretation service, and confidentiality.

As localization service is one of the businesses of TAC, and its increasing importance has drawn the attention of the translation industry, TAC founded the Localization Service Committee in 2009 to take charge of the localization-related work. Localization is the process of adapting a product or content to a specific locale or market. Translation is only one of the several elements of the localization process. In addition to translation, the localization process may also incur adapting graphics to target markets, modifying contents to suit the tastes and consumption habits of local markets, adapting certain designs and layouts to properly display translated texts, converting to local requirements (such as currencies and units of measure), using proper local formats for dates, addresses, and phone numbers, and addressing local regulations and legal requirements. The aim of localization is to give a product the look and feel of having been created specifically for a target market, regardless their language, culture, or location. The document *ZYF 001-2011 Localization—Basic Terms and Concepts* is the first sector standard for the language service industry published in China, drafted by TAC's Localization Service Committee and released by TAC. It defines several key terms and concepts related to localization, including comprehensiveness, roles of localization service, localization service process, elements of localization service, types of localization service, and technology. The issuance and use of normative terms and concepts can promote the communication efficiency in localization working process, to provide guidance for small- and medium-sized clients and to improve the fairness and health development of the industry.

Also in 2011, two other regulations on accreditation were published—*Regulation on Accreditation of Part-time Teachers of Master of Translation and Interpreting,* and *Regulation on Accreditation of Training Bases (Enterprises) of Master of Translation and Interpreting*. Both of them are jointly drafted and issued by China National Committee for Translation and Interpreting Education and TAC, aiming to innovate the education mode of master of translation and interpreting (MTI), to promote the collaboration among the translation industry, universities, and research institutes, and to regulate the training bases of MTI. The regulation on accreditation of part-time translation teachers mainly emphasizes specifying the basic requirements, professional qualifications, and the recommendation and verification of part-time teachers, in order to meet the market requirements for application-oriented professional translators and interpreters. The Regulation on accreditation of training bases (enterprises) mainly emphasizes instructing the training bases (enterprises) to provide proper training contents and use effective operation methods in order to make sure that students can obtain serious training and instruction, and at the same time promote the formation of long-term stable relation between universities and enterprises. The two regulations mainly focus on development of professional competence and ability of translators and interpreters and then the promotion of the professionalization of language service industry.

In 2013, at the China International Language Industry Conference 2013 organized by TAC, *Professional Code of Ethics of Chinese Language Service Industry* was officially released. Made up of four chapters with seventeen items in total, it was an upgraded version of *China's Code of Professional Ethics for Translators and Interpreters*. Code of ethics in language service industry has attracted much research, as practitioners in ever-widening fields of translation and interpreting practice see such codes as essential in underpinning their professionalism (Ozolins 2014, pp. 347–370). The professionalization of China's language service industry calls for not only professional competence, but also ethical virtues of practitioners, which can contribute to the establishment of language service industry credit system. The issue of the code of ethics can encourage every practitioner to follow its principles, including professional conduct, confidentiality, impartiality, accuracy, professional development, professional solidarity, and so on.

In 2013, TAC released the industry sector standard *ZYF 001-2013 Specifications for Quotation of Localization Service*, which defined localization service related tasks and quotation modes. Since localization service is an emerging sector, service providers and clients may differ in their understanding the localization service, which usually causes problems in the process of localization service. The specification presents the definition of two main localization tasks, namely software user interface localization service and document localization service, and clarifies the working process and working content of the two tasks.

In 2014, another two sector standards on quotation took effect. They were *ZYF 002-2014 Quotation for Translation Service* and *ZYF 003-2014 Quotation for Interpretation Service*. The former, applying to translation service businesses, stipulates the content and modes of translation service. Based on the procedure of translation service, the quotation comprises six parts: preparation (before translation), translation, graph editing, desktop publishing, creation and maintaining of glossary of terms, and translation project management. Each part lists detailed quotation modes and quotation equations. *Quotation for Interpretation Service*, applying to interpretation service businesses, stipulates the content and modes of the interpretation service. It defines the two types of interpretation, namely consecutive and simultaneous interpreting, clarifies the content of interpretation service, and explains the modes of quotation. The specification on quotation is an attempt to regulate the language service industry in a more ordered way, so as to meet the requirements of the increasingly mature language service market.

Actually, the first sector standard for the language service industry in China issued in 2014 is *ZYF 001-2014 Specifications for Selecting Localization Service Providers*. In order to instruct not only the client to choose suitable localization service providers, but also the localization service providers to find its own suppliers (including enterprises, associations, and individuals), the specification presented the evaluation content of provider selection, including types of service, number of languages, human resources, comprehensive productivity and quotation, quality and process, response and delivery, technology support, information security, and social responsibility. At the same time, it listed the specific evaluation items under each evaluation content, making the specification more understandable and operable. The specification can be seen as a guide for localization service clients, which has created a good cooperation environment for both localization service providers and clients.

In 2016, TAC released its first standard in China's language service industry in a document entitled *T/TAC 1-2016 Translation Service—Requirements for Translation Services*. The standards were drafted based on several documents, including *GB/T 1.1—2009 Directives for Standardization—Part 1: Structure and Drafting of Standards*, *IOS 17,100: 2015 Translation Service—Requirements for Translation Service* and its revised version in 2016. The standard provides requirements for the core processes, resources, and other aspects necessary for the delivery of a quality translation service that meets applicable specifications. It also provides the means by which a translation service provider can demonstrate their conformity to T/TAC 1-2016 and their capability to deliver a translation service that will meet the client's and other applicable specifications. Applicable specifications can include those of the client, of the translation service provider itself, and of any relevant industry standards and codes.

Also in 2016, TAC released an industry sector standard, i.e., *ZYF 001-2016 Quality Evaluation Code for Localization Translation and DTP*. It defines the category and severity level of errors in localization translation and desktop publishing (DTP), and evaluates the weight of each type of error on the entire quality, providing a guideline for localization service providers and clients to evaluate the quality of localization translation and DTP. It also helps both parties negotiate the price, confirm the process, and accept the service on the same standards, thus ensuring that a smooth cooperation can be achieved.

In 2017, TAC released the second standard in China's language service industry, namely *T/TAC 2-2017 Competences of Translator and Interpreter*. It was also drafted on the basis of *GB/T 1.1—2009 Directives for Standardization—Part 1: Structure and Drafting of Standards*. Since translators and interpreters are the essential parties to perform translation and interpretation activities, they have great influence on the translation and interpretation service quality. With the lack of competency assessment mechanism of translator and interpreter currently, the competence of these practitioners varies widely in the language service market, and therefore, the quality of translation and interpretation varies too. In view of the above-mentioned facts, clients, language service providers, universities, and other institutions all see the urgent need for regulating the competence of translators and interpreters. The standard can provide criteria for clients to judge the competence of translators and interpreters, provide reference for language service providers when selecting translators and interpreters, and provide translator and interpreter training orientation and objectives for universities and other training institutions. To provide quality translation and interpretation services, the translator and interpreter need to be equipped with several competences. Besides the competence of mastering the foreign language, translation, and interpreting, they also need to possess the competence of word collocation and language processing, the competence of research, information searching and processing, the cultural and technological competence, and the competence of translation and interpretation-related field content understanding and reproduction. It also lists the methods to assess these competences, and the documentary evidence that translators and interpreters can present to demonstrate their competences, because at present it is very difficult to quantitatively evaluate these professional competences.

Also in 2017, TAC released an industry sector standard, i.e., *ZYF 001-2017 Guidelines on Procurement of Translation Service—Part 1: Translation*, in order to further stipulate procurement of translation service, guide, and help translation service purchasers to choose targeted translation service providers conveniently. The guideline can provide not only the rules to be obeyed by both purchasers and translation service providers, but also a good communication and information exchanging platform. This way it will create a fair and square translation service procurement environment and protect the benefit of both parties to the utmost extent. The two main elements that affect the procurement of translation service is the need of the purchaser and the assessment of translation service provider. Therefore, the guideline defines the procurement need of the purchaser and the basic assessment elements of translation service provider. To be specific, the guideline presents the basic content of translation service procurement—the communication between the purchaser and provider, and the general process of translation service procurement. The former is further divided into several parts: general requirements, intended use and form of the target text, translation involved languages and characteristics of target readers, the scale and number of procurement, the time, carriers, and ways of final delivery, terminology and area of expertise, acceptance check, information assurance and security, and so on. The guideline also instructs the purchaser how to choose a reliable translation service provider, and the recommended method is to assess the several elements of the provider, such as factors influencing provider's performance capability, their human and technological resources, the integrating capacity and cooperating experience of the provider, quality control and standard implementing, and so on.

As an official association, TAC has its charter to explain the purpose for the association's existence and to state the rules and regulations that the association must abide by. At present, TAC has released three administrative documents: the Charter of TAC (revised in 2015), Interim Provisions for Administration of Affiliated Committees (revised in 2016), and Interim Provisions for Administration of Members (revised in 2017). The Charter of TAC identifies the name, nature, purpose, governing bodies, and location of the association and also defines its scope of service, requirements for membership admittance to the association, the makeup of the board of directors, the process for electing board members, the role of each position, and so on. The document, Interim Provisions for Administration of Affiliated Committees, was formulated for strengthening management of TAC's affiliated committees and guaranteeing the healthy development of TAC and its affiliated committees. It describes the purpose, name, and required documents for the establishment of affiliated committees, and the rules that the affiliated committees must abide by. In particular, it states that affiliated committees can admit members in related working and professional areas after being authorized, and these members will also acquire the membership of TAC and have all the rights and obligations of TAC members. The document, Interim Provisions for Administration of Members, is set for strengthening the management of TAC membership, organizing activities in an effective fashion, and providing quality service for all members. Its second article states clearly the eligibility of the membership—any institution, enterprise, association, and individual, who supports the Charter of TAC, is willing to join the association and take part in its activities, and fulfills the obligations, is eligible to become an TAC member. It also defines the makeup of the membership, the application and admission processes, the required supporting documents, the rights and privileges of the membership, the obligations of the membership, membership management, membership dues, and membership services.

3.3.2 Existing Standards in Translation Industry of China

There are totally eighteen existing standards in China's translation industry currently. In this section, we shall classify these standards into different categories based on their time of release, the kinds of standards, and the contents, and carries out some analysis on them, respectively.

The Release Year of Existing Standards

Taking the year of 2010 as a dividing line, there are only three standards issued before 2010 and the other fifteen standards published in the last eight years (Fig. 1):

The three standards issued before 2010 were *GB/T 19363.1-2003 Specification for Translation Service: Part 1: Translation* (date of latest amendment is 2008), *GB/T*

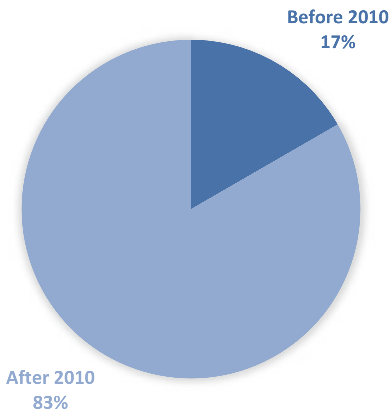


Fig. 1 Release year of existing standards

19682-2005 Target Text Quality Requirements for Translation Services, and *GB/T 19363.2-2006 Specification for Translation Service: Part 2: Interpretation.*

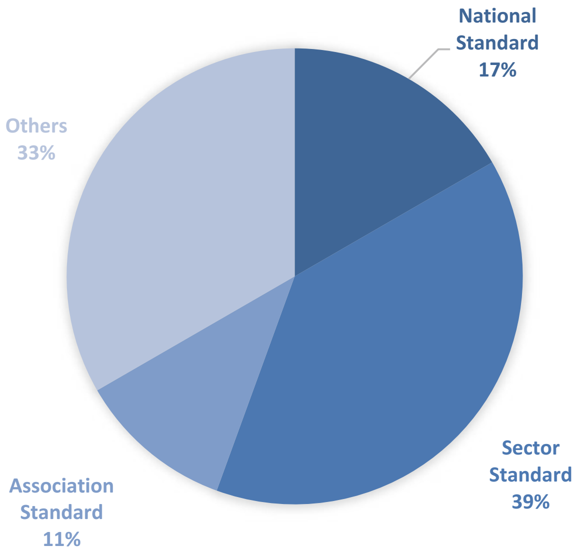
In 2011, there were three standards coming into being; in 2013, there were two; in 2014, there were three; in 2015, there was one; in 2016, there were three; and in 2017, there were three. The statistics shows that in the past eight years, TAC has paid increasing attention to translation standard setting and industry regulation, and it also indicates that China's language service industry has been rapidly developing, which calls for standardized regulation and orderly market conditions.

The Types of Existing Standards

In November 2017, *Standardization Law of the People's Republic of China* was promulgated. After being revised and adopted at the 30th Meeting of the Standing Committee of the Twelfth National People's Congress, it came into force as of January 1, 2018. The revised law defines the legal status of association standards. It states clearly that standards include national standards, sector standards, local standards, association standards, and enterprise standards. National standards are divided into mandatory standards (GB) and voluntary standards (GB/T). Both sector standards and local standards are voluntary standards.

Among the existing standards in China's translation industry, there are three national standards—*GB/T 19363.1-2003 Specification for Translation Service: Part 1: Translation* (revised in 2008), *GB/T 19682-2005 Target Text Quality Requirements for Translation Services*, and *GB/T 19363.2-2006 Specification for Translation Service: Part 2: Interpretation.* There are two association standards—*T/TAC 1-2016 Translation Service—Requirements for Translation Services* and *T/TAC 2-2017 Competences of Translator and Interpreter*. There are seven sector standards—*ZYF 001-2011 Localization—Basic Terms and Concepts*, *ZYF 001-2013 Specifications for*

Fig. 2 Types of existing standards



Quotation of Localization Service, *ZYF 001-2014 Specifications for Selecting Localization Service Providers*, *ZYF 002-2014 Quotation for Translation Service*, *ZYF 003-2014 Quotation for Interpretation Service*, *ZYF 001-2016 Quality Evaluation Code for Localization Translation and DTP*, and *ZYF 001-2017 Guidelines on Procurement of Translation Service—Part 1: Translation.* Other standards include one code of ethics—*Professional Code of Ethics of Chinese Language Service Industry* (2013), two regulations on accreditation *Regulation on Accreditation of Part-time Teachers of Master of Translation and Interpreting*, *Regulation on Accreditation of Training Bases (Enterprises) of Master of Translation and Interpreting*, and three TAC administrative documents—the Charter of TAC (revised in 2015), Interim Provisions for Administration of Affiliated Committee (revised in 2016), and Interim Provisions for Administration of Members (revised in 2017) (Fig. 2):

The three national standards and seven sector standards are voluntary standards. The two association standards were set by the association on the basis of market requirements and conditions. At present, the state encourages societies, associations, federations, and other social organizations to coordinate with relevant market stakeholders in jointly developing association standards. These standards shall be adopted by their members upon agreement or as stipulated by such organizations and may be made publicly available for voluntary adoption by others.

The code of ethics is also a recommended moral instruction, aiming to create an orderly, fair, and transparent market and keep the industry in an autonomous governance situation.

The two regulations on accreditation state clearly the qualification requirements for part-time teachers and training bases (enterprises) of master of translation and interpreting, which to some extent have constraints on applicants. The three TAC administrative documents mainly regulate the members and branches of TAC and can be regarded as the internal regulation. Since not all the industry practitioners are TAC member, and the qualification requirements for the members are relatively low, the three administrative documents only have a limited restriction on its members and affiliated committees and lack a compelling force to regulate the translation industry. As for the participants who disobey the above-mentioned standards, there is no effective punitive measures against improper behaviors.

The Contents of Existing Standards

In terms of the contents, the existing standards can be sorted into nine groups, as presented in the following table (Table 1):

Table 1 Contents of existing standards

Contents	The existing standards
Internal administrative documents	The Charter of TAC Interim Provisions for Administration of Affiliated Committee Interim Provisions for Administration of Members
Specifications for service	Specification for Translation Service: Part 1: Translation Specification for Translation Service: Part 2: Interpretation Translation service—Requirements for Translation Services
Specification for terms	Localization—Basic Terms and Concepts
Regulations on accreditation	Regulation on Accreditation of Part-time Teachers of Master of Translation and Interpreting Regulation on Accreditation of Training Bases (Enterprises) of Master of Translation and Interpreting
Professional code of ethics	Professional Code of Ethics of Chinese Language Service Industry
Requirements for quality	Target Text Quality Requirements for Translation Services Quality Evaluation Code for Localization Translation and DTP
Specifications for quotation	Specifications for Quotation of Localization Service Quotation for Translation Service Quotation for Interpretation Service
Guidelines for clients	Specifications for Selecting Localization service Providers Guidelines on Procurement of Translation Service—Part 1: Translation
Requirements for competence	Competences of Translator and Interpreter

3.3.3 The Characteristics of Existing Standards

From the theoretical lens of the sociology of law, we find three main characteristics in the existing standards in China's translation industry.

Professionalism

As China's language service industry is getting more and more professional, the standards on translation expertise, practitioners' competence, product quality, and so on can not only regulate the professional practice procedures, but also guarantee all the practitioners' benefits. As far as the standard-setting is concerned, these standards were formulated by TAC members, whose professional background and expertise served as a guarantee of the professionalism of these standards.

Multi-Subject Participation

The proper functioning and sound development of any industry need all participants to be fully involved. Language service industry is no exception. There are five main participants in this industry: the language service providers (enterprises and individuals), the language service clients (enterprises and individuals), the association of language industry (TAC), universities and other training institutes, and the national authority representing the state. From the above analysis of existing standards, it can be found that these standards involve all the five participants more or less.

Self-discipline

In terms of the implementation of these standards, self-discipline of all participants and their voluntary compliance play a very important role in the whole process. As mentioned above, none of these standards are compulsory rules for practitioners to abide by. In other words, there is no compelling force to guarantee that these standards will be effectively observed. For instance, the three national standards, two association standards, and seven sector standards are all voluntary standards. They shall be adopted by their members upon agreement or as stipulated by such organizations, and may be made publicly available for voluntary adoption by others. The code of ethics is also a recommended moral instruction, aiming to create an orderly, fair, and transparent market and keep the industry in an autonomous governance situation. Even if some practitioners ignore these standards and perform below their requirements, they cannot be penalized.

As the internal regulations, the three TAC administrative documents can only partially regulate the behavior of its members and branches. Since not all the industry practitioners are TAC's member, and the qualification requirements for the member are relatively low, the three administrative documents only have a limited restriction on its members and affiliated committees, and lack a compelling force to regulate the translation industry. For instance, when the members of TAC severely violate the articles of the Charter, they will face a warning or expelling punishment. But for other practitioners in translation industry who are not the members of TAC, the punishment will not take effect.

4 Legislation of Translation Industry in China

4.1 Differences Between Norms and Law in Translation Industry

In the context of China's legal system, *legislation* is a series of acts, including formulating, modifying, complementing, and abolishing normative legal documents, and at the same time approving legal norms by government offices within its legal terms of reference according to the legal procedures (Zhang 2011). Norm is *a set of guidelines which regulate the behaviors of all relevant participants*. Besides, norm is also the umbrella term of standards and specifications in translation industry. As for law, it is defined as *a set of codified rules, imposed by authority, which regulate the behavior of involved parties of a given domain*. In sociology, norms are cultural phenomena that prescribe and proscribe behaviors in specific circumstances. As such, they have long been considered to be at least partly responsible for regulating social behaviors. Without norms, it is hard to imagine how an interaction and exchange between strangers could take place at all.

