AN OVERVIEW OF UNDERGRADUATE TRANSLATOR-TRAINING CURRICULA IN TURKEY: WHAT WE TEACH TO FUTURE TRANSLATORS

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Abstract

This paper provides an overview of curricula in translator-training programs at the undergraduate level in Turkey. Translation competence models are used as a framework in this study to categorize curricular components in training programs. Each course in a program is placed under a category of competence in view of the dominant learning outcome it sets out to achieve. What is actually taught in the classroom may not always be concordant with the written curriculum. The written curriculum, however, provides a point of departure to describe what has been taught in translator-training programs. The findings suggest that undergraduate translator-training programs today include components that assumedly respond to each and every area of competence, with greater emphasis on foreign-language and translation skills. Yet, inclusion does not always mean *integration* of competences into the curriculum. There is a need to conduct surveys and interviews with trainers, learners and graduates to investigate the *integration* of competences.

Key words: translator training, translator-training curriculum, translation competence, market needs, Turkey

1. INTRODUCTION

Translator training in university settings has a history of over three decades in Turkey. Today, translator training has been offered at different levels from associate's to doctoral degree in over thirty higher-education institutions. With the proliferation of translator-training programs, there have been growing discussions on the structure, content and functioning of these programs, especially in relation to the quality of training and their response to market needs. To contribute to these discussions, the present study provides an overall evaluation of the curricula of undergraduate translator-training programs in Turkey. Although the number of associate's and Master's degree programs in translation has been increasing, four-year undergraduate programs are still the main workforce providers to the translation market and have the longest history in translator training. The curricular content and structure of translation programs have recently been revised mainly due to the alignment of the Turkish higher education with the Bologna process.

With the inception of the Bologna process in 1999 by 29 countries and with the involvement of 18 other countries in the process in 2000s, higher education has been undergoing changes, particularly with respect to the basic structure (i.e. division between Bachelor's and Master's degrees). The target

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of the Bologna process was to set up the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) in 2010. The Bologna process has induced universities in participating countries to renew their curricula in line with restructuring and quality-assurance guidelines, mainly with a view to facilitating the mobility of students across Europe thanks to the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS). Turkey was involved in the Bologna process since 2001. Since then, the Turkish higher education institutions have redefined their strategic plans, program outcomes, learning outcomes and the qualifications expected of graduates. Within this restructuring process, the higher education institutions have been reviewing and revising their curriculum content. This paper sets out to describe the current state related to (mostly renewed) curriculum of translator-training programs, without a historical perspective. Translation competence models are used as a framework in this study to categorize the components of training programs. To this end, some of the existing translation competence models are first defined with greater emphasis on the Process in the Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation (PACTE) model (see for example 2000, 2003, 2009).

The written curricula of training programs constitute the research data of this study. An overt, written curriculum is the only element that makes a program content visible to outsiders. Undoubtedly, what is actually taught in the classroom may not always be concordant with the written curriculum. The written curriculum however provides a point of departure to describe

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what has been taught in translator-training programs. For the purpose of this study, the courses in the undergraduate curricula of Turkish translator-training programs are placed under appropriate competence areas. Then, ECTS credits of these courses were calculated to find the weight of each competence – as defined by means of curricular components – in training programs. After a short overview of translation competence models defined in 2000s, the study discusses each competence area individually with reference to the courses taught in Turkish translator-training programs at the undergraduate level.

2. TRANSLATION COMPETENCE MODELS: A BRIEF OVERVIEW

Translation Studies does not have a widely accepted model of competence. This is probably because all models proposed so far lack empirical support (Orozco and Albir, 2002; Pym, 2009; Göpferich, 2009). Translation competence and the acquisition of translation competence have nevertheless been one of the most discussed topics in the discipline (for some of the existing models, see PACTE, 2000 and 2003; Neubert, 2000; Kelly, 2005; Tan 2008; EMT, 2009; Göpferich, 2009; and for a description of some of the existing translation competence definitions and models, see Pym, 2003; Göpferich, 2009). Researchers usually tend to divide competence into sub-competences to deal individually with each and with regard to

their relations with each other (Schäffner and Adab, 2000, p. ix). These multicomponent models are criticized for being "partly grounded in institutional interests" and "conceptually flawed in that they will always be one or two steps behind market demands" (Pym, 2003, p. 481) on one hand, and are found useful for ensuring "greater transparency of professional profile in study programmes, greater emphasis on the outcome of learning, more flexibility and a greater integration of all aspects of curriculum" (Hurtado Albir, 2007, p. 165), if used in training, on the other hand. Competence grids are adopted in this paper to have a general idea about what is taught and how much of any component is taught in translator-training programs.

PACTE has been one of the pioneering initiatives to define translation competence based on empirical research. The group attempts to bring an empirical-experimental approach to competence definitions whereas other models are mostly based on observation and experience (PACTE, 2003, p. 49). The PACTE research group has been carrying out empirical studies to investigate the acquisition of translation competence. The group proposed a holistic translation competence model in 1998 (PACTE, 2000) and redefined this model in the light of their tests in 2000 (PACTE, 2003). The redefined model of translation competence comprises five sub-competences (bilingual, extra-linguistic, knowledge about translation, instrumental and strategic) and in addition psycho-physiological components (PACTE, 2003, p. 58-60; also in PACTE, 2005, 2008, 2009,

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2010, 2011a and 2011b). The translation competence categories suggested in 2000s by Neubert (2000), Kelly (2005), EMT (2009) and Göpferich (2009) also support the PACTE model. The framework of competences used to categorize curricular components in this study is provided