This is not to claim that norms must do all the things to regulate the society. The state is also responsible for regulating people's behaviors in a modern society. Its principal instrument in this respect is the law. Although the law also relies on norms and is regarded as legal norms, it is different from social norms. The law is created by design—usually through some kind of deliberative process, precisely specified in written texts, linked to particular sanctions, and enforced by a specialized bureaucracy. Social norms, by contrast, often are spontaneous (rather than deliberately planned), unwritten, and enforced informally. Laws are often seen as a means to regulate behaviors when neither self-interest nor social norms produce the desired behaviors in individuals. This suggests, on the one hand, that the law should regulate those areas in which social norms do not exist and provide support and extra enforcement in those areas where social norms exist.

In translation industry, the law generally will be the binding rules of conduct, and it is often issued by the state authority and intended for the regulation of social relations in translation industry. It will determine the rights and duties of the subjects of legal relations, and its abidance will be guaranteed by the state coercion. By contrast, standards, which are specific forms of social norms in the context of translation industry, operate in a different way. Different from other forms of social norms which are usually spontaneous (rather than deliberately planned), unwritten, and enforced informally, the standards in translation industry are well designed and written by state authority, related associations, and professional practitioners. They act on a voluntary basis. In essence, the set of standards is an agreed way of doing something. It could be about making a translation product, managing a translation process, delivering a translation service, or supplying translation materials. Standards can cover a huge range of activities in translation industry undertaken by translation service providers and used by their clients.

To sum up, the differences between norms and law in translation industry mainly lie in following aspects. The law is enacted and issued by organs of state power while the norms are formulated and issued by a related state authority, industrial association, and other related competent organizations; the law is mandatory and binding for the subjects' conduct, while the norms are non-compulsory rules for their subjects who have no legal consequence for their disobedience; the law is of generality, which is binding for an indefinite number of people and cases, while the norms are of specificity, which set out specifically in published documents for a certain subjects; the law is enforceable by the power of the state, while the norms' abidance lacks such state coercion.

4.2 The Relationship Between Existing Standards and Prospective Law

In light of the sociology of law, norms and laws are both effective approaches to regulate a given society or industry. There is a lack of translation law in current Chinese translation industry. The question whether the translation law is necessary in the translation industry can be settled by probing into the relationship between existing standards and a prospective law.

Although in the recent decade TAC put many efforts into the promotion and development of Chinese translation industry standards, and has published eighteen standards of different kinds, the implementation of these standards is not so ideal as expected. The problems such as the disorderly market, overall inferior translation quality, low threshold for entering into the business, and so on are still haunting this industry. Standards are lacking to support professional accreditation of translation services and in the wide recognition and implementation among the language service providers (Guo 2010, pp. 34-37); on the other hand, the standards may have their limitations—lacking in mandatory effectiveness. Self-discipline is the core element for the standards to take effect.

From the perspective of the sociology of law, there is a pluralistic legal system including several forms of "law." Under this pluralistic legal system, "law" consists of official rules such as legal regulations set by state authority and unofficial rules made by associations, organizations, or government agencies, such as citizens' convention, village regulation and agreement, industry norm, and association charter (Wang 2016, pp. 5–19). In terms of the industry norm, it has an interactive relationship with the official rules, also known as the law in the narrow sense, which is specifically reflected in the following ways: (1) the industry norm is the origin of some modern laws; (2) the industry norm can help to keep the industry practitioners in order; (3) the industry norm can be seen as a substitution when there is a lack of law; (4) the industry norm can make up the shortage of the law to some extent; (5) the industry norm provides the trial and error mechanism for the law; (6) the industry norm strengthens the public order constructed by the law (Lu 2003). When the industry norm is specific to the translation industry, its interactive relationship with the translation legislation can be concluded in three aspects.

Firstly, prospective translation law is a powerful weapon in protecting the sound and orderly development of translation service industry. Under the pluralistic legal system, the law issued by a state authority possesses supremacy, governing other forms of "law," for instance, the translation industry norms. The law can support and strengthen the implementation of the translation industry norms, for it represents the powerful state apparatus and orthodox values, and can consolidate the position of translation industry norms which conform to relative laws. At present, there is not a single law in translation service industry, which can weaken the implementation of the industry norms.

Secondly, translation industry norms can be the origin of the prospective translation law. The existing translation industry norms have stipulated the process and product of the translations service, the competence of professional practitioners, the ethical requirement for all practitioners, and so on, and have encompassed the five participants in the translation service industry. Taking the requirements for translation service providers for example, since the translation service provider includes enterprises and individuals, there can be separate articles to stipulate the requirements and qualification, rights, and obligations of translation companies (enterprises) and translators and interpreters (individuals), respectively. As for other participants such as TAC, the national industry association, its role, status, and responsibilities should be stated clearly. If necessary, the state can delegate a certain amount of power to TAC to improve its status and broaden the scope of power.

Thirdly, translation industry norms and the prospective translation law can complement each other. On one hand, translation industry norms place emphasis on specific requirements for the industry practitioners and the detailed specification about the process and product of translation service activities. By contrast, the prospective law focuses on general rules, providing framework for formulating specific rules at the macro level. On the other hand, the successful fulfillment of the translation industry mainly depends on the self-discipline of industry practitioners because of a lack of supervisory mechanism and penalty provisions. The prospective law, however, possessing the quality of coerciveness empowered by the state, can clearly state the legal liability and punitive measures and function as a supervisory mechanism for translation service industry, thus making sure that the translation service industry will develop smoothly under a sound legal mechanism.

4.3 Limitations to Translation Legislation

Based on the above analysis of the contents and the unique condition of Chinese language service industry, some limitations to translation legislation can also be found.

Firstly, as a profession association, TAC is only an academic society as well as a commercial association, unlike American Translators Association (ATA) which is more powerful in managing and maintaining the association and the profession. TAC does not have the administrative authority, which limits its acts of managing and maintaining the activities in language service industry and the access of profession practitioners, let alone imposing punitive measures. For instance, the China Accreditation Test for Translators and Interpreters (CATTI) is currently the most authoritative translation and interpretation proficiency qualification standards and in compliance with the national system of professional qualification certificate. The test is administered by China Foreign Languages Publishing Administration (CFLPA) under the guidance of the Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security of the People's Republic of China. TAC, as an association under the guidance and supervision of CFLPA, only has the right to organize the test and deal with some general affairs.

Secondly, there is no definite competent department of language service industry. In China, according to the Legislation Law of the People's Republic of China, there are four phases in the legislative procedure—submission, deliberation, voting, and publication. Only two kinds of legislative bodies have the right to submit legislative bills to the National People's Congress: one is the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress, the Supreme People's Court, the State Council, the Supreme People's Procuratorate, the Central Military Commission, and the special committee of the National People's Congress; the other one is a delegation or a group with more than thirty deputies. Since there is no definite competent department of language service industry, the legislative bill cannot be submitted to the National People's Congress.

Thirdly, the denotation and connotation of translation, interpreting, translator, interpreter, and language service provider have changed in recent years. Driven by the growth of the global economy and developments in high technology, the process of translating and interpreting has been evolving rapidly, so has the definition of translator and interpreter. In particular, machine translation (MT) and artificial intelligence (AI) have shown increasing capabilities in effectively accomplishing translation and interpreting tasks. As a consequence, translators and interpreters have learned to use MT as a tool to accelerate their work but with a growing wariness of the potentials for MT replacing them. Some new forms of translation are getting more popular, such as video translation, subtitling, dubbing, and voice-over. Therefore, how to define the all-inclusive translation and translators in the prospective law is a question calling for careful consideration by translation experts.

5 Conclusion

Through the analysis of the difference and relationship between the norms and prospective law, the necessity of translation legislation has been demonstrated. Meanwhile, the gap between the industry standards/norms and law has also been somewhat clarified. In a nutshell, industry norms are voluntary rules, lacking binding effect on practitioners, and they are often presented in the forms of specific standards. By contrast, laws, or codified statutes, focus on general issues in translation service industry, and related laws with binding force are yet to be developed to ensure the transition of the industry from “a chaotic market” to “a professional autonomy,” thus violating the law, there will be legal consequences. It is hoped that the first move to regulate the behaviors of all the stakeholders by means of issuing translation industry standards and norms by TAC can shed light on the related legislation of the industry in the days to come.

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Revisiting Textual Competence in Translation from a Text-World Perspective

Lu Tian

Abstract Illuminated by Text World Theory, this study, at the interface of text linguistics and cognitive linguistics, discusses a text-world approach to translation studies and advances "textual competence" as an integrated translation competence in conceptualizing texts as worlds and re-presenting the world series in a coherent and justifiable manner in the target text. In Text World Theory, a discourse is taken as a dynamic cognitive process when the content of the discourse, i.e., the text, is comprehended as text worlds. In this connection, translation can be regarded as a cognitive communicative process of reproducing texts as worlds in the target language. The (in)coherence among text worlds as they are re-presented in translation provides a legitimate criterion for the evaluation of textual competence. A comparative analysis of a short English narrative text and its Chinese translations serves as a case study. It is concluded that a world-view on textual competence may lead to a more proactive approach to translator training by encouraging translation learners to become aware of text world construction and presentation during the translation process.

Keywords Textual competence · Translation competence · Text world · Translation process · Translator training

1 Introduction

Translation competence, also known as "translation ability," "translation skills," "translation expertise," or "translator's competence" (Albir 2010, p. 56), has long been a heated topic in translator training, drawing vast attention and discussion. Varied as its definition is, scholars generally agree that translation competence consists of various knowledge and skills of translation. For instance, Kelly (2005)

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defines translation competence as a "set of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and aptitudes which a translator possesses in order to undertake professional activity in the field" (p. 162). Among all its components, the textual processing competence, despite its crucial role in the process of translation, has not be given due attention. Informed by Text World Theory, this chapter regards text worlds, the mental representations created in a text, as the intermediate in the translation process, and the ability to re-present the text worlds of the source text (ST) in a coherent and justifiable manner in the target text (TT) is considered an essential translation competence, understood as a richer "textual competence" in this study.

2 An Overview of Studies on Translation Competence

Influenced by Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance, it has long been believed that translation competence is innate to bilinguals. "Natural translation," as Harris put forward, is "the translating done in everyday circumstances by people who have no special training for it" (Harris and Sherwood 1978, p. 155). Focusing on the development of bilingualism and translation competence, Harris and Sherwood believe that "translation competence unfolds itself parallel to the development of bilingualism, and that the degree of translation competence increases automatically to the extent to which a child's ability to use the two languages involved develops" (Lörscher 1997, p. 2006).

Toury (1986) agrees that translation competence coexists with bilingualism but disagrees with the assumption that the former is a necessary derivative of the latter. In response to bilingualism, Toury (1995) put forward a new concept "interlingualism," referring to "the ability to establish similarities and differences *across* languages" (p. 248, italics in the original). Translators, while possessing these innate predispositions, are believed to undergo "a process of socialization" during which "parts of the normatively motivated feedback they receive are assimilated by them, modifying their basic competence and gradually becoming part of it" (Toury 1995, p. 250). Their translation competence thus has a blended characteristic of both nature and nurture (ibid.).

As the notion of communicative competence advocated by Hymes gained popularity, translation theorists cast their eyes beyond purely linguistic scope and started to include more factors in the discussion of translation competence. Translation competence was then considered to be composed of several sub-components. Neubert (1994, p. 412) proposed a tripartite model of translation competence comprising language competence, subject competence, and transfer competence.[1] The model was later expanded to include five parameters by adding "textual competence" and "cultural competence" (Neubert 2000, p. 6). Among these sub-competences, transfer

[1]Neubert is found to use the terms "translation competence" and "translational competence" interchangeably in his work.

competence is thought as skills that "integrate language, text, subject, and culture knowledge," so it "dominates over" all the others (Neubert 2000, p. 6).

As the development of Neubert's model demonstrates, "the general trend among theorists has been to expand the multicomponent model so as to bring new skills and proficiencies into the field of translator training" (Pym 2003, p. 481). Among such multicomponent models of translation competence, the PACTE (2000, 2003, 2005) model is considered "the most sophisticated" to date and is thus labelled as a "holistic model" (Lesznyák 2007, p. 183), having a profound impact on later studies.[2] The PACTE proposed that translation competence is made up of five sub-competences, namely bilingual sub-competence, extra-linguistic sub-competence, knowledge about translation sub-competence, instrumental sub-competence, and strategic sub-competence. In addition, psycho-physiological mechanisms are included as they are believed to be activated during translation (PACTE 2003, p. 58). Of all the sub-competencies, strategic sub-competence controls the translation process and coordinates between different sub-competencies, so it is considered the most essential to translation competence. In this sense, the role of strategic sub-competence is similar to that of transfer competence in Neubert's model. In fact, in an earlier version of the PACTE model, strategic sub-competence was labelled "transfer competence" (PACTE 2000, p. 101). In the redefined model, the term was renamed in order to expand its connotations.

Against the backdrop of the increasing use of electronic tools, Pym (2003) argued that the multicomponent expansions of competence are "conceptually flawed" as "they will always be one or two steps behind market demands" (p. 481). Thus, he defended a minimalist approach to translation competence which had been proposed earlier in Pym (1991). In contrast to the complexity of the multicomponent model, the minimalist concept of translation competence concentrates primarily on translation per se, emphasizing the production and then elimination of alternatives. Specifically, the twofold translation competence by the minimalist definition includes the "ability to generate a series of more than one viable target text (TT1, TT2 … TTn) for a pertinent source text (ST)" and the "ability to select only one viable TT from the series, quickly and with justified confidence" (Pym 2003, p. 489).

Pym's view on translation competence is in line with the assertion that translation is a decision-making activity (Levý 1967; Reiß 1981; Wilss 1994; Munday 2012). It is in essence a cognitive process centering on the comprehension and production of texts. Apart from possessing receptive and productive competences in both languages, translators have the ability to "re-map" "linguistic forms, and their semantic potentials on to the specific meanings and communicative intentions" (Shreve 1997, p. 129). Although such an ability is more or less mentioned in previous studies on translation competence, such as the transfer competence in Neubert's model, the strategic sub-competence and psycho-physiological components in the PACTE model and even in Pym's minimalist model, scarcely have any

[2]The PACTE is a research group at the University of Barcelona with an aim to investigate the acquisition of translation competence. Its full name is Process in the Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation.

studies combined the language factors, or the text, with the cognitive mechanisms of human being to probe into the textual processing competence in translation.

3 Redefining Textual Competence

Commonly viewed as a sub-competence of language competence relating to the knowledge about the organization of a text (Bachman 1990, p. 88), textual competence is traditionally mentioned in discussions of translation competence to refer to the "knowledge of regularities and conventions of texts, genres, text types" (Schäffner 2000, p. 146). Noting that human communication involves the production and reception of texts in situations, Alexieva (1994) explained textual competence as:

> knowledge of how to employ the means of expression which language offers for the production and reception of texts that would match the situation and fulfil the communicative goal of the speaker as regards the addressee. In other words, knowledge of textual standards, text types, and procedures of their production and reception seems to form an integral part of our communicative competence.
>
> (Alexieva 1994, p. 179)

In empirical studies, textual competence is usually "measured by grammatical and lexical criteria" (Dong and Lan 2014, p. 49), such as features of nominalization, average word length, lexical diversity, and cohesive devices presented in the TT (Campbell 1998).

However, as translation is commonly believed to be a cognitive activity (Dank et al. 1997; Shreve and Angelone 2010; O'Brien 2011; Schwieter and Ferreira 2017; Li et al. 2019), comprehension of the ST and production of the TT are an integrated cognitive process. Thus, discussions on textual competence should not be limited to the textual-linguistic level. The synthesis of textual considerations and cognitive processing is key to studies on translation competence. In this study, we broaden the concept of textual competence by bringing cognitive factors into its discussion. At the interface of language and cognition, textual competence is endowed with new meaning and redefined as an integrated competence in presenting the mental representations prompted by the ST in a coherent and justifiable manner in the TT.

Illuminated by Text World Theory, Tian and Wang (2019) initiated a text-world approach to translation studies, which provides a cognitive-linguistic model for revealing the mental mechanisms in translation. Text World Theory suggests that texts are comprehended and presented as mental representations known as text worlds. Similar to the physical world we live in, a text world has its world-building elements and function-advancing propositions (Werth 1999; Gavins 2007). In this connection, translation is regarded as "a cognitive communicative process of reproducing texts as worlds in the target language" (Tian and Wang 2019, pp. 15–16). The ability to create a TT which has the potential to project accountable text worlds in the target reader turns to be a crucial factor for competent translators. In other words, textual competence, the core of translation competence, involves the construal of text worlds based on the ST and the selection of expressions from the target language (TL) to verbalize the intended text worlds. As we can see, the "textual competence" advocated in this study is more like an umbrella term covering or overlapping with the "language competence," "transfer competence," and "strategic competence" that are put forward by other scholars concerning translation competence.

To probe into textual competence as such, there are basically two ways—product-based study and process-based study. A product-based study investigates translation competence by analyzing the products of translation, i.e., the translated texts, whereas a process-based study pays attention to the performance of the translator during the translation process. While process-based studies have the advantage of directly observing translators' behaviors (e.g., by using eye tracker and Translog), mental activities (e.g., via Think-aloud Protocol), or even the neuro reactions (e.g., by using ERP) during the process of translation, most of the methods and technologies adopted in these studies usually only function as recording. It still largely relies on the researcher to analyze and explain the cognitive mechanisms behind. Some are also blamed for hampering the process of translation, so they are hardly studies of translation taking place in natural settings. In this study, we will conduct a product-based research. Through in-depth analysis of the translated texts, it aims to investigate textual competence from a cognitive-linguistic perspective.

4 A Case Study

4.1 The Data

In this section, a short English text and its Chinese translations by student translators and an advanced translator are selected as the subjects for case study.

The text is a narrative about the narrator's visit to a mountain where she was awed by a splendid view of daffodils. Detailed depiction of the scenery and the narrator's reflections are stated in the text.

The ST is in English and the TTs are in Chinese. By systematic sampling, thirty-four student translated versions are selected from Parallel Corpus of Chinese EFL Learners (PACCEL), and the advanced translator's version is collected from online resource.[3] All the student translators and the advanced translator are native speakers of Chinese.

[3]Retrieved from http://www.docin.com/p-295204720.html.

4.2 Text World Construction

The construction of text world is made available by our understanding and conceptualization of the physical world. World-building elements including location, time, enactors, and objects constitute the basics of a text world.

The initial text world of the ST is positioned on a bleak rainy day when the narrator-enactor, upon her daughter's invitation, paid a visit to the mountain. The temporal location of the text world is signified in the ST by the fixed expression *It was a … day*. Although the dummy subject *it* does not suggest conceptual proximity nor distance, the past tense indicates that the text world is situated in the past, marking a certain temporal distance from the origo, i.e., the time when the narrator made the narration. In our data of the Chinese versions, the most popular way to position the text world is to begin the narration with deixis as the following observations illustrate.

(1ST) **It was** a bleak, rainy day, and I had no desire to drive up the winding mountain road to my daughter Carolyn's house.[4]

(1TTa) 这 是 一个 阴冷的 雨天。[5]
Zhe *shi yi-ge yinleng de yu tian.*
This be one cloudy cold rainy day.

(1TTb) 那 是 一个 阴冷的 雨天。
Na *shi yi-ge yinleng de yu tian.*
That be one cloudy cold rainy day.

Among the thirty-four student translated versions, ten adopt the deixis *zhe* (这, 'this') and eighteen employ *na* (那, 'that'). Both are deixes in Chinese roughly equivalent to the English deictic pair *this* and *that*. While the proximal deixis *zhe* sets a text world close to the origo, the dismal deixis *na* positions it with a certain distance away from the origo. As there is no verb inflexion in Chinese to show differences in tense, it seems that instead of being conveyed by the verb *shi* (是, 'be'), the temporal parameter of the text world could only be obtained from deixes as the above observations illustrate. Despite their wide adoption in the TTs, deixes are in fact not indispensable in the Chinese translation. For example,

(1TTc) 凄风细雨, 山路蜿蜒, 我毫无兴致驱车前往女儿卡洛琳的家。
Qi feng xi yu, shanlu wanyan, wo hao wu xingzhi qu che qianwang nver Kaluolin de jia.
Chill wind fine rain, mountain road winding, I have not the least interest to drive car to daughter Carolyn's house.

Observation (1TTc) above is the advanced translator's version. Instead of specifying the time of the initial text world as the ST and most of the other TTs do, this

[4]To facilitate discussions about the relevant points in focus, emphases in bold type are added to the cited examples by the author of this chapter.

[5]Pinyin and back translation are provided for each cited TT. In order to maximally reflect the sentence structure and the semantic meaning of the TT, some of the back translations may not strictly abide by the grammatical rules of the English language.

translation lays stress on the spatial location of the text world, i.e., in the mountain. By moving the depiction of the mountain road to the front of the sentence and expanding it into a clause, it puts the road to the foreground in the text world. The temporal information of the text world, however, is converted to more explicit description of the weather. That is to say, although the content of relevant information is kept in the translation, its role in the text world has been changed from world building specifying the temporal parameter to function advancing describing the weather of the day, which is achieved by the manipulation of the placement of information in the text.

As the discourse continues, new text worlds are built up. The last text world is created when the enactors, i.e., the narrator and her daughter, after appreciating the scenery, drove back home. In this text world, the narrator-enactor reflected on what they had seen in the mountain. This world-switch is indicated by the change of time in narration and is verbally expressed by the adverbial clause *As we drove home* in the ST. As time change is closely related to the change in location, both of the following cited TTs are justified.

(2ST) **As we drove home**, I was so moved by what **we** had seen that I could scarcely speak.

(2TTa) 开车回家时, 我被看到的景色感动得说不出话来。
Kai che hui jia shi*, wo bei kandao de* ***jingse*** *gandong de shuo bu chu hua lai.*
When driving home, I was so moved by the **scenery** seen that (I) could not speak.

(2TTb) 在我们开车回家的路上，我被所看到的情景感动得一句话都说不出来。
Zai women kai che hui jia de lu shang*, wo bei suo kandao de* ***qingjing*** *gandong de yi-ju hua dou shuo bu chu lai.*
On the way we drove home, I was so moved by the **scene** that (I) could not speak even a single sentence.

While Observation (2TTa), like the ST, provides information of the temporal domain of the text world, Observation (2TTb) specifies the setting of the text world in terms of location. In our data, twenty-six TTs, like Observation (2TTa), present the information as temporal; six TTs, like Observation (2TTb), transfer the original temporal information into spatial and bring about the switch of world by the change of location. This example shows that the same world-switch can be enabled either by the change of time or by the change of location without causing much confusion. However, there lies some ambiguity in both Observations (2TTa) and (2TTb) as far as the object of the text world is concerned. Were it not for the co-text, the *scenery* mentioned in Observation (2TTa) or *scene* in Observation (2TTb) might be mistaken as something spotted on the way home. This is mainly caused by the unclear distinction of the time difference in both versions. In comparison, the switch of tense in the ST from the past tense (*was … moved*) to the past perfect (*had seen*) makes it clear that the object refers to something stated before. Although Chinese is lack of variations in tense, there are always other means to indicate the difference in time. Observation (2TTc) below is a case in point.

(2TTc) 我们回去的路上, 我因刚才所见震惊地说不出话来了。
Women huiqu de lu shang*, wo yin* ***gangcai*** *suojian zhenjing de shuo bu chu hua lai le.*
On our way back, I was shocked by what was **just** seen so (I) could not speak.

In Observation (2TTc), the adverb *gangcai* (刚才, 'just now') helps specify the object as what was seen in the immediate past rather than something present in the text world under construction.

As far as the manner of motion is concerned, relevant information is encoded in the verb *drove* in the English ST, which is a typical feature of satellite-framed languages. In both Observations (2TTa) and (2TTb), however, the manner of going home is stated in the co-verb, or serial-verb *kai che hui jia* (开车回家, 'drive car go home'). Retaining the information conveyed in the ST, they run the risk of unduly distracting the reader's attention from the intended focus of the text world. Observation (2TTc), in contrast, omits the manner of motion, thus making location the background in the text world.

Presentation of enactors in the text world also reveals textual competence of the translator. In the ST, two enactors—the narrator and her daughter, verbally addressed as *we*, are present in the text world, though the narrator's daughter seldom actively propels the advancement of the text world. More like a bystander, she is put in the background. Therefore, it makes the omission of the rendition of *we* in Observation (2TTa) and the avoidance of its repetition in Observations (2TTb) and (2TTc) accountable. The repetition of *we* in the ST—*As we drove home, I was so moved by what we had seen*—might be explained by the grammar-controlled feature of English, which requests indispensable subjects for clauses. In comparison, the subject of a Chinese clause is usually omitted if the context is clear enough. In this regard, redundant subjects such as the repetition of the personal pronoun *wo* (我, 'I') in Observation (2TTd) will make the enactor unjustifiably foregrounded.

(2TTd) 当我开着车回家时, 我被我所看到的美景感动得说不出话来。
Dang ***wo*** *kai-zhe che hui jia shi*, ***wo*** *bei* ***wo*** *suo kandao de mei jing gandong de shuo bu chu hua lai.*
When **I** drove home, **I** was so moved by the beautiful scenery **I** saw that (I) could not speak.

As we have discussed above, the narrator's daughter, as an inactive enactor, may appear either in the foreground or background in the text world depending on how the enactor is textually presented. Retaining *wo* as the subject of the main clause and omitting all the others, Observation (2TTa), for example, makes the presence of the narrator's daughter invisible in the text world. By adopting the unanimous *wo* as the subjects of all the clauses and repeating it three times, Observation (2TTd), on the one hand, has similar effect in making the presence of the other enactor invisible; on the other hand, it puts the narrator-enactor in a rather foregrounded position, which may not be the intention of the author nor the translator.

4.3 Text World Connection

Text world connection ensures the coherence of a text. Different from cohesion which is concerned with the textual connections on the surface structure of a text, coherence cares for the underlying mental connections between text worlds, so it is crucial to textual competence. Reference maintenance is one of the means to realize such connection.

Immediately after the narrator's negative desire world disclosing her reluctance to drive up the mountain road to her daughter's house, there follows the daughter's desire world insisting that *I come and see something at the top of the mountain.* On the one hand, the two contrastive desire worlds contribute to the coherence of the text; on the other hand, the suspense as which desire world will come true arouses the reader's interest to find the outcome from the upcoming text worlds.

(3ST) But she had insisted that I **come** and see **something** at the top of the mountain.

(3TTa) 但她坚持让我来看看山顶上的某样东西。
Dan ta jianchi rang wo ***lai*** *kankan shanding shang de* ***mou yang dongxi****.*
But she insist that I **come** to see on the mountaintop **a certain thing**.

(3TTb) 不过她坚持让我去看山顶上的什么东西。
Buguo ta jianchi rang wo ***qu*** *kan shanding shang de* ***shenme dongxi****.*
But she insist that I **go** to see on the mountaintop **something**.

(3TTc) 可女儿一定要我前去看看山顶上的什么景致。
Ke nver yiding yao wo qianqu kankan shanding shang de ***shenme jingzhi****.*
But daughter firmly ask me to go to see on the mountaintop **some scenery**.

Marked by the deixis *come*, the ST shifts the point of view to that of the daughter and directs the reader's attention to the mountain. In the translated versions, Observation (3TTa) follows the same point of view as that of the ST, whereas the others present the world from the viewpoint of the narrator. Among the thirty-four student translated versions, eleven TTs, like Observation (3TTa), employ the deictic verb *lai* (来, 'come') to act in accordance with its counterpart *come* in the ST. Nineteen TTs, however, like Observation (3TTb), adopt its antonym *qu* (去, 'go') in the representation of the desire world, taking the location of the narrator as the vantage point. This means that in presenting the desire world under discussion, more than half of the TTs alter the point of view from the daughter to the narrator. While the former naturally leads the reader to project themselves onto the text world situated in the mountain, thus contributing to a more coherent text-world series, the latter, by unifying the viewpoint of the reader with that of the narrator, creates a closer relationship between the two.

Another point worth noting is that the object in the desire world is simply mentioned as *something* in the ST. By refraining from disclosing what it really is, it arouses the reader's interest to read on and look for more details. Similar to the ST, Observation (3TTb) introduces the object without revealing any properties of it. Nevertheless, not all the TTs have such a suspense well maintained. Some of the cited translations, for example, disclose the properties of the object in one way or another. Specifically, Observation (3TTa) indicates the amount of the object as one. Observation (3TTc), the advanced translator's version, reveals that it is some scenery that the narrator is asked to see on the mountaintop. Although the connections between text worlds are somewhat strengthened in this way, it unfortunately weakens the suspense and mystery created in the ST.

Seeing the splendid view of daffodils on the mountain, the narrator was so astonished that she could not help asking:

(4ST) Who created such beauty? Why? How?

(4TTa) 到底谁创造了如此美丽的景色?她为什么会这么做呢?她又是怎样做到的呢?

*Daodi shui chuangzao-le ruci meili de jingse? **Ta** weishenme hui zheme zuo ne? **Ta** you shi zenyang zuo dao de ne?*

Who on earth created such beautiful scenery? Why did **she** do so? And how did she make it?

(4TTb) 是谁创造了如此的美景呢?他为什么要创造呢?又是怎样创造出来的呢?

*Shi shui chuangzao-le ruci de mei jing ne? **Ta** weishenme yao chuangzao ne? You shi zenyang chuangzao chulai de ne?*

Who created such beautiful scenery? Why did **he** create? And how created?

(4TTc) 谁创造了这种美景?为什么要创造?又是如何创造的?

Shui chuangzao-le zhezhong mei jing? Weishenme yao chuangzao? You shi ruhe chuangzao de?

Who created such beautiful scenery? Why create? And how create?

In this pending world of the ST, no detailed information about the creator is revealed such as the number and gender. Both Observation (4TTa) and Observation (4TTb), however, via the third person singular pronoun, indicate that such a feat was accomplished by one person. Observation (4TTa), by using the third person female pronoun *ta* (她, 'she'), reveals the gender of the creator as a female. In so doing, the surprise that the whole thing was actually done by a single woman would be weakened. Observation (4TTb) avoids revealing such information by adopting the third person male pronoun *ta* (他, 'he'), which could function as an unmarked expression for the third person singular in Chinese and refer to both men and women in general when the gender is not clear or unnecessary to identify. Nevertheless, confusion or misunderstanding may still be brought about because of its specific usage as reference to male. In order to keep the information about the creator undisclosed especially in terms of the gender and number, omission of the subjects of questions as shown by Observation (4TTc), i.e., the advanced translator's version, turns out to be an effective way in re-presenting the pending world in the Chinese translation.

4.4 Discussion

Preliminary as it is, our analyses above show the feasibility of a cognitive-linguistic approach to textual competence in translation. From a text-world perspective, it is found that those world-building elements that are explicitly introduced in the ST, such as the spatial and temporal information, are in most of the cases re-presented in one way or another in the TTs without significant differences from those in the ST. In other words, text worlds marked by specific time and place are usually retained and expressed in similar ways in translations from English to Chinese. However, due to the lack of verb inflexion in Chinese, those text worlds signified by tense variation in the English ST are not always reflected in the Chinese TTs. Some more sensitive translators are apparently aware of such nuance by adopting complementary measures such as additional adverbial modifiers to provide relevant information of the time difference.

As far as text world connection is concerned, it is found that on the one hand failure in maintaining reference to certain entities across text worlds leads to lack of coherence between text worlds in some students' translations; on the other hand, over-interpretation of entities upon their first introduction to the discourse reflects some student translators' insufficient understanding of textual coherence.

In comparison with flexible arrangement of text world construction and proper handling of reference maintenance, the advanced translator's version excels in ensuring the establishment of a series of coherent text worlds. Keeping pace with the text world development of the ST, it well retains the suspense in the narration and has the potential to achieve the intended textual effects of the ST. Instead of providing a model translation, the inclusion of an advanced translator's translation in this case study aims to demonstrate the availability of the target language in presenting the intended text worlds as long as the translator has sufficient textual competence to mobilize the linguistic resources of the target language.

5 Conclusion

Taking a world-view on texts, translation studies extend its concern to the cognitive mechanisms of text processing in terms of text world construction and connection rather than mere observations of word use or sentence patterns. Analysis of translation through the conceptualization of texts as worlds conforms to the cognitive mechanisms of human beings in text comprehension, processing, and production. In this connection, it is crucial to examine translation competence from a cognitive-linguistic perspective. Taken as the core of translation competence, textual competence in this study is redefined as an integrated competence in presenting the mental representations prompted by the ST in a coherent and justifiable manner in the TT.

To empirically substantiate the proposed notion, a case study of the translations of a narrative text from English to Chinese is conducted. By comparative analysis, it is found that competent translators are sensitive to the influence of language use on text-world construction and could make proper use of the target language in order to re-present the intended text world in the TT. Although the mechanisms of mental representations seem an innate cognitive ability of human beings, translators need to be aware of such mechanisms, sensitive to the effects of language manipulation on the projected text worlds, and responsible for legitimate re-presentation of the text worlds of the ST in the TT.

Our case study illustrates that a world-view on textual competence also shows pedagogical implications on translator training. By helping them understand text world construction, presentation and connection during the translation process, translation learners can be made competent translators with adequate textual competence to make responsible selection of expressions from the target language to verbalize the intended text worlds in a coherent and justifiable manner.

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Real-Time Machine-Translated Instant Messaging: A Brief Overview with Implications for Translator Training

Kizito Tekwa

Abstract Over the decades, machine translation (MT) systems have contributed to improving the quality of MT output. Consequently, MT has become increasingly popular and is currently applied in more domains and fields of studies than ever before. The integration of MT into mobile communication technology, especially into real-time instant messaging (IM), a global fast-growing, and highly researched communication medium, has partially led to the elimination of linguistic barriers. Users of IM translation, who speak various languages, can now converse with each other. This chapter examines the usefulness of MT, briefly outlines current IM translation clients, and examines the impact of IM translation particularly on foreign language (FL) learning, translation theory, and translation practice. The article lays the groundwork for future research that seeks to better comprehend the crucial role of machine-translated IM in our society.

Keywords Real-time IM translation · Machine-translated IM · Instant messaging (IM) · IM translation clients · Translator training programs · Foreign language teaching

1 Introduction

Unlike decades ago, communication technology has succeeded in transforming the world in a much smaller space. When Marshall McLuhan (1962), the famous Canadian scholar, first defined the world as a "global village," he may not have imagined, at the time, the extent to which his assertion would transform to reality over fifty years later. This may be partly because, back then, the Internet was a relatively new phenomenon, computer processing was at its infancy, and the pace of technological development was comparatively slower. That notwithstanding, the drive toward overcoming cultural and linguistic barriers among different communities had begun—and has been in full throttle ever since. The desire to exchange information appears to be

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an inherent feature of human existence that technology has greatly enhanced. Over the years, Internet speed has tremendously improved, computers have become gigantic data processing machines, multiple devices like smartphones have become efficient data storage and dissemination gadgets, and humans, who are at the center of this technological revolution, have increasingly become tech savvy. Computers, either in their fixed or mobile forms, are capable of offering users an endless array of features and options. Given all these possibilities, communication between humans via the intermediary of machines has undergone a complete revolution. The development of various communication applications such as *Skype, QQ, Wechat, Wochat, ChatLingual*, and *WhatsApp* have further eased communication between smartphone owners and considerably thinned linguistic frontiers. The integration of machine translation (MT) into mobile communication applications, especially into instant messaging (IM) platforms, seems to have expanded the reach of IM exchanges to users who do not share similar languages and cultures and has had far-reaching implications in various areas of study. While a substantial volume of research publications currently exists on IM, not enough attention appears to have been given to machine-translated IM. Hence a need for researchers to fill in this void.

In this chapter, I discuss the contribution of real-time machine-translated IM in three areas—foreign language (FL) learning, translation theory, and translation practice. Given that real-time machine-translated IM is a relatively new phenomenon compared with traditional IM, it is assumed that this chapter will serve as the foundation for future discussion underscoring, among others, IM translation quality, user perceptions, and relationships with other disciplines. This inaugural contribution assesses the usefulness of MT, defines real-time machine-translated IM, and outlines its impact in FL learning, translation practice, and theory.

2 Machine Translation: Summary of Uses

MT technology is currently applied to a variety of domains including businesses some of which have integrated MT into their workflow to reduce costs and to improve delivery times (Vieira and Alonso 2018). Similarly, MT has made it possible to translate emails and other correspondences and to access multiple website contents in various languages. For instance, the US government and other governments around the world have significantly invested in MT to facilitate their overseas operations in areas where mainstream languages such as English, Spanish, and French are not spoken. One such program, the DARPA Global Autonomous Language Exploitation (GALE) program, “has developed media-monitoring systems for foreign languages focusing on Arabic and Chinese” (Jones et al. 2009 p. 41). The systems have the capability of monitoring news items on Arabic and Chinese TV channels and automatically translating them into English. MT has also facilitated voice-to-voice and voice-to-text translation with companies such as Skype (Courtney 2015) actively utilizing this feature to improve user experiences.

Another area where MT has made a significant incursion is in the domain of real-time IM. Real-time IM can be defined as "a way of communicating with one or multiple people real time using a device such as a computer or mobile phone" (Maximo and Edney 2007, p. 7). Generally, real time exchanges are assured via "an Internet protocol (IP)-based application that provides convenient communication between people using a variety of different device types" (Rittinghouse and Ransome 2005, p. 3). Due to the popularity of MT, many scholars have investigated its effects in today's society and on people of all walks of life. Based on empirical evidence from a considerable body of research, IM has been found to be popular among adolescents and young adults, and, to a lesser extent, adults (Church and de Oliveira 2013; Dolev-Cohen and Barak 2013; Iversen et al. 2013). Some of the most outstanding reasons for its popularity are synchronicity (the fact that conversations among users take place almost instantly); dyadic relationships (the ability for two or more users to communicate "privately"); and the multiplicity of options including instant or real-time file transfer, voice messaging, instantaneous photo sharing, video chat, and location sharing.

The integration of MT into IM applications has boosted the possibility to translate IM across multiple languages thereby offering users the option to exchange information irrespective of the languages they speak. The advent of MT in the social media sphere is viewed by some as the future of global communication (Alufa 2012) and has warranted further investigation by researchers (Aiken and Ghosh 2009; Calefato et al. 2010; Tekwa 2018; Yang 2011).

3 Definition, Uses, and Evolution of Real-Time Machine-Translated IM

Real-time machine-translated IM can simply be defined as the ability for computer applications to instantly translate IM from one language into one or multiple languages during a chat session between two or multiple interlocutors. Practically speaking, it is the possibility for an IM user who speaks, say English, to simultaneously engage in real-time IM exchanges with a fellow user who speak Spanish, for instance, or several users who speak Spanish, German, and Italian, respectively. It is worthy to note that it is such a speedy way to communicate by bringing together multiple users and multiple languages that underscores the ubiquity of mobile communication in a globalized world. Interest in developing cross-language translation applications may have been spurred by the increasing number of IM users around the world. As a matter of fact, according to the Geneva-based International Telecommunication Union (ITU), the UN's specialized agency for Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs), the number of global Internet users by the end of the year 2019 was approximately 4.1 billion[1] up from 1.1 billion reported in the

[1]Information obtained on Feb. 10, 2020 from https://www.itu.int/en/ITU-D/Statistics/Pages/stat/default.aspx.

year 2005. Secondly, the availability of smartphones and other mobile devices with IM capabilities has made it possible to communicate instantly and from virtually any location where Internet access is available. Thirdly, the availability of WIFI in public spaces such as airports, restaurants, libraries, supermarkets and schools has multiplied the chances to exchange instant messages even in the absence of a duly subscribed mobile data package. Fourthly, as communities, institutions, and countries deepen collaboration ties in response to global challenges, the need to collaborate by overcoming linguistic barriers has become urgent. For example, in the area of education, there is greater collaboration among higher institutions of learning today than there was a decade ago (Bozeman et al. 2013; Fantino et al. 2015). Furthermore, in a globalized world where outsourcing has become the norm and market competition has intensified, it is important, for companies and financial institutions, to ensure that information exchange among various branches and offices located in different parts of the world is smooth and rapid. Language barriers could impose far-reaching problems to companies especially patterning to the buying and selling of goods and to their ability to provide services (Valarezo et al. 2018). To partially resolve this issue, companies could employ real-time machine-translated IM to foster internal communication and to overcome linguistic barriers. Real-time machine-translated IM could also enable companies to (1) cut the high cost of translation services often provided by specialized translation companies; (2) save time as human translators and interpreters may lack adequate terminological competence in certain areas and, consequently, need more time to familiarize themselves with specialized terminology and phraseology; (3) restrict the sharing of internal confidential company information with outsiders even when they happen to be translators and/or interpreters (Feely and Anne-Wil 2003; Marschan-Piekkari et al. 1999).

Finally, real-time machine-translated IM is growing in popularity partially due to the fact that some users are simply intrigued by other cultures and languages. As a result, they actively seek to make new friends in different parts of the world and to learn foreign languages. Therefore, the translation of sentences or chunks of sentences may enable learners to improve vocabulary, sentence structures, and foreign language (FL) willingness to communicate (Tekwa 2018; Wu and Kawamura 2011).

Real-time IM translation has evolved significantly over the years. Early users had to communicate by cutting and pasting IM from an IM tool or text field unto a separate translation program which translated the message into the target language. The translated message was then cut and pasted back on the IM tool before it was sent to the recipient. This phase was followed by the integration of servers in the IM network. Servers were responsible for translating messages—words, chunks, or entire sentences—from sender to recipient. The procedure was fairly simple-the sender keyed in the message, specified the destination language, then sent the message to the server. For its part, the server translated the message into the specified language, sent it back to the sender who then forwarded it to the recipient. As Jonas Seme (2001, p. 1), author of U.S. Patent Application No. 10/035,085 noted in 2003:

> … the time required to perform this process makes this implementation impractical for "real time" (instant) communication. This is because the procedure requires more processing and network resources to be expended, and also introduces extra hops between the client and destination device. Moreover, such systems limit the ability for a user to send messages to multiple users of different languages simultaneously. (Seme 2001, p. 1)

Current real-time IM translation applications have been designed to instantly translate messages from one sender to one or multiple recipients in one or more target languages. The fundamental difference between regular IM and real-time IM translation lies in the use of a content translation module which can be located at the source device (desktop, laptop, mobile, personal data assistants) or at the destination device. The content translation module can be defined as:

> A computer-executable module (e.g., DLL, exe), and contains instructions for translating messages from a language familiar to the user of the source device (source language), to a language familiar to a user of the destination device (destination language). (Seme 2001, p. 1).

During the IM session, user profiles are exchanged between the source and destination devices including information such as language preferences. Messages sent from the source device are then translated by the content translation module as per the information and settings of the destination device before they are forwarded to the recipient. This way, the communication process is faster and it occurs real-time (Seme 2001). Alternatively, the content translation module could be located anywhere along the IM network. Once the source and destination user profiles have been exchanged and set within the translation module, it is possible to instantly translate any message and to forward it to the desired recipient in the language of their choice.

4 An Overview of Some IM Translation Clients

The list of companies that provide IM translation services has been on the increase over the years. As more individuals and organizations tend to use IM for various purposes, companies have realized the need to provide IM translation services and to diversify the features offered on various IM platforms. This section examines the main characteristics of some of the most popular real-time IM translation applications currently available in the market based on the following features: price, device compatibility, languages offered, group conversation options including group sizes and the suitability of the IM translation application in enhancing scholarly research.

Price and number of users: The price is the monetary amount required to obtain both the IM translation application and related services (premium services for some clients, for example). Amounts could be one-time payments or monthly subscriptions. Clients that provide free and open-source IM translation applications such as WeChat, QQ International and Skype Translate may, arguably, be more popular among registered users than clients whose applications are expensive to acquire or those, like Sendboo, that charge a fee for upgraded services. The number of IM users refers to subscribers who actively use the IM translation application.

Device compatibility: Mobile devices are among the most widely used communication tools today (Duggan 2015). This explains why it is relevant for a provider of IM services to make it possible for users to download and install the application on multiple devices. For research purposes, interoperable IM translation applications that work with multiple operating systems such as WeChat, QQ International, Skype, Wochat, Chatlingual, and Sendboo could be preferred over applications like Lringo that are only available on Android operating systems.

Language combination: This refers to the number of source and target language combos offered by IM translation clients. Based on the assumption that more languages could translate into potential users, the number of languages offered becomes relevant given its potential to reflect the popularity of the IM translation application. Furthermore, the languages offered may, arguably, explain the popularity of certain IM translation applications in different parts of the world. This is definitely important, but the language combination (which languages can be translated into which) appears to be paramount. For researchers interested in this area, the translation process, per se, could be of considerable importance. Questions like: At what point in the communication process are messages translated? Are they translated before they are sent, or after they are sent? Do senders view translated messages? Can messages be modified prior to sending? Does the platform store the chat history? How long can conversations be stored? Can the chat history be downloaded or exported? If yes, in what formats? For researchers, the choice of any machine-translated IM application may well hinge on answers to these questions. There is little doubt that for research purposes, the possibility to visualize both the source and target IMs and the capability of downloading and storing data for analysis are capital.

Group chat option: This refers to the IM feature that brings multiple users together so they can communicate in a threaded conversation. Group chat enables members to exchange IM, leave voicemails and share photos, files, videos on the same chat window. It is an essential feature for users who have common interests, share common values, belong to the same association, company, or institution, and take the same courses in school because they can easily and quickly share vital information. For example, a simple message about a change of schedule could simultaneously be sent all 500 members on a Wechat group or to all 200 members on a QQ chat group.

Some of the most popular IM translation providers include WeChat and QQ International, both China-based IM applications that serve millions of predominantly Chinese users, Skype Translator that is popular world-wide especially for its capability to transmit voice-to-voice translations, Sendboo, Chatlingual, Wochat and Lringo. Majority of these are free open-source IM translation applications though some, including Chatlingual, are essentially designed for businesses as outlined in Table 1 below.

Table 1 Summary of IM translation applications

Clients (in millions, as per Feb. 16, 17)	Languages	Price	Device compatibility	Incoming/outgoing translation	Group IM function
WeChat (1.2 + billion)[a]	21	Free	Computer/mobile/applications	Long press on received message to have it translated Messages can be stored but cannot be downloaded to a computer, for instance	Group option available for up to 500 members
QQ International (1 + billion users[b])	50	Free	Computer/mobile devices + apps	Translate then send/Inline translation Possibility to back up messages, download, and save	Yes Maximum of 200 users
Skype translator (300 million[c])	51	Free Skype to Skype	Computer	Translate then send—can only see one message at a time. Capable of storing and retrieving messages	Available unlimited numbers from contact
Lringo+	27	Free	Computer/mobile/app	Translation done after message is sent. Messages cannot be stored	Yes
Chatlingual	50+	Free 14-day trial	Mobile/computer	Incoming message translation. Sender does not see their messages and translation. Messages can be stored and retrieved	Yes
VoxOx	50	Calling/Texts IM, etc., are free	Mobile app/computer	Only one person uses the IM translation option	Unavailable

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Clients (in millions, as per Feb. 16, 17)	Languages	Price	Device compatibility	Incoming/outgoing translation	Group IM function
Sendboo	30	Premium account costs USD$3.99 a year	Computer/mobile app	Messages are sent, then translated prior to reception	Yes

[a] *Source* Statista https://www.statista.com/statistics/255778/number-of-active-wechat-messenger-accounts/ (Accessed on Aug. 20, 2020)
Source: https://www.imqq.com/English1033.html (Accessed on Aug. 20, 2020)
Source: https://techcrunch.com/2016/03/30/microsoft-is-bringing-bots-to-skype-and-everywhere-else/ (Accessed in March 2018)

5 Instant Messaging and Foreign Language Learning

IM is currently one of the most widely used methods of keeping in contact among friends, family, colleagues and classmates. Some of the largest groups of users are students who depend on IM for curricular and extra-curricular activities (Jones 2008). Marianne Foley (2011)[2] who has investigated the curricular use of IM to provide library referencing material to college students maintains:

> Statistics show that two of the target populations, young people and students in cybraries, used the service heavily. Although the majority of patrons were on-campus, comments indicated that off-campus users included distance education students, another group the project had hoped to reach (p. 44).

As far as the level of satisfaction with the service is concerned, Foley (2011, p. 41) maintains, "in fact, 71% declared themselves satisfied or better compared to 10% who registered some level of dissatisfaction." She further clarifies that most of the unhappy users had, in fact, attempted to access the service late at night when it was closed.

Other curricular uses of IM include online learning where "students can stay in touch with their tutors and with each other while they are away from the classroom" (Kadirire 2007, p. 2.). Some teachers have created online forums where interactions in the classroom are often continued online in a chatroom-type environment where students can share assignments, exchange ideas, ask and answer questions either among peers or interact with their teachers. Communication within these online groups is often real time with members posting messages in turns in a single thread. Documents of various forms and sizes and pictures are also often shared among group members. The size of each group depends on the number of students taking the course but also on the IM client capacity. The popular method of communication in these online classrooms is IM since most clients can host scores of users in a single chat forum. Students also use IM to "communicate or locate other people while in indoor environments, for instance, in a meeting room, lecture theatre, or inside a large building" (Kadirere 2007, p. 2).

As Flanagin (2005) argues, IM is used in a variety of extra-curricular situations besides maintaining contact with families and friends. For instance, students sometimes use it for entertainment purposes including sharing music, jokes, recorded humorous actions, funny pictures, and stories. Besides serving as a platform through which users meet and even develop friendship, IM also plays a large social gratification function (Ramirez et al. 2008). Social gratification is the deliberate use of different forms of social media to achieve specific goals and to satisfy specific needs. Users acquire satisfaction when they take initiative and when they develop affinities with specific media. Subsequently, they become aware of their media use and can fairly detail their online activities (West and Turner 2010).

[2]Marianne Foley is the systems librarian at SUNY College in Buffalo, USA.

The impact of IM on FL teaching and learning has continued to be of interest to researchers (Quan-Haase and Young 2010). Researchers suggest that the ubiquitous nature of IM partially accounts for its popularity among students. It is also popular "because it is a synchronous medium … simulates face-to-face conversation, particularly in its informality" (Godwin-Jones 2005, p. 17). The informal nature of IM exchanges could help learners to improve FL skills. Guerra (2014) affirms that with IM communication, "messages are typed, sent, and received instantaneously, bringing the electronic communication exchanges from the static to the more dynamic, and thus more closely resembling oral interaction (p.1)" Consequently, some language teachers are increasingly aware of the need to integrate IM technology into the classroom. Among others, researchers now agree that IM,

> …provides the opportunity to interact and learn with and from people from different cultures and different native languages. On the other hand, while using these means of communication, students get prepared for the use of web tools, which is an added value for their future as professionals in any area (Gonzalez 2003, p. 57).

The importance of IM exchanges is so crucial that "…some language instructors are sending their students out to find IM partners, recognizing that this is a tool students know and like to use," (Godwin-Jones 2005, p. 17).

Synchronous IM could also contribute to developing language skills because learners interact with real audiences as they simultaneously receive input and produce output (Gonzalez 2003). These exchanges may expose learners to FL vocabulary and sentence structures and positively influence their oral linguistic abilities. Learners equally have the opportunity to receive instant feedback from interlocutors who, unlike in traditional classroom settings, may be located in different countries and could also be native speakers of the language.

There is little doubt why researchers are becoming increasingly interested in examining the impact of IM on the FL classroom and in its effectiveness as a communication tool. Research on the relationship between IM, FL and culture have particularly focused on the development of linguistic skills, intercultural relationships, and behavioral patterns within the FL learning environment. Several scholars including Luis Guerra (2014) and Fernandez and Yuldashev (2011) have investigated the impact of IM on various aspects of FL learners' identity formation and writing skills while Thorne et al. (2009) and O'Dowd (2007) have focused on the relationship between IM and behavioral tendencies as well as sociocultural interactions among FL learners.

In 1995, research conducted by Kern (1995) on the impact of synchronous CMC on language learning revealed that learners were quite capable of improving their language skills. As Kern (1995, p. 470) states, "students' language output was at an overall greater level of sophistication in terms of the range of the morphosyntactic features and in terms of the variety of discourse functions expressed." Sotillo (2013), for her part, evaluated the use of the text-based chat and audio features of IM to provide corrective feedback to EFL learners and found that:

> corrective feedback made available to L2 learners by their NS or NNS partners using Internet IM tools allows learners to detect a deviant use of a certain lexical, grammatical, or semantic form in their second language output, and research has shown that this may facilitate second language development.

Sotillo (2013) added that when corrective feedback is provided to learners, most learners tend to quickly integrate the feedback in their exchanges making language development arguably more effective than in traditional language classrooms where learners do not always have the opportunity to practice new language elements. Other researchers including Salaberry (2000) have, likewise, underscored the fact that communication via synchronous IM on IM platforms has tended to be more productive than in-class face-to-face communication.

Another area where the impact of IM is especially felt is long-distance virtual FL learning. Globalization has contributed to facilitating communication in the world. Consequently, the ability to find language partners to learn and practice a foreign language or to enrol in various courses is more feasible today than it was several decades ago. Those interested in studying the Jewish religion, for instance, are able to learn the Torah in a variety of ways. They can ask "a 'rabbi' a question through e-mail or instant messaging, participate in a real-time Torah chat with a virtual learning partner…" (Goodman and Katz 2004, p. 213).

As far as collaborative FL learning through virtual classrooms is concerned, it suffices to mention that several projects have been created within universities and colleges (Cziko 2013; Kessler et al. 2012) to facilitate such an endeavour. Telecollaboration projects, as they have come to be known (Helm 2015), fundamentally utilize synchronous and asynchronous communication platforms to develop language skills among learners spatially dispersed around the globe. As Kern (2015) remarks, despite shortcomings such as the movement of students within the context of student-exchange programs and the inability of some universities to offer reliable telecollaboration tools, telecollaboration has led to "increased motivation and linguistic output, gains in language development, accuracy and fluency, intercultural communicative competence, pragmatic competence, learner autonomy, online literacies, and multimodal communicative competence" (p. 198).

Some companies, for commercial reasons, have designed platforms that bring together learners, teachers, and language partners with IM serving as the core data exchange component. Two examples are the Livemocha project (Islam 2011), Tandem,[3] and Mylanguageexchange,[4] the Montreal-based virtual communication platform. Tandem and Mylanguageexchange bring together FL language learners and tutors worldwide in virtual classrooms to communicate via IM or face-to-face. The online multilingual platforms provide a curriculum with specifically developed learning goals and objectives. Learners are free to subscribe, search for partners and/or instructors and begin exchanging information. The integrated real-time IM translation tool (for Tandem) enables users to arrange chat sessions, store and retrieve the chat history, and easily insert accented characters. Tandem claims to have brought together millions of foreign language enthusiasts from over 150 countries who communicate in over about 160 different languages.

Besides a general discussion on grammar and use, researchers have also focused on IM and specific FL and culture-bound concepts. For instance, Pin-hsiang Natalie

[3] https://www.tandem.net/ (Accessed on Feb. 10, 2020).

[4] https://www.mylanguageexchange.com/Default.asp: Accessed: Feb. 09, 2020.

Wu[5] and Michelle Kawamura[6] have evaluated the use of IM to improve WTC, intercultural communication and cultural awareness. In their study, they found that IM use "successfully increased students' willingness to communicate cross culturally…" (Wu and Kawamura 2011). Similarly, Lily Compton (2004) of Iowa State University has analyzed how IM could help students to improve willingness to engage in FL oral interaction. She concludes that "online chatting … could be used to promote oral proficiency by increasing EFL learners' willingness to take risks through visual preparation, i.e. seeing and organizing their ideas in print and reducing their anxiety level…" (p. 49). These studies both reveal the importance of integrating IM into the FL classroom as a way of improving learner WTC.

6 Real-Time Machine-Translated IM and the Translation Profession

This section examines the impact of real-time machine-translated IM on translation practice and translator training. First, the relationship between IM translation and job gains and losses is examined followed by how translator training programs may align curriculum objectives with IM translation within the current fast-evolving communication landscape.

6.1 Job Losses and Gains

The singular most important aspiration of real-time machine-translated IM clients is to provide instant translation services across numerous languages at an affordable rate. The haste to eliminate translators and interpreters, in part because they are costly and slow, remains a core marketing strategy. Therefore, for language service providers including ChatLingual that view time as money, IM translation is the natural pathway to providing fast, effective multilingual services to multiple businesses at a fraction of the cost (Calimlim 2013; Broida 2013). In a February 2013 article on PCWorld, Erick Broida, author of dozens of publications on technology, emphasized Sendboo's ability to replace human translators:

> So you're looking to work with an overseas supplier for parts. Or you need to hire a programmer whose English is fractured at best. Now what? Do you really need to hire a translator just so you can communicate with these folks? Nope: Hire an app instead. Sendboo … translates text messages in real-time, effectively turning the language barrier into a language floodgate. Now you can communicate with pretty much anyone, anywhere, as long as they have a smartphone or tablet. (Broida 2013, paras 2–3)

[5]Pin-hsiang Natalie teaches at Chien-kuo Technology University, Taiwan.

[6]Michelle Kawamura teaches at Ritsumeikan University, Japan.

Furthermore, IM client developers seem to direct their publicity at companies and institutions that hire human translators and interpreters. They intend to take advantage of the increasing number of companies that, with globalization and outsourcing, have set up overseas offices and branches and now require translators and interpreters for in-house communication, B2B communication, and B2C communication.

Besides appealing to multinational companies, real-time IM translation clients hope to attract organizations that rely on translators and interpreters for their day-to-day operations such as doctors without borders. As a matter of fact, Justin Custer, ChatLingual founder, has underscored the necessity to use real-time IM translation to improve global business, improve the services provided by multinational NGOs and by the travel industry. In an interview, he maintained:

> Organizations with more than one voice, like Médecins Sans Frontières, Rotary Club and the United Nations have millions of people all over the world working together for one cause. The challenge now is that communication is limited to those who speak the same languages (Chau 2013).

The argument to be made is, in the short term, there could be a reduction in the number of translators hired if businesses, international, and regional organizations were to turn to IM translation clients to meet their immediate and basic communication needs. Similarly, companies in the tourism business may need fewer translators and interpreters at an age where machine-translated IM applications have inundated the industry and where tourists can effectively communicate via the intermediary of real-time translation applications (iTranslate, SayHi, WayGo, Microsoft Translator, Google Translate, Viber, Skype, etc.). Given the versatile and multifunctional nature of these applications as well as their cost, reliability, and output quality, it is fair to conjecture that as real-time machine-translated IM output quality improves, the demand for human translators and interpreters may tend to decline particularly in certain areas (tourism and emergency relief operations). At the same time, turning to machines rather than humans to translate could, in the long term, have negative effects on the profession. Given that many IM translation applications are free and open source, companies and institutions could be tempted to reduce translation budgets and reduce the number of translators and interpreters they hire. They may also tend to reduce the rate at which they use the services of translation agencies. Furthermore, as real-time machine-translated IM produces instant results, companies that require translation services may tend to expect the same quick turnover from human translators. The high client expectations could lead to the tightening of deadlines thereby increasing the existing pressure on today's translators and interpreters (Johnson 2017; Moorkens 2017; Vieira 2018).

The translation profession, in the age of fast-evolving technology, needs to constantly reach beyond its traditionally defined confines. That means program designers need to consistently search for technology-driven opportunities and to systematically redefine training goals and objectives to optimize employment opportunities for young graduates. While it appears fair to argue that some translation and interpretation jobs will be lost, it is equally relevant to emphasize that real-time IM translation clients do offset the losses by offering exciting opportunities for translators and interpreters with the right skill sets. The true extent of these losses and gains, or their exact impact on the translation industry, remains to be determined but it suffices, at this juncture, to highlight potential job openings for translators and interpreters within multiple departments of real-time IM translation clients (Tencent for QQ International, Viber, Chatlingual, Microsoft for Skype). The ability to understand two or more languages is a competitive edge translation schools need to capitalize on while designing programs that enable students to acquire knowledge in specialized areas including engineering, content writing, technical writing, programming, human relations, sales, and public relations.

6.2 Rethinking Translator Training Programs

The adequate training of translators and interpreters is essential to the very existence of the profession. The establishment of the first translation schools in the 1940s, at a time translation studies, as a discipline, began to take shape, testifies that, besides the knowledge of two or more languages, certain skills and competences were required in order to translate (Pym, 2013; Schäffner and Adab 2000). However, the literature on translation training courses points to a lack of uniformity in the design and teaching of translation programs across the globe (Bowker 2014; Pym 2011). Admittedly, national and regional factors affect the way people translate, negotiate translation contracts and receive payment for work done. Therefore, current and future translators need to be aware of these professional and market-oriented challenges. That notwithstanding, the translation process per se, i.e., the actual transfer of meaning from one language to another, requires a more harmonized curriculum than training institutions currently offer. While different scholars advocate for different approaches to translator training, translation teachers seem to have no consensus on the selection of texts and on the grading of students' translation tasks. Furthermore, it is virtually up to training schools to determine at what level of training certain courses is taught (Chan 2014; Lei 1999).

Current developments in technology require a shift of focus in translator training programs toward areas where future demand lies (Bowker et al. 2008). This requires translation schools to periodically re-evaluate their programs and to make changes that reflect current market trends. For instance, training schools may need to adopt a flexible approach in designing translation courses by eliminating unnecessary bureaucracy which occasionally slows down reform implementation. Course-design flexibility needs to align with constantly evolving technology as a way to pre-empt future trends and practices. Real-time machine-translated IM may be relatively novel, but it has the potential to evolve into the communication norm given that technology redefines trends and changes habits. Hence, the integration of IM translation into the curriculum, as part of machine translation training, is a way to ensure the profession advances at the same pace with technological development and societal changes.

How can real-time machine-translated IM be integrated into translator training programs? Possible ways would include training students to understand how real-time IM translation works and preparing them to work with/for IM translation clients that are consistently searching for new talent. With the increasing number of machine-translated instant messaging applications, particularly those intended for tourists (iTranslate, TripLingo, SayHi, Papago, Speak and Translate, etc.), there are numerous collaboration opportunities between translation programs and companies that provide IM translation-based software and hardware. These companies definitely require language experts at the design and testing phases and would continuously want to improve the quality of their translations by working with language professionals.

Besides, translation programs certainly need to introduce more technology-based courses. Currently, most programs appear to be focused on the teaching of CAT tools and, to a certain extent, localization. While not downplaying the crucial importance of CAT tool and localization training, it is worthy to emphasize the need for training institutions to realize that IM translation (voice and text) represents the future of travel and that IM translation clients certainly need employees with a wide-ranging skills set besides the knowledge of two or more languages. Therefore, knowledge of basic programming could be included in the translation curriculum. Students could be taught programming software including Python, JavaScript, Java, C++, etc. that are important to all IM translation clients. Knowledge of programming language and knowledge of several languages will certainly give graduates a high competitive edge over other job seekers in this area.

Furthermore, knowledge of database systems, as well as technical writing, would be instrumental for graduates wishing to work with companies that design IM translation software. Database system courses naturally include artificial intelligence, Big Data and database (including SQL database, Oracle, MongoDB) systems. Besides database system courses, trainees require knowledge in technical writing in a variety of areas. Generally, IM translation clients are in need of content writers and copywriters for the purpose of marketing their products. Courses in technical writing could focus on developing trainee skills in writing advertising content, user guides, frequently asked questions (FAQs), and providing technical descriptions of devices. It is essential to emphasize that even though trainees do not have expert knowledge upon graduation, they would certainly be capable of building on the knowledge they obtain in the training schools however rudimentary it may be.

In today's world, translator training would be incomplete if institutions focus solely on the teaching of hard skills. As a matter of fact, there is an ever-increasing need to assist trainee translators and interpreters in developing soft skills or employability skills that have become obligatory in an ever-evolving, technology-based, and dynamic marketplace. Training institutions of today are obliged to develop the communication and media skills of trainees and, at the same time, they have to ensure that trainees acquire interpersonal and teamwork skills, learn how to work under pressure, adapt to flexible schedules, multitask and excel in multicultural work settings (Cinque 2016; Johnson 2017; Kic-Drgas 2018; Marczak 2018; Pym 2011; Pym 2013).

7 Conclusion

IM translation appears to be following in the footsteps of IM especially in terms of its popularity and its ubiquity. The proliferation of IM translation applications, in business in general and in the tourism industry in particular, clearly indicates how new trends can reshape the translation profession. Therefore, rather than sit back, or develop a wait-and-see attitude, translator training programs need to act now by aligning the curriculum with current and future market demands. This chapter defined real-time machine-translated IM, briefly outlined current IM translation clients and examined the impact of IM and real-time IM translation on FL and translation. The analysis focused on job losses and gains and on the need for training programs to adjust to a marketplace that consistently follows the contours of technological evolution. In this chapter, it is argued that the ubiquity of IM translation, both voice and text, could reduce the need for human translators and interpreters in certain industries and institutions, and also increase existing pressures on professional translators. On the other hand, it is suggested that translators and interpreters acquire training that equips them with a versatile skill set to fill positions not traditionally reserved for translators. This is possible via the identification of areas where expert knowledge or even rudimentary knowledge is necessary and susceptible to supplement the linguistic competence of future graduates and to increase their competitive edge when they seek for employment. In the domain of machine-translated IM, it is recommended that training institutions improve collaboration with IM translation application developers as well as IM translation service providers. In addition, specialized courses in artificial intelligence, Big Data, database systems, technical writing, and soft skill training are essential in preparing future translators and interpreters for the exigencies of current and future global translation markets. This chapter lays the groundwork for further IM translation-related research in areas including but not limited to IM translation quality, user perceptions and the relationship between IM translation and other disciplines.

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Principles of a Practical University Course of Audiovisual Translation

Alexey Kozulyaev

Abstract Audiovisual translation is a relatively new branch of translation studies. The rapid development of various modes of content delivery and the amount of audiovisual materials to be translated every year necessitate the creation of a flexible and effective system of training of translators. The chapter outlines its key points that are incorporated in the curricula of the Moscow School of Audiovisual Translation as well as important training format aspects that need to be taken care of due to the cognitive difference between generations of students.

Keywords Audiovisual translation · Multimodality · Audience analysis · Audiovisual text

1 Introduction

For quite a time, audiovisual translation in modern Russia was not defined as a separate type of translation and thus not considered eligible for either in-depth studies or university teaching for a professional degree. In fact, this type of translation was regarded as adaptation rather than translation because of multiple extralinguistic temporal and spatial limitations imposed on it by the workflow and accompanying semantic systems and had hence drawn little scholarly attention. Pretty often, audiovisual translation was considered to be a part of Film Studies and relegated to the outskirts of linguistics. The approach has seemed even more of a paradox considering the fact that Yuri Lotman and other researchers of the Tartu Semiotic School were pioneers in the research of multimodal semiotic entities (including AV productions) more than 50 years ago (Lotman 1973).

At the same time, the pressure of reality on modern Russian studies in audiovisual translation theory became too prominent to ignore with the advent of new immersive VR and AR technologies that call for a redefinition of the very notion of audiovisual translation. Some of potential content exporters—like China, Japan, Arab countries,

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Turkey—did not fully enter the Russian market yet due to the lack of adequately trained audiovisual translators in respective languages. Academic and educational responses to the challenge were long expected and they are supposed to be quick and effective. The concept of translation has become more flexible and inclusive in order to accommodate new realities and challenges (Díaz-Cintas 2008). With the advent of computers and Internet as well as advances in new technologies and the mass media, modern-day translation tasks have been transformed from one-dimensional into multidimensional communication scenarios (Gerzymisch-Arbogast et al. 2005). Translation practices at the present time cover not only the traditional spoken-to-spoken mode of interpreting and written-to-written mode of translating but also multimodal and multimedia translation such as subtitling, dubbing, website localization, and translation for computer games. As the modes of data transmission become more complicated and immersive for the audiences (like 3D movies, virtual reality, augmented reality, mixed reality), the process of translation is shifting more and more into the realm of cognitive activities. Such an approach to audiovisual translation is being promoted by various researchers all over the world (Alves et al. 2015).

The research in AVT in Russia displayed not a cognitive but purely linguistic scenario. The bulk of linguistic and teaching methods research related to audiovisual translation before 2019 was not based on cognitive studies (eye tracking, perception studies, etc.) but on the scholastic line of reasoning. But it is noteworthy that it was typical not only for the domestic scientific thought. Pedersen (2005) points out that "one problem that has plagued the discipline of audiovisual translation research is that very many studies are case studies, i.e. the corpus has been one film only" (p. 124).

In this country such an incremental approach led to the situation when there was no practical foundation for the creation of any curriculum of AVT teaching either for universities or for corporate use. Case studies based on a pretty limited amount of AV productions may be linguistically valid but they do not yield enough data to generalize it into the foundation for AV translation teaching methods. It cannot be taught on the ad hoc basis. There should be some standardized teaching methods and evaluation guidelines. In their absence, the rapidly growing AV industry loses universities as the teaching ground for its needs.

By 2010, there were less than 100 qualified AV translators serving the entire Russian TV and movie industry that had quadrupled the broadcast and supply volumes every four years since 2000. Some language pairs (like Chinese-Russian) had the numbers of qualified AV translators measured in single digits. Almost all corporate customers suffered from serious financial setbacks of programming and series launches due to poor translations.

Various audiovisual translation courses were needed urgently to fill the void. But the problem is actually threefold.

1.1 Problem 1—Defining What is Taught

Traditionally, basic systems of translator education in most countries of the world including Russia are aimed at teaching students to translate oral and written texts with very few interdisciplinary inroads that could be cues to translate audiovisual productions. Audiovisual productions are not textbook texts in the classical sense of the word. They are polysemantic (Lotman and Tsivyan 1981), multimodal (Gambier 2008; Gottlieb 2005) entities consisting of semantic systems that stretch far beyond the realm of the language (visual images, music, etc.).

Terminology was also an issue as the use of the word "text" to refer to audiovisual products while teaching audiovisual translation almost universally triggered an avalanche of wrong steps and strategies that were ingrained into the students' mind by years of text-based language schooling. The best way to describe AV entities was by redefining the term "discourse" or "production" to describe semantically complex entities students were dealing with just to keep them focused on the idea of multimodality.

By the way, it is interesting that empirically students are somehow better prepared to grasp the notion of the complexity of audiovisual products than most of their professors. Still the textual legacy of most high school language courses and textbooks had to be dealt with. Students had to be taken from text translation to multimodal translation in several clearly defined steps with teaching and evaluation methods tailored to each step. We singled them out and developed several practical curricula on our own. The approach was called "Seven Steps from translating texts to translating AV discourses" (Kozulyaev 2015).

1.2 Problem 2—Defining Who is Taught

A growing number of researchers point out that the current generation of students acquire new knowledge in ways that are cognitively different from earlier ones due to the advent of social networks, easy accessibility of visual content and its dominance in the intercultural exchanges, early gamification, the transfer of knowledge from the brains of students to easily accessibly cloud storage facilities (exteriorization of knowledge) (Chernigovskaya and Utekhin 2011). In practical terms, it means that these differences need to be addressed and factored into the teaching process. It is becoming more and more evident that new methods of teaching should be developed and the old ones adjusted to match the perception of the students (Salomon 1993). Otherwise, the entire teaching process might become more and more alien to visually oriented students and thus would yield very few tangible results.

For the purpose of structuring the educational process and the system of exercises in audiovisual translation, we designed a working (probably not final, but quite operational) classification of cognitive differences relevant for the teaching process and superimposed it on the Seven Steps curriculum (Kozulyaev 2017). This chapter

Table 1 Differences in cognitive processes for students born before and after 2000

Modes	Pre-2000 generation	Post-2000 generation
Knowledge transfer mode	Reading as the key mode of knowledge transfer	Watching AV content as the key mode of knowledge transfer
Socialization mode	Real-life interactions as the basis for socialization and personal development	Virtual or mixed mode (virtual/real) interactions as the basis for socialization and personal development
Motivation mode	Real-life social structures as the motivation base	Gamification/game rules as the motivation base—concept of levels, etc.
Data storage mode	Personal minds/brains as the ultimate source of life-related knowledge and experiences/internal storage of life experiences	Search engines and cloud storage as the ultimate source of life-related knowledge
Behavior/value formation mode	Real-life as the source of behavioral patterns and life values	Games and film scenarios as sources of behavioral patterns and values
Data processing mode	Research as the educational base	Search as the educational base
Concept perception mode	Plot-oriented (holistic discourse structure)	Bundle-oriented (memes as discrete units)

contains a brief overview of these cognitive differences which influence audiovisual translation teaching process (Table 1).

These differences had to be researched and recognized separately so that the teaching process could be adapted to use them for the promotion of the course goals. Unfortunately, at this point, most Russian university-level translation teaching courses fail to respond to these challenges and spend too much time on uphill battles with the negative consequences and influences of these changes on the cognitive activities of students (such as short attention spans, lack of motivation, and poor text analysis skills).

1.3 Problem 3—Accommodating the Rapid Development of Highly Immersive Content Delivery Modes (3D, VR, AR)

Immersive content delivery modes place a lot of emphasis on the balance of sensory inputs (visual, verbal, ambience, etc.) as the immersion brings the sensory pressure of the content on the brain almost to the limit. Traditionally translated verbal components can break this balance. It calls for a redefinition of AVT as a cognitive activity and further neurophysiological research in the field. The course made an attempt to accommodate that as well as in 2020, we created the laboratory of cognitive studies with state-of-the-art eye tracking and EEG equipment and applied its research to various projects carried out by students.

In 2014–2020, courses of varying lengths were successfully tested at 17 Russian and foreign university and corporated offline courses. More than 30 online courses were also held in several languages.

2 Teaching Scenarios

Despite gaining prominence and recognition, AVT remains a relatively new discipline. It requires interdisciplinary input from other fields such as film studies, semiotics, and communicative studies in order to better understand the interaction between language and non-verbal audiovisual sign systems.

Since 1971, translation scholars have noted that the film text does not fall into any category of conventional text-types often involved in translation. The film text was referred to as an audio-medial (Reiss 1971) or a multimedial (Reiss and Vermeer 2013) text-type, "in which several channels of communication are used simultaneously." In his article "Subtitling: Constrained Translation" Titford (1982) acknowledges the interplay of visual and linguistic factors. Taking this a step further, Delabastita indicates there are two channels through which film communication takes place: visual and acoustic channels (Delabastita 1989). They are the means utilized in mass communication to carry messages. The concept of visual and acoustic channels coincides with the word "audiovisual"—audio and visual channels are the means utilized in mass communication to carry messages. Adding the elements of verbal and non-verbal signs, he distinguishes four types of film signs:

- visual channel—verbal signs: e.g., credits, letters shown on screen;
- visual channel—non-verbal signs: e.g., gestures, costumes, make-up;
- acoustic channel—verbal signs: e.g., dialogue;
- acoustic channel—non-verbal signs: e.g., background music, sound effects. In audiovisual communication, not only verbal information but also non-verbal information plays an important role in sending the message.

Gambier singles out ten types of audiovisual translation, focusing on the transfer from one language to another. These are subtitling, simultaneous (or real-time) subtitling, dubbing, interpreting, voice-over, narration, commentary, revoicing, subtitling, and simultaneous translation (Gambier 1995). He also uses the term "transadaptation" to stress that AVT encompasses different forms of transfer that go beyond the traditional dichotomy of literal/free translation or translation/adaptation and the boundaries between translation and interpreting and between written and oral codes are blurred (Gambier 2003).

Another concept closely associated with film texts is "multimodality," proposed by Lotman (1973) and Kress and Van Leeuwen (2006). According to them, multimodal texts are "texts whose meanings are realized through more than one semiotic code" (Kress and Leeuwen 2006); therefore, film texts are multimodal texts.

In multimodal communication, meanings are realized through the interaction of multiple modes. For example, Holopainen treats subtitling as multimodal translation in which all the semiotic modes, including the spoken mode, the written mode, the mode of music, the mode of sound effects, and the mode of moving images, work together to form a holistic picture of the message (Holopainen 2015).

Our approach integrated five major theoretical sources into the development of the teaching system and course curricula.

- Lotman, Kress, Van Leeuwen's theory of multimodal texts.
- The concept of prefabricated orality as suggested by Baños-Piñero and Chaume (2009). Audiovisual texts since they are "written to be spoken as if not written" (Gregory and Carroll 1978. p. 42). We are therefore dealing with texts whose *orality* may seem spontaneous and natural, but which is actually planned or, as Chaume (2004a, b, p. 168) terms it, "prefabricated." This is a characteristic that is common to most audiovisual fictional texts regardless of their origins.
- Eugene Nida's theory of formal versus dynamic equivalence in translation (Nida 1964). Holistic pictures of target language messages in audiovisual translation are created with the purpose of making the identical to source language emotional and behavioral impact on the audience and this perfectly fits the definition of dynamically equivalent translation.
- Vermeer's theory of skopos (Vermeer 1996). The function of a translation depends on the knowledge, expectations, values and norms of the target readers, who are again influenced by the situation they are in and by the culture. These factors determine whether the function of the source text or passages in the source text can be preserved or have to be modified or even changed.
- The theory of user-centered translation developed in the University of Tampere by Suojanen et al. (2015).

So, there are five major teaching blocks underpinning any practical course in audiovisual translation.

- The analysis of the structure and elements of various multimodal discourses;
- The features of prefabricated orality in Russian as compared to other languages;
- The basics and practical principles of dynamically equivalent translation with the special emphasis to such processes as transcreation and transculturation;
- The principles of the skopos definition for various units of audiovisual translation in various environments;
- The basic of the process of user-centered audiovisual translation and the analysis of the audience.

From the practical point of view, there are several steps students should go through before developing the full range of translation competences necessary for audiovisual translation. They are closely interrelated and form a coherent system thus enabling teachers to review similar exercises from various angles to achieve varying didactic goals.

2.1 Teaching the Semantic Analysis of Multimodal AV Productions

Earlier, it was mentioned that Delabastita points out the four basic elements that define the audiovisual text and establish a basis for its semiotic texture. Sokoli (2009) recapitulates the features of the audiovisual codes that distinguish the audiovisual text and stresses that "these features condition the translation of the audiovisual text, and, as a result, their consideration is fundamental for its study" (p. 38). The systemic features of AV productions are:

- Reception through two channels: acoustic and visual.
- Significant presence of nonverbal elements.
- Synchronization between verbal and nonverbal elements.
- Appearance on screen—reproducible material.
- Predetermined succession of moving images—recorded material.

With the expansion of information technology, the concept of multimodality in translation has become more and more important. The interplay between verbal and multimodal modes, i.e., the semiotic, visual, acoustic, and kinetic elements needs to be examined to define the specific character of audiovisual translation. However, Gambier talks about the "strong paradox" in audiovisual translation. The interrelations between the verbal and the visual and between language and non-verbal are already acknowledged in translation studies but according to Gambier (2006) "the dominant research perspective in AVT remains largely linguistic" (p. 24).

Gambier (2009) suggests two factors that explain this paradox: the background of most research of AVT is in linguistic and literary studies and the difficulty and collecting data and annotations in AVT texts are difficult and time consuming. He also cites the recent lack of a relevant methodology to deal with the concept of multimodality.

For TV and movie productions, it is evident that the visual stream defined such elements of the plot as shots and scenes (cinematographic events) as units of the whole. For games, the structural units of the game discourse may be defined as game mini-scenarios. It might be assumed that neither sentences nor phrases nor paragraphs are building blocks of audiovisual discourses and games.

Taylor suggests an effective methodological tool that can provide a detailed analysis of an audiovisual text. According to Taylor, this methodology can be adopted (and adapted) to formulate strategies for subtitling and can provide insights into how meaning is "made" via the combination of various semiotic modalities, and thus how the verbal message in the form of subtitles interacts with other sources of meaning (Taylor 2003). Various types of audiovisual texts including feature films, advertisements, news programs, soap operas have been analyzed using this tool offering the possibility of comparing those genres in terms of subtitling strategies. After the analysis of semiotic modalities incorporated in a source audiovisual production, students get down to the next step—analyzing the linguistic part, but from a very different perspective. This method of "multimodal transcription" (Thibault 2000) involves breaking down a film into single frames/shots/phases, and analyzing all the semiotic modalities operating in each frame/shot/phase.

2.2 Teaching Dynamically Equivalent Translation and Transcreation

A translation that attempts to reproduce a dynamic rather than a formal equivalence is based on the principle of equivalent effect (Nida 1964). Dynamic equivalence is the quality that characterizes a translation in which "the message of the original text has been so transposed into the receptor language that the response of the receptor is essentially like that or the original receptors" (Nida and Taber 1969). Nida (1964) states that "a translation of dynamic equivalence aims at complete naturalness of expression and tries to relate the receptor to modes of behavior relevant within the context of his own culture."

As Nida himself points out, the essential features of dynamically equivalent translation consist of the following points:

- equivalent, which points toward the source-language message
- natural, which points toward the receptor language
- closest, which binds the two orientations together on the basis of the highest degree of approximation (Nida 1975).

All these points aim at arousing "similar response" between the source text readers and the target text readers. Dynamic equivalence in translation is closely related to such process as transcreation. Transcreation combines two words: translation and re-creation. The process involves both. Transcreation takes the source text or discourse and recreates it in a way that leaves the original message and intent still explicit as well as the emotional impact of the receptor.

2.3 Teaching How to Define the Purpose (Skopos) of AV Discourse Elements in Various AV Environments

As Lotman and Tsivyan (1994) point out that "minimal units of AV discourses are pairs of meaningful visual shots" (p. 7). These pairs are used by film directors to narrate emotionally touching stories with coherent plots thus suggesting that the second level of structural units of AV discourses relate to the story structure. Structural units of any audiovisual discourse do not belong to the realm of linguistics.

Key building blocks of any AV story are scenes or cinematographic events. All of these elements (verbal, visual, musical) are used by film authors as elements of the artistic dialogue with audiences. As elements of such a dialogue both pairs of shots and scenes have clearly defined pragmatic purposes or skopos.

The skopos theory focuses on translation as an activity with an aim or a purpose, and on the intended addressee or audience of the translation. To translate means to produce a target text in a target setting for a target purpose and target addressees in target circumstances. The source is an initial "offer of information", which the translator turns into a secondary "offer of information" for the target audience (Vermeer 1996).

Thus, an AV translator should be able to analyze the structure of such offers of information packed as pairs of shots and scenes. Students are taught to understand goals of scenes and key shot pairs within the holistic framework of coherent AV stories.

2.4 Teaching User-Centered Translation

Cinematic discourse is the holistic form of the dialogue of film creators (director, scriptwriter) with the target audience, thus both the creation and the translation of audiovisual texts are user-centered (Suojanen et al. 2015). Target audiences of AV productions both in the source and target cultures have their own speaking patterns and vocabulary peculiarities as well as phonetic and other differences.

User-centered translation is closely related to functional translation theories and it means translators gather as much information about our future users as possible through various methods during the entire translation process. In this part of the course, the methods of gathering the information on audiences and modelling these audiences and user experiences are studied. User viewing experience is defined as a coherent sequence of emotional states and plot-based attitudes the audience go through in the course of watching an AV production.

It is known from Film Studies that genres are based on these emotional sequences (McKee 1997, p 32). Moreover, user viewing experiences in a source language production and a target language transcreation need to be as identical as possible because, i.e., a comedy needs to remain a comedy—genres cannot change irrespectively of the desire of a translator to deliver "exact" translations.

2.5 Teaching Prefabricated Orality

Manifestations of prefabricated orality are greatly varying from one language to another. The language of source AV productions is initially designed to suit the expectations of target audiences. Students need to be aware of that and in other words, this part of the course is sometimes described for more traditional groups of language educators as Stylistics 2.0 applied to a more modern medium. Audiovisual texts, especially narrative texts like feature films and TV dramas, have their own rules and conventions concerning the reproduction of orality (Chaume 2004a, b). These texts which are characterized by "a strange kind of oral discourse, an orality which may seem spontaneous and natural, but which is actually planned or, as Chaume terms it, 'prefabricated'" (Baños-Piñero and Chaume 2009, p. 1). Although the orality of these audiovisual texts may seem spontaneous and natural, they are actually "written to be spoken as if not written" and this "prefabricated orality" is a characteristic common to audiovisual fictional texts regardless of their origins and source languages. In fact, the notion of prefabricated orality is the basis of singling out audiovisual translation as a separate type of translation (being different from both oral and written translations).

This distinction and its introduction into the Russian linguistic thought of the present day was of extreme importance as most of the current Russian didactic research still employs the earlier strict dichotomy of oral/written translation leaving no proper place for teaching audiovisual translation or strongly distorting the issue to match existing linguistic concepts and, therefore, leaving big swaths of actual localization and AVT workflows out of the picture.

Language in narrative audiovisual texts can be said to be halfway between spontaneous oral speech and the pre-manufactured written speech (McKee 2016). This prefabricated oral speech is created and written according to certain conventions. Moreover, for some languages, these conventions are already put into the format of guidelines recommended by broadcasters and government bodies in Catalonia (Criteris Linguistics Sobre Traduccio I Doblatge 1997, pp. 12–14). The speech of the source and the target text is situated in a continuum between spontaneous and planned discourse, displaying features of both extremes. What is even more noteworthy is that these displays vary greatly for different languages.

At this stage, students are subjected to an in-depth study of pre-fabricated orality features in Russian and given a free hand to explore its various manifestations. This part of the course is rich in research and highly motivating for students as they understand the innovative nature of the research.

2.6 *Teaching to Translate Coherent Audiovisual Stories and Analyze Plots and Genres*

Every AV discourse (be it a movie or a game) is a story with its own coherent plot, characters, their relations, and inner structure. If we wish to preserve the skopos of every part of AV productions, we need to recreate these stories in target languages as coherent stories with the same plot, characters, their relations, and preserve their inner structure and viewing experience. Under no circumstances can a source AV production change the genre—i.e., due to a faulty translation a hilarious comedy cannot become a "precisely translated" but dull movie about some strange people doing some bizarre things. Empirically, all these assumptions make perfect sense but teaching students to achieve these simple goals requires quite a time as they usually are not aware of the basic laws of storytelling.

Here, again, scenes are addressed as units of analysis and the students are taught the principle of conflict as the driving force of the entire storytelling process, notions of plot-relevant details, and the principles of the translation of cultural notions with due respect to their relevance for the story plot (McKee 1997). It demands a major change in the mode of thinking of translators and not just learning theoretical basis of Scriptwriting 101.

2.7 Teaching Constrained Translation in Various Environments

Titford was the first researcher that introduced the concept of "constrained translation" (Titford 1982, p. 113). He was predominantly concerned with captioning and reading subtitles. Mayoral, Kelly, and Gallardo analyzed the concept of "constrained translation" (Mayoral et al. 1988, p. 356), not limiting their research into audiovisual translation but including all types of translation in which more than one channel of communication intervenes: advertisements, comics, songs, subtitles, dubbing, and so forth. It is suggested that when the text is made up of multimedia components in addition to the verbal or linguistic one, the translation should always maintain "content synchrony with the other message components, whether these may be image, music or any other" (Mayoral et al. 1988, p. 356). There is the additional constraint of having to synchronize the words of the translation with the picture (and presumably, the original sound effects), i.e., "having to place the string of words alongside the parallel movement of the picture" (Zabalbeascoa 2008, p. 23). Zabalbeascoa's model promotes the functional model of audiovisual translation based on workflows that determine true translation priorities and constraints. Bartrina and Espasa define constrained translation as "situations in which the text to be translated is part of a more complex communicative event which attempts to convey a message by various means, such as pictures, drawings, music, etc." (Bartrina and Espasa 2005, p. 83) In audiovisual texts, there is a semiotic interaction between the simultaneous emission of image and text and its repercussions for the translation process. One characteristic of audiovisual texts is its redundancy: oral and written messages are conveyed with sound and image (Bartrina and Espasa 2005, p. 85). It is this "redundancy" that makes translation of audiovisual texts difficult. The translator has to consider not only the meaning in the verbal language, but to take into consideration all information streams of the medium.

This is where the studies of the processes of the creation of this medium, computer applications used for the creation of AV translations, and the entire workflows appear in our curriculum. At this phase, the students have a firm grasp of the mode of thinking necessary for proper audiovisual translation and see the place of computer applications and workflow management tools in the process.

But there is another challenge that comes into play—the adaptation of the teaching models to the changing cognitive patters of the younger generation. It makes the teaching process more effective, engaging, and fast.

3 Accommodation of New Modes of Cognitive Acquisition of New Data by Students

The breakdown of teaching goals and peculiarities of audiovisual translation shows that practical AVT teaching strategies should be broken into seven specific management/technology/education tasks:

- **Teach translators to deal with audiovisual linguistic and semantic environments** that are
  - Pseudo-oral;
  - Multimodal (combining visual and verbal sign systems);
  - Centered around emotions and viewing experiences and not just hard facts and meanings;
  - Target audience oriented;
  - Constrained by extralinguistic factors;
  - Structured around coherent plots, genres, and gaming experiences;
  - Very demanding in terms of the target language mastery.
- **Make AVT education flexible and modular** to meet various fluctuations of continuous market demand. Teaching processes need to be scalable so that all theoretical and practical issues could be covered in varying time formats—from one month to two years depending on specific requirements. Most corporate customers require short but very intensive trainings and Universities tend to extend Master's degree courses to a year or two;
- **Provide a solid theoretical AVT base (movies/series/games)** and support it with practical samples and studies of real workflows (wherever and whenever possible) that match the exponential growth of the industry into game translation, the translation of VR/AR/MR/3D/360° productions, metadata translation, and audiodescription/respeaking/SDH;
- **Make theoretical/practical input interesting and motivating** so that it can be effectively studied within short timespans. The industry very rarely gives to a vendor the luxury of years or months to complete the retraining of the teams and the demand for high-impact crash courses is growing steadily. The cognitive changes in the younger generation also make the task of keeping the attention of students more important than before;
- **Provide the foundation for teamwork** as the students need to understand the concept of collective authorship of AV productions as well as learn to work on research issues that are aplenty in groups;
- **Provide technological opportunities for quick translation output and its evaluation.** The shorter the distance from translation to its evaluation, the better as it assists the introduction of gamification practices into the AV teaching process;
- **Develop a system for providing quick constructive and well-structured feedback** and personalization/customization of exercises.

3.1 Dealing with Audiovisual Environments

Addressing the above-mentioned features of these environments called for the creation of the course curriculum that incorporated.

- Film studies
- Game theory
- Sociology
- Cognitive psychology
- Scriptwriting
- Linguistics with the emphasis on the parameters of prefabricated orality in phonetics/spelling, grammar, syntax, and vocabulary
- Advanced target language studies
- Practical dubbing
- Practical subtitling
- Glossary management/KNP tools/basic translation memory software
- Related platforms management (technological, fiscal, and evaluation).

This combination proved to be very efficient and scalable for the creation of a flexible training system in both online and offline formats. It is also noteworthy that the selection of teaching subjects for AV translation teaching courses was based on real workflows employed in various domains of production. The course in the translation of VR/AR presentations for museums required the introduction of additional classes in cognitive psychology as the perception mode in VR is different from the regular one.

3.2 Ensuring the Flexibility of Training and Teaching Requirements

Varying requirements of both academia and corporate trainings highlighted such a feature of the courses as their scalability. The courses are taught both in online and offline formats with the only difference being the intensity of the practical training as some of the tools used for it (such as respeaking customized for training goals and VR) can be applied offline only. The duration formats are (used in both formats):

- One-week course
- One-month course
- Three-month course
- Extended year-long course.

The courses are modified to fit the need to translate various genres and subjects. The school features unique courses on translating comedies, musicals (song translation included), pre-school cartoons as well as audio description of dance and sports programs.

All these formats were designed to fit various customer tasks and various types of trainee groups. The most effective format so far has been a three-month one; although for some practical tasks, one-week intensive courses (song translation, pre-school cartoon translation) proved to be quite successful.

3.3 Bringing Together Theory and Practice

The pretty comprehensive theoretical curriculum is complemented by several innovative tools for making practice engaging and entertaining and helping to introduce elements of gamification. Such tools include interlingual respeaking with certain adjustments of its standard protocol to fit the need to teach AV translation in general and constrained translation in particular (FAB Subtitler with a speech-to-text module), virtual reality demonstrations of videos to be translated, using proprietary glossary management and plot tracking software tools as well as more down-to-earth professional subtitling programs (EZTitles 5 etc.).

As the domain of prefabricated orality is not explored in Russia, a lot of studies were also conducted by students in this field for various genres with results being shared with classmates and used as the core of various master's theses. The creation of the cognitive research laboratory is the most recent contribution to that aspect of the teaching process.

3.4 Making Training Motivating and Interesting

The process of training an AV translator is intensive and pretty painstaking as it involves not just adapting existing professional skills to the new media but changing the entire professional prospective. Such a transition could be easier if the process could be made strongly motivating and engaging. The motivation is achieved through gamification based on the set of the instant output evaluation tools (based on the proprietary set of parameters). Virtual reality demonstrations of certain pieces to be translated increase the immersion of the students into the process of training. Trainees find it extremely entertaining, but the actual impact is yet to be measured. VR research is a part of the research program of the school for 2020. A very good example of the application of research to real workflows is our current Perception Change Project that measures the electroencephalographic response to demonstrations of the same short films and their translations in black and white/color/3D and virtual reality versions.

3.5 Laying the Ground for Team Spirit Building

Students should be familiarized with real-time workflows and professional challenges as early as possible to pursue the goal of the formation of the professional personality (Gavrilenko 2009) and professional ethos of an audiovisual translator. It is also important to give students the understanding of directions for professional self-development. In the case of audiovisual translation, it is not only linguistic studies but also cognitive studies, film studies, studies in prefabricated orality. Audiovisual translation is a rapidly developing field of translation studies and many students show a lot of interest in the research programs of the school. At this point, students and practitioners find it reassuring that audiovisual translation is likely to remain the field of human translation for at least a decade to come and at the same time, the courses are very tech-savvy and this creates a unique feeling of empowerment that many students mention.

3.6 Developing a System for Providing Constructive Feedback and Evaluation

The set of quality evaluation parameters that our integrated approach is based upon—pseudo-orality metrics, degree of constrained translation, dynamic equivalence metrics, plot coherence metrics, target audience metrics, linguistic and structural correctness—is introduced at the earliest phases of the training and helps students to exclude subjective components (that are usually present in any transcreative translation evaluation) to minimum. The theoretical and practical research in AVT and teaching techniques allowed us to develop a proprietary evaluation and feedback matrix that is different from others used in the industry. It is based on the concepts of workflow analysis, plot/scene evaluation, viewing experience, and dynamic cognitive equivalence in translation. Several complex factors are statistically evaluated and analyzed for determining the directions of further customization of training.

4 Conclusion

The creation of a coherent theoretical approach to the translation of multimodal audiovisual productions rather than texts integrating several concepts in the innovative way allowed us to develop a number of courses for universities and corporate entities.

The approach is aimed at changing the professional thinking framework of translators to match new workflows and to reflect the new realities such as translation as cognitive activity (which is evident while working, say, with metadata translation for

VR devices that are highly taxing for sensory perception), prefabricated orality of AV productions, drastic changes in the cognitive activities of the audiences and students, and new technological advances in the way AV productions interact with viewers. The creation of the matrix of university and corporate courses requires the juxtaposition of workflows of various subtypes of audiovisual translation and changing cognitive profiles of students to achieve

- deeper immersion in the teaching process;
- higher motivation;
- faster and more effective adoption of new translation modes;
- more interdisciplinary interaction;
- more flexibility;
- more openness to new developments in the field as the approach helped to easily adapt the teaching process to the new developments of the metadata usage in visual productions as the next-generation type of interactive subs, etc.

It is important that the approach is not language-specific and can be integrated with various language courses with samples for exercises taken from national TV productions. Currently, the school has partners in Latvia, Finland, and France. Several joint research projects are underway with the St. Pete University of Airspace Engineering (Faculty of Humanities) which will hopefully contribute to the development of more effective training methods in the field.

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Pause in Sight Translation: A Pilot Study

Jing Fang

Abstract Pauses are common in the practice of sight translation, especially among student interpreters. However, research on this topic has been limited so far. Based on a pilot project, this study aims to explore pauses in English-Chinese sight translation. Two groups of student interpreters, at different stages of training, were recruited to sight translate two texts with different syntactic complexity. The data collection also involved a pre-task vocabulary test and a post-task interview. All the silent pauses were identified and labelled based on their duration, and grammatical position in the text. The results showed that syntactic complexity of the source text had affected the pauses of short and medium length, but its effect on the long pauses of over 2 s was limited. Also, training was found to have an effect on reducing short pauses in the simple text, and medium pauses in the complex text. And students with longer training had significantly fewer longer pauses (over 1 s) at an ungrammatical position than the junior student interpreters. The research also found that, although interpreters had encountered difficult words in the source texts, these words were not a major contributor to pauses. Apart from pausing, interpreters also responded in other ways when facing lexical challenges.

Keywords Pause · Sight translation · Syntactic complexity · Training effect

1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present an in-depth examination of pause during sight translation from English into Chinese. Widely recognized as a hybrid of translation and interpreting (T&I) (see Agrifoglio 2004; Dragsted and Hansen 2009; Chmiel and Mazur 2013), sight translation is a special interpreting mode which involves an oral translation of a written document. Strictly speaking, sight translation is a subtype of simultaneous interpreting, as the interpreter is usually expected to provide the oral translation while reading the text at the same time. Due to its simultaneous

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feature, sight translation is considered as a highly efficient interpreting mode, which is commonly used in the interpreting practice in the public service settings in some immigration countries such as Australia and the United States of America. Correspondingly, sight translation also forms an important part in the accreditation tests provided in these countries. For example, in the national certified interpreter test organized by Australia's National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters (NAATI),[1] candidates need to complete two sight translation tasks in the certified interpreter test. In addition to its wide use in the industry in the aforementioned markets, sight translation is also an integral part of professional training in many of the T&I programs around the world (see Li 2014). Sight translation has been found to be an effective exercise to develop students' transfer skills from one language to another (e.g., Pöchhacker 2010; Sawyer 2004), to improve the speed of written translation (e.g., Dragsted and Hansen 2009; Weber 1990), and to bridge the training stage of consecutive interpreting and that of simultaneous interpreting (e.g., Moser-Mercer 1995; Song 2010).

In terms of quality assessment of sight translation performance, there has been a consensus, where fluency is widely recognized as one of the key criteria. For example, Angelelli (1999) stated that in a good sight translation performance, the interpreter should sound as if he were reading a document in the target language, which implies a smooth delivery devoid of hesitations and pauses. In discussing what skills students need in sight translation training, Lee (2012) pointed out that delivery was one of the key skills that students need to learn in sight translation, and in assessing the sight translation performance of her subjects, Lee identified the disfluency problems including long pauses and prolonged delivery time (Lee 2012). In its certified interpreter testing system, NAATI also includes fluent delivery in its marking rubrics in assessing sight translation tasks (see NAATI 2019). Indeed, fluency is one of the salient features of a professional interpreter's performance (Altman 1994). Although it is hard to reach a consensus on how fluency shall be defined in interpreting (cf. Rennert 2010), pause has been commonly recognized by researchers in both T&I study and language research as a key factor influencing fluency. However, despite its importance in the assessment of fluency in interpreting, pause as a research topic in sight translation has been rarely investigated (see details in Sect. 2). The current study thus aims to explore pause during sight translation and seek potential insights into the problem that is commonly found among student interpreters. In particular, the exploration will focus on: (1) potential impact of syntactic complexity on pause during sight translation; (2) potential impact of training on pause in sight translation; (3) potential correlation between source language lexical difficulty and pause during sight translation.

[1] https://www.naati.com.au/certification/certification-testing/certified-interpreter/#.

2 Pause in Interpreting Studies: A Review

In describing various examples of non-fluencies, pauses are often grouped together with hesitations, repetitions, corrections, false starts, and so on as the most common types of undesirable features of non-fluency, and Garnham termed them as "disfluencies" (Garnham 1985, p. 206). Similarly, in the case of interpreting, pauses are often viewed unfavorably as an error. For example, Lee identified pauses in sight translation as a main indicator of disfluency in the assessment (Lee 2012). It is true that disfluency in interpreting is often featured with pauses. However, it would be simplistic to conclude that all pauses are examples of disfluency. In fact, researchers have tried to categorize pauses according to their patterns and functions.

2.1 Categorization of Pauses in Interpreting

Simone identified two types of pauses in public speaking: individual pauses that were occasional silent moments due to the communicative intention of the speaker, and functional pauses which occurred at the grammatical boundaries (Simone 1990, in Cecot 2001). Simone's categorization reflects the emphasis on the communicative functions that pauses can realize, but it fails to cover a common situation where the speaker pauses due to hesitations. According to Avesani and Vayra (1992, in Cecot 2001), pauses could be categorized into three types: pauses at the end of syntactical boundaries, breathing pauses, and hesitation pauses. Avesani and Vayra's categorization put into consideration three important factors that are involved in pauses: the linguistic features of the text, the physiological needs of the speaker, and the psychological aspect in taking a pause.

In terms of the study of pause in interpreting, perhaps the most commonly adopted categories are unfilled and filled pauses, which were first introduced by Maclay and Osgood (1959). The former refers to the silent pauses, whereas the latter mainly refers to the sounds of hesitations, such as *ah, hmm, er*, and so on. Many interpreting studies of pause used Maclay and Osgood's categorization and some researchers developed more subcategories. For example, in investigating non-fluencies in simultaneous interpreting, Tissi presented three subcategories of unfilled pauses (also known as "silent pauses"), including grammatical and/or communicative pauses (i.e., pauses at the grammatical boundaries), and non-grammatical pauses (i.e., the pauses within a clause), whereas filled pause was identified as a subtype of disfluencies, which included vocalized hesitations and vowel and consonant lengthenings (Tissi 2000). Tissi found that the target text in simultaneous interpreting contained fewer, but altogether longer silent pauses than the source text, and target text also had more grammatical pauses than the source text. It is interesting to note that the category of "grammatical pauses" in Tissi's study has also been identified in some other interpreting studies, but it has been termed with different names. In the taxonomy presented by

Magno et al. (1982, in Cecot 2001), "grammatical pauses" were termed as "juncture pauses," whereas the non-grammatical pauses were termed as "clause-internal pauses." Cecot (2001) gave a more comprehensive categorization of pauses under the general category of non-fluencies: among silent or unfilled pauses, they were either communicative or non-communicative pauses; Initial décalage (initial pause), segmentation pauses, and rhetorical pauses were the three subtypes of communicative pauses; hesitation pauses (also termed as "non-grammatical pauses") were the non-communicative pauses; filled pauses were one of the subcategories of disfluencies. Cecot's categorization emphasizes the communicative functions that pauses can carry. However, some of her categories might be overlapping and repetitive. For example, a pause that occurs at a grammatical boundary could fit into more than one category according to Cecot's definition: it could be a segmentation pause or grammatical pause, and rhetorical pause all at the same time. Also, in Cecot's taxonomy, as non-communicative pauses were defined as non-grammatical and hesitation pauses, these three terms in fact represented only one category. However, Cecot's categorization is valuable in that it highlights the status of the unfilled pauses: They can either be rhetorical pauses, which contribute to the smooth delivery in the target language, or be hesitation pauses, which indicate the stressful cognitive process of the interpreter. It supports Mead's argument that the status of silent pauses is varied, in that they may be stops for breath, deliberate pauses for emphasis or hesitations, whereas filled pauses are often hesitation pauses (Mead 2000). In fact, both Cecot and Mead pointed out that filled pauses were a type of hesitation pauses, the case of which is more simple than that of the unfilled pauses that could fit into more than more category.

In summary, although researchers have used different terms in categorizing pauses, the categorization is generally based on three factors: the grammatical location in the text when the pause occurs (grammatical/juncture/segmentation pauses), the vocalizing status of the pause (unfilled/silent pauses and filled pauses), the functional status of the pause (rhetorical/communicative pauses and hesitation pauses).

2.2 Pause in Sight Translation

The study of pause in interpreting research predominantly focuses on consecutive interpreting and simultaneous interpreting. The topics cover a variety of areas, such as the pauses in interpreting quality assessment (e.g., Kopczyński 1994; Rennert 2010), the descriptive analysis of different pauses used in simultaneous interpreting (e.g., Cecot 2001; Tissi 2000), the comparison of pauses between simultaneous interpreting and consecutive interpreting (e.g., Orlando 2014), the comparative study of pauses in different language direction in consecutive interpreting (e.g., Mead 2000), and the comparison of pauses between trainee and professional simultaneous interpreters (e.g., Wang and Li 2015).

Compared with the work on simultaneous interpreting and consecutive interpreting, research on pauses in sight translation is very limited. Dragsted and Hansen

(2009) compared pauses during written translation with pauses during sight translation. They found that under the written translation condition, the translators appeared to be hesitant, pausing sometimes before each word. In comparison, the interpreters seemed more self-assured and had much less pauses in sight translation. Lee (2012) compared student interpreters and professional interpreters in doing sight translation, and she found that although professional interpreters outperformed student interpreters in general, some student interpreters did better than professional interpreters in terms of delivery time and the frequency of pauses. Through the analysis of the professional group, Lee also noticed negative correlations between silent pauses and voiced pauses (Lee 2012). By analyzing pauses and other disfluency examples, Shreve et al. (2011) found that visual interference in the source text was an important cognitive factor in sight translation, and pauses (including both filled and unfilled pauses) were associated with not only syntactic and lexical production problems, but also with translators' strategies in recognizing problems and seeking solutions. Yang and Deng (2011) compared pauses of novice interpreters with experienced interpreters in sight translation and found that the latter had significantly fewer pauses than the former, but there were little differences between the two groups of interpreters in terms of the positions of the pauses that they had in the text, which indicated that the syntactic difficulty may pose the same challenge to both groups. In studying the expert interpreters' behavior in English–Chinese sight translation, Ho combined eye-tracking data with voice data and found that the number of observable pauses of expert interpreters in the sight translation process was fewer, and the average length of each pause was shorter, along with fewer fixations than the non-expert group (Ho 2019).

In summary, although existing research has covered some interesting aspects of pause in sight translation, the main focus of these explorations was on overall fluency and discussions of pauses only formed one part of the investigation. In fact, pauses in sight translation rarely received any focused attention, and there are still many questions to be answered in this area. For example, although researchers have found that syntactic and lexical challenges in the source text may cause disfluencies including pause, it is not clear how exactly the impact is reflected through pause. Also, it needs to be explored if training may bring effects on the occurrence of pauses in sight translation. The current author feels that it is necessary to further explore the topic of pause in order to better understand the situation in sight translation, and hopefully this may bring insights into the reasons behind different types of pauses and shed some light on sight translation training.

3 Methodology

The current study aims to seek answers to the following questions about pause in sight translation:

1. How would the syntactic complexity impacts the occurrence of pause in sight translation from English into Chinese?
2. Will student interpreters at different training stages show differences in pausing in sight translation? If so, how are the training effects displayed in pauses in sight translation?
3. Could lexical difficulty in source language be a major contributor to long pauses? Do the number of difficulty words in the source text correlate with frequency of long pauses?

To explore these research questions, a pilot research project was set up, and the details of the pilot project are presented below.

3.1 Participants

Altogether 20 participants were recruited for this pilot study, and all of them were native speakers of Chinese and spoke English as a second language. The participants were divided into two groups. The first group was made up of ten junior student interpreters (Group J), who just started postgraduate-level T&I training and were in their first semester of T&I study at the time of the data collection. The second group was made up of ten senior student interpreters (Group S), who already had NAATI Accreditation as Professional Mandarin/English Interpreters through an internal accreditation test. At the time of the data collection, participants in Group S on average had received one and a half years of postgraduate-level interpreting training and were in their final year of T&I study. It is important to point that, although with NAATI accreditation, participants in Group S had only limited professional practice due to the fact that they obtained the NAATI credentials in the middle of their studies and there was no training break after the accreditation. Therefore, it would be reasonable to identify the Group S participants as "senior student interpreters," rather than "professional interpreters." The recruitment criterion of having NAATI accreditation in Group S was to reinforce the group status of being "senior" among student interpreters. Gender was not a selection criterion in this project. A human research ethics approval had been obtained from the author's university before the data collection, with all participants consented to the data collection.

3.2 Experiment

Participants attended the experiment individually, following the same procedure. The first step was to take a vocabulary test, where students were asked to identify a list of words as "unknown," "unsure," and "known." All of the listed words came from the two sight translation texts that the participants were going to complete later. The vocabulary test aimed to check the lexical challenges that each participant might face during the sight translation, which will help addressing the third research question presented above—if lexical difficulty would be a major contributor to the pauses.

Following the vocabulary check, the participant would be given two sight translation tasks (see details of the texts in the following subsection). They were given 3 min to read each English text, and at the end of the reading time, they were asked to sight translate the text into Mandarin Chinese. The 3-min reading time aimed to control the potential variable of individual reading speed, and it is assumed that most of the participants should be able to finish reading of the text in 3 min at a speed no faster than 113 wpm.[2] While the participant was reading the text, the supervisor would check the result of the preceding vocabulary test, based on which some interview questions could be prepared to use later. While the participant was doing the sight translation, the supervisor would take notes about the handling of unknown or unsure words that were identified in the vocabulary test. Again, this was to help develop interview questions for later use.

After the participant finished a sight translation task, a retrospective interview would follow immediately. This step aimed to find how the participant dealt with the unknown and unsure words during the sight translation and if the participant paused due to not knowing the meaning of a word. This would provide qualitative information in addressing the third research question.

The whole experiment, including the participant's sight translation performance as well as the post-task interview, was audio-recorded.

3.3 Two Sight Translation Texts

Two English texts were used for the sight translation tasks, with 267 words in Text 1 and 341 in Text 2. Both texts were retrieved from the Internet and adapted for the purpose of this research. The two texts shared the same text type: They were know-how texts used to promote public knowledge about a common health-related issue. Text 1 gives general advice on how to prevent acne, whereas Text 2 gives general advice on how to use a rectal thermometer on babies. By using the texts of the same text type, the potential variable of "text type" could be controlled. The choice of the two subject domains were expected to also control another potential variable of "context knowledge" as both topics were something that the general public were familiar with. Furthermore, both texts were assessed in terms of lexical complexity, syntactic simplicity as well as readability by Coh-Metrix, a computational tool that measures texts in terms of different linguistic criteria (see Graesser et al. 2011). The testing result is presented in Table 1.

As shown in Table 1, Text 1 and 2 are very similar in terms of lexical complexity, but they are quite different in terms of syntactic simplicity: Based on the scores of a number of syntactic indicators including number of modifiers before a main verb and

[2]Research finds that advanced-level L2 readers with good comprehension skills read texts at 80–120 wpm to fulfill university course assignments (Grabe 2009).

Table 1 Coh-Metrix test results

	Text 1 score	Text 2 score	Description of scores
Lexical complexity	4.397	4.501	Word length, number of letters, mean
	0.717	0.726	Lexical diversity, type-token ratio, content word lemmas
	0.546	0.509	Lexical diversity, type-token ratio, all words
	583.123	571.433	Familiarity for content words, mean
	404.16	439.109	Concreteness for content words, mean
Syntactic simplicity	0.919	−0.225	Text easability, syntactic simplicity, z score, a negative z score indicate that the simplicity is below average
	81.86	41.29	Text easability, syntactic simplicity, percentile
	1.714	2.3	Left embeddedness, words before main verb, mean
	0.761	0.952	Number of modifiers per noun phrase, mean
Readability	70.076	62.291	Flesch reading ease, the higher the easier
	6.644	8.807	Flesch–Kincaid grade level, the higher the more difficult
	17.432	12.723	Coh-Metrix L2 Readability, the higher the easier

before a head noun, Text 1 is more simple than Text 2 in terms of syntactic complexity. Unsurprisingly, overall Text 2 is less readable than Text 1. Therefore, it is reasonable to argue that the two texts are similar in terms of lexical difficulty, but incomparable in terms of syntactic complexity as Text 2 is syntactically more difficult than Text 1. By choosing two texts of similar lexical difficulty but different syntactic complexity, the author aims to single out the independent variable "syntactic complexity," which is closely related to the first research question. It is also important to point out that, although the variable of "lexical difficulty" is controlled in the source texts, the difficult words to each individual participant cannot be controlled, which justifies the use of retrospective interviews in finding each individual case in dealing with unknown and unsure words.

3.4 Labelling the Pauses

The current study follows the criterion set by Dechert and Raupach (1980), where for a break to be considered a pause, it has to have a minimum duration of 0.3 s. Following the data collection, all the audios were exported to version 2.3.1 of Audacity, a

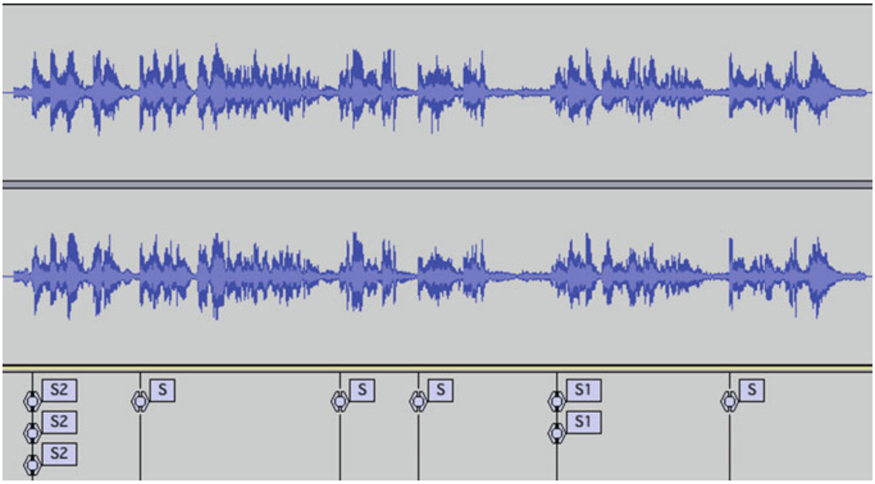

Fig. 1 Example labelling of pauses using audacity

recording and editing software[3] with which recordings of the sight translation performance were visualized and pauses longer than 0.3 s were identified and labelled. In the current study, the analysis will focus on the unfilled pauses, also known as silent pauses.

Altogether three groups of silent pauses were labelled based on their durations: Pauses between 0.3 and 1 s are short pauses (labelled as “S”); pauses between 1 and 2 s are recognized as pauses of medium length (labelled as “S1”; pauses longer than 2 s are recognized as long pauses (labelled as “S2”). A screenshot of the labelling on Audacity is presented below (see Fig. 1):

Following the labelling of pauses in terms of duration, the groups of S1 pauses and S2 pauses were examined further and categorized according to their positions in the texts: “Segmentation pause_S1” are those S1 pauses that occurred at a clause boundary; “Segmentation pause_S2” are S2 pauses that occurred at a clause boundary; correspondingly, “Nonsegmentation_pause_S1” and “Nonsegmentation_pause_S2” refer to those S1 and S2 pauses that occurred in the middle of a clause, such as those after a subject, or before a predicator, which are also known as non-grammatical pauses (see Sect. 2.1).

Based on the findings in the interviews, another group of pauses were identified and labelled as “Lexical_pause_S1 + S2,” which refer to those S1 and S2 pauses that were related to the participant’s not knowing or being unsure of the meaning of a word in the text.

[3] Audacity® software is copyright © 1999–2019 Audacity Team. The name Audacity® is a registered trademark of Dominic Mazzoni.

3.5 Data Analysis

Following the labelling of the pauses, the raw quantitative data were then normalized—this step is necessary when the two texts are different in length and in the number of clauses. Pauses of S, S1, S2, segmentation S1 and S2 pauses, and non-segmentation S1 and S2 pauses were all normalized by using the same formula: *raw pause count/total clause count* × 100. The normalized data were then exported to SPSS for statistical analysis (see IBM 2017). Two independent variables are identified in the analysis: Text (Text 1 vs. Text 2), and Group (Group J vs. Group S). Due to the small size of the samples collected and the finding of a preliminary analysis that the data were not normally distributed, non-parametric statistical tests were adopted in the analysis (see details in Sect. 4).

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Syntactic Complexity and Pauses

As the distribution of the data is found to be non-parametric, median value, rather than mean value, will be used in the analysis. To address the first research question on how the syntactic complexity would impact the occurrence of pauses, a Mann–Whitney U test is used to test if the independent variable of Text (Text 1 vs. Text 2) brings any effect to the dependent variables of S, S1, and S2. The test results are presented in Table 2.

As shown in Table 2, the test reveals a significant difference between Text 1 and 2 in the frequency of S pauses (i.e., pauses with duration between 0.3 and 1 s): Text 1 Md = 150, $n = 20$; Text 2 Md = 185.87, $n = 20$; U = 286; $p = 0.020$. Similarly, significant difference is also achieved in the frequency of pauses with duration between 1 and 2 s (i.e., S1 pauses): Text 1 Md = 25.58, $n = 20$; Text 2

Table 2 Test results on pauses by text

Pauses	Text	Median	Number of cases	Mann–Whitney U	Exact sig.* (2-sided test)
Normalized_pauses_S	Text 1	150.00	20	286	0.020
	Text 2	185.87	20		
Normalized_pauses_S1	Text 1	25.58	20	277	0.037
	Text 2	35.87	20		
Normalized_pauses_S2	Text 1	4.65	20	259	0.108
	Text 2	13.04	20		

*The significance level is 0.05. Exact significance is displayed for this test

Md = 35.87, $n = 20$; U = 277; $p = 0.037$. However, the test reveals no significant difference in the frequency of pauses longer than 2 s (S2 pauses): Text 1 Md = 4.65, $n = 20$; Text 2 Md = 13.04, $n = 20$; U = 259.50; $p = 0.108$.

The test results above indicate that the independent variable of "Text," which represents two different syntactic complexities, has an effect on some pauses in sight translation. In particular, pauses of short and medium length below 2 s (i.e., S and S1 pauses) are more likely to be impacted by the syntactic complexity of the text than pauses longer than 2 s (i.e., S2 pauses). A possible explanation is that perhaps the interpreters were trying to control the occurrence of long pauses in each text as a long pause was widely seen as an indicator of non-fluency and therefore should be minimized in any case. Also, it is worth noting that the median frequencies of all types of pauses show the same tendency: pauses with various durations all occurred more frequently in Text 2 than in Text 1. This indicates that a text with higher syntactic complexity is more likely to cause pauses in any case, no matter if it is a short pause of only 0.3 s, a medium pause of 1 s, or a pause longer than 2 s. And, the impact is particularly marked on the pauses in short and medium lengths.

4.2 Training Effect on Pauses

To explore the second research question on the training effect on the occurrence of pauses, three Mann–Whitney U tests have been conducted. In the first test, the independent variable is Group (Group J vs. Group S), and the dependent variables are S pauses, S1 pauses, and S2 pauses. This is to see if overall there is any group difference in taking pauses with various durations. The second test takes a step further by testing the effect of the independent variables of Group (Group J vs. Group S) and Text (Text 1 vs. 2) on the dependent variables of pauses with three durations (S, S1 and S2 pauses), and finally, the third test aims to investigate if training has an impact on the frequency of segmentation and non-segmentation pauses of medium and long duration (i.e., S1 and S2 pauses).

Table 3 presents the results of the first Mann–Whitney U test on group difference in pauses of three types of durations. As shown in Table 3, Group J and Group S show a significant difference in terms of pauses with all three types of durations (U = 101.50; $p = 0.007$ in S pauses; U = 100, $p = 0.006$ in S1 pauses; U = 101.50, $p = 0.007$ in P2 pauses). Participants in Group S, who on average had 1.5 years longer training than Group J participants, had significantly fewer pauses, and the difference has been found to exist in short (Group J Md = 179.35, Group S Md = 145.35), medium (Group J Md = 33.67, Group S Md = 18), and long pauses (Group J Md = 12.34, Group S Md = 2.33). This indicates that training has had some remarkable effects on reducing the frequency of pauses in all types of durations, which is probably due to that senior student interpreters, after intensive training and practice, become quicker in cognitive processing during the sight translation, and therefore, less pauses occurred.

Table 3 Test results on distributions of pauses by group

Pauses in both texts	Group	Median	Number of cases	Mann–Whitney U	Exact sig.* (2-sided test)
Normalized_pauses_S	Group J	179.35	20	101.50	0.007
	Group S	145.35	20		
Normalized_pauses_S1	Group J	33.67	20	100.00	0.006
	Group S	18.00	20		
Normalized_pauses_S2	Group J	12.34	20	101.50	0.007
	Group S	2.33	20		

*The significance level is 0.05. Exact significance is displayed for this test

The following discussion will take one step further to explore if the group difference found above also exists in texts with different syntactic complexity. Table 4 presents the results of the Mann–Whitney U test on pauses of various duration in Text 1 by group, and Table 5 presents the results in Text 2:

Table 4 Test results on pauses in Text 1 by group

Text 1 pauses	Group	Median	Number of cases	Mann–Whitney U	Exact sig.* (2-sided test)
Normalized_pauses_S	Group J	168.60	10	20.5	0.023
	Group S	134.88	10		
Normalized_pauses_S1	Group J	29.07	10	24.5	0.052
	Group S	16.28	10		
Normalized_pauses_S2	Group J	5.81	10	25	0.063
	Group S	2.33	10		

*The significance level is 0.05. Exact significance is displayed for this test

Table 5 Test results on pauses in Text 2 by group

Text 2 pauses	Group	Median	Number of cases	Mann–Whitney U	Exact sig.* (2-sided test)
Normalized_pauses_S	Group J	197.83	10	25	0.063
	Group S	161.96	10		
Normalized_pauses_S1	Group J	40.22	10	23.5	0.043
	Group S	20.65	10		
Normalized_pauses_S2	Group J	14.13	10	24.5	0.052
	Group S	5.43	10		

*The significance level is 0.05. Exact significance is displayed for this test

Results in Table 4 indicate that in the sight translation of Text 1, there is a significant difference between the junior student interpreters (Group J) and the senior student interpreters in taking short pauses between 0.3 and 1 s (S pauses): Group J Md = 168.60, $n = 10$; Group S Md = 134.88, $n = 10$; U = 20.5; $p = 0.023$. However, no significant group difference is found in the S1 and S2 pauses. But, it is worth noting that the difference in the medium pauses (S1) is approaching significance (U = 24.5, $p = 0.052$). In the case of Text 2 (see Table 5), a significant group difference is found in the S1 pauses only (U = 23.5, $p = 0.043$), but the difference in the S2 pauses is also approaching significance (U = 24.5, $p = 0.052$). The results bring the following indications. Firstly, in dealing with an easy text as Text 1, senior student interpreters with longer training have significantly fewer short pauses than junior student interpreters. Secondly, as the sight translation task becomes syntactically more challenging in Text 2, the group difference becomes more significant in the medium pauses—the senior student interpreters are found to have significantly fewer S1 pauses than their junior counterparts. It brings the implication that the effect of training can be demonstrated in reduced pauses of medium length when the sight translation task is syntactically complex.

In the following discussion, I will focus on longer pauses (S1 and S2 pauses) and examine if training has any effect on the syntactic positions when these longer pauses occurred. Table 6 presents the results of Mann–Whitney U test of group effects on

Table 6 Test results on S1 and S2 pauses by group

Pauses in both texts	Group	Median	Number of cases	Mann–Whitney U	Exact sig.* (2-sided test)
Normalized_segmentation_pause_S1	Group J	22.50	20	145.50	0.142
	Group S	13.50	20		
Normalized_segmentation_pause_S2	Group J	8.70	20	124.50	0.040
	Group S	3.33	20		
Normalized_Nonsegmentation_pause_S1	Group J	15.22	20	75.50	0.000
	Group S	3.34	20		
Normalized_Nonsegmentation_pause_S2	Group J	2.33	20	100.50	0.006
	Group S	0.00	20		

*The significance level is 0.05. Exact significance is displayed for this test

S1 and S2 pauses that occurred in terms of syntactic positions (Segmentation pauses vs. non-segmentation pauses):

Results in Table 6 indicates the difference between the two groups in the long segmentation S2 pauses is significant (U = 124.5, $p = 0.040$), and also highly significant in the non-segmentation pauses of both S1 (U = 75.50, $p = 0.000$) and S2 (U = 100.50, $p = 0.006$). But, the difference in the S1 segmentation pauses fails to achieve a significance.

The insignificant difference in the segmentation pauses between 1 and 2 s (i.e., S1 segmentation pauses) indicates that interpreters, disregarding their training background, show the similar tendency of taking a pause of medium length at a grammatical boundary. However, when the pauses become longer, the difference between the two groups is widened. Senior student interpreters are found to have significantly fewer long segmentation pauses (S2 segmentation pauses) than junior student interpreters (Group J Md = 8.7, Group S Md = 3.33). This implies that, after training, student interpreters in Group S may become more pause-sensitive in that they try to control the duration of pauses after finishing translating one clause and before moving onto the next. This may also mean that their cognitive processing is faster than the junior interpreters, which is reflected by fewer S2 pauses at the clause boundaries.

In terms of the non-segmentation pauses, as this type of pauses occurs at a non-grammatical juncture, rather than at the clause boundary, they are often viewed as indications of the interpreter's hesitation (cf., Cecot 2001). Therefore, ideally the interpreters should, if they can, control long pauses at these ungrammatical positions. Results in Table 5 indicates that the junior student interpreters in Group J were less capable of controlling longer pauses in the middle of a clause than their senior counterparts. This is probably because that the junior student interpreters met more lexicogrammatical challenges during the sight translation, and therefore, they experienced more hesitations in the process. This result is different from Yang and Deng's finding that no significant differences were found between novice and professional interpreters in the grammatical positions of their pauses (Yang and Deng 2011). More studies with larger size of data are needed to further explore the situation.

Another interesting finding in the results is that the senior student interpreters in Group S had significantly fewer long pauses (S2 pauses) than the junior student interpreters in terms of both segmentation (Group J Md = 8.70, Group S Md = 3.33) and non-segmentation pauses (Group J Md = 2.33, Group S Md = 0.00). There are two possible explanations about this difference in long pauses. Firstly, it might be because that, after training, student interpreters in Group S became more capable of controlling long pauses as they may have developed positive strategies in dealing with the syntactic challenges in the source text and were able to quickly find a solution (such as paraphrasing, omission, and so on) other than hesitating. Secondly, training and practice may have improved the language transfer skills of the Group S participants, and therefore, they took less time than the junior interpreters in finding a translation equivalent before moving on to the next clause.

In summary, in the current project, training clearly has had an impact on the occurrence of long pauses, especially in reducing pauses longer than 2 s, including both pauses at a grammatical juncture and those not at a grammatical juncture.

4.3 Unknown/Unsure Words and Pauses

To address the third research question, it is necessary to test if there is any potential correlation between unknown and unsure words and the frequency of longer pauses (S1 and S2 pauses). Although the Coh-Metrix assessment shows that the lexical complexity of Text 1 and 2 are similar (see Table 1), they could bring different levels of challenges to the interpreters due to individual differences in terms of vocabulary size. Therefore, to address the question, one needs to count the number of unknown and unsure words of each participant and the number of long pauses that were actually caused by these difficult lexical items. With the help of the pre-task vocabulary test and the post-task interview, the quantitative information becomes available for analysis.

Table 7 presents the count of unknown/unsure words (as raw data) being identified by each participant before the sight translation tasks, and the total number of S1 and S2 pauses (raw data) that occurred due to participant's hesitations over the unknown/unsure words during the sight translation [coded as "Total_lexical_pauses

Table 7 Total S1 and S2 pauses and S1 and S2 lexical pauses

Participant	Total_pauses (S1 + S2)	Total_lexical_pauses (S1 + S2)	Percentage (total S1 and S2 lexical pauses/total S1 and S2 pauses) (%)
P01	49	8	16.33
P02	46	9	19.57
P03	25	3	12.00
P04	45	5	11.11
P05	55	10	18.18
P06	50	1	2.00
P07	38	4	10.53
P08	18	2	11.11
P09	60	14	23.33
P10	58	7	12.07
P11	6	1	16.67
P12	29	0	0.00
P13	38	2	5.26
P14	22	0	0.00
P15	13	1	7.69
P16	3	0	0.00
P17	28	2	7.14
P18	13	1	7.69
P19	47	2	4.26
P20	52	2	3.85

Table 8 Test results on correlation between total S1 and S2 lexical pauses and total unknown/unsure words

Correlations				
			Total_lexical_pause (S1 + S2)	Unknown_unsure_words
Spearman's rho	Total_lexical_pause (S1 + S2)	Correlation coefficient	1.000	0.438
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	0.053
		N	20	20
	Unknown_unsure_words	Correlation coefficient	0.438	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.053	.
		N	20	20

(S1 + S2)"]. A percentage of the lexical S1 and S2 pauses to the total number of S1 and S2 pauses is also listed in the table (see Table 7).

As shown in Table 7, those S1 and S2 lexical pauses only make a very small percentage of the overall S1 and S2 pauses, with the highest percentage being 23.33% only (case of Participant P09). This indicates that the lexical challenge in the source text may not be the main contributor to the pauses longer than 1 s. There are two possible reasons behind this finding. On the one hand, it might be because that participants only had a limited number of unknown/unsure words to deal with, which makes the frequency of lexical pauses at a low level. On the other hand, it might be because the interpreters had found other ways to deal with these lexical challenges rather than making a pause.

To take a step further, a Spearman rho correlation test is conducted to examine if the number of unknown words being identified in the source text would be related to the number of S1 and S2 lexical pauses that occurred in the sight translation. The selection of Spearman rho test is based on the result of a preliminary analysis that the distribution of the data violates the assumption of normality. However, due to the fact that the sample size is small, such a test could only provide an implication if the two variables are likely to be correlated. Table 8 presents the correlation test result:

Based on Cohen's guideline on interpreting the strength of relationship according to the correlation coefficient (Cohen 1988: 79), the result in Table 8 indicates a moderate positive correlation between the number of lexical pauses (S1 + S2) and the number of unknown/unsure words ($r = 0.438$).[4] Together with the significance level ($p = 0.053$), it is found that the two variables are only moderately correlated, and one's confidence in their correlation fails to reach a significant level. Furthermore, given that the sample size is very small ($n = 20$), it is very hard to conclude that a possible correlation exists between the two variables. In other words, one cannot say

[4] According to Cohen's guideline, a correlation coefficient between 0.30 and 0.49 indicates a medium correlation (Cohen 1988, pp. 79–81).

with confidence that there is a correlation between the number of lexical pauses and the number of unknown/unsure words.

The statistical findings above brings some interesting interpretations. Firstly, compared with the findings in Sect. 4.1 that syntactic complexity has a significant impact on the occurrence of S and S1 pauses, lexical difficulty in the source text does not seem to have the same level of influence on pauses. In fact, it is found that, although most of the participants had encountered some unknown/unsure words in the source texts, the longer pauses (S1 and S2 pauses) related to the struggles with these difficult words do not make a large part of the S1 and S2 pauses overall. So, the lexical difficulty in the source text cannot be deemed as a major contributor to the S1 and S2 pauses during sight translation. Secondly, it is also found that the frequency of S1 and S2 lexical pauses seems to be in a moderate correlation with the number of unknown/unsure words to the interpreters, but the statistical confidence in such a correlation cannot be ensured. This indicates that although the interpreters may pause over an unknown/unsure word, they may also respond in ways other than pausing when dealing with the difficult words. Coming across a difficult lexical item during the sight translation does not necessarily lead to a S1 or S2 pause. In fact, the retrospective interviews showed that interpreters had used various strategies to avoid getting stuck on an unknown word in silence.

According the interviews, when encountering an unknown or unsure word during the sight translation, participants generally responded in two ways: they either omitted the translation of the difficult word, or tried to work out a meaning through inference. And pauses may, or may not, co-occur with these responses, depending on how quickly the interpreter was able to make a decision. Two example responses from a participant can demonstrate the situation:

Example of Omission

Background: A participant from Group J indicated in the English vocabulary test that she did not know the phrase "acne valgaris.". And later, she omitted the item in the sight translation.

Participant's explanation: "*I guess it probably means the same as* "*common acne*", *but I cannot think of another name for* "*acne*" *in Chinese. Anyway, it's something in the brackets, so I think it's fine to leave it out*".

Example of Inference

Background: A participant from Group S indicated in the English vocabulary test that she did not know the word "exfoliate". However, she accurately rendered this word in different places in the first source text.

Participant's explanation: "*I didn't know the word. But through reading, I knew the whole text was about looking after your skin, and in the last paragraph the advice was to exfoliate once a week. After reading this, I realised immediately what this word meant because removing dead skin is a routine normally done once a week*".

It seems obvious that, when coming across a difficult lexical item in the source text, the interpreters went through some decision-making process within a very short time.

And such decision-making either took place during the reading of the text or during the sight translating process. However, it is beyond the scope of the current chapter to explore the situation in detail.

5 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have investigated pause in sight translation, a common phenomenon that exists among student interpreters during sight translation. By analyzing data collected from two groups of student interpreters, I aim to explore three research questions surrounding pause in relation to syntactic complexity, training, and lexical difficulty in source texts.

In terms of the impact of syntactic complexity on the frequency of pauses, it is found that the former has a significant effect on the occurrence of short pauses (i.e., S pauses between 0.3 and 1 s), as well as the medium S1 pauses (between 1 and 2 s). Although participants are also found to have more long pauses (above 2 s) in sight translating Text 2 with higher syntactic complexity than Text 1, the difference is not significant. A possible explanation would be that perhaps interpreters tried to avoid taking long pauses as much as they could, as it indicates non-fluency.

In terms of the training effect on pauses, it is found that, across both sight translation texts, senior student interpreters in Group S had significantly fewer pauses in all types of durations than the junior student interpreters in Group J. It is also found that in the sight translation of a simple text (Text 1), interpreters in Group S had much fewer short pauses (S pauses) than Group J. And in the sight translation of a more complex text (Text 2), significant difference between the two groups is only found in the pauses with medium duration (S1 pauses). Senior student interpreters are also found to have much fewer long segmentation pauses (S2 segmentation pauses) than junior student interpreters, and also significantly fewer non-segmentation pauses with both medium and long durations.

In terms of pause and its correlation with difficult lexical items, it is found that unknown and unsure words in the source texts are not the main contributor to longer pauses in the sight translation. Interpreters were found to adopt various strategies in dealing with difficult words instead of getting stuck in silence.

Despite the findings above, the current project also has its limitations. For example, as a pilot study, the size of the data is small. It would be interesting to expand the project to include a larger group of interpreters, in which way a more comprehensive picture of the pauses in sight translation could be revealed. Also, the investigation on the impact of syntactic complexity of the source text could be more robust if more texts could be used in the experiments.

By approaching the topic of pause in sight translation from three different angles, the current research aims to bring new perspectives into the topic, as well as meaningful implications on sight translation training. More work is needed on this topic, through which interpreter trainers and researchers will develop a better understanding about pauses, so they could be controlled in a strategic manner.

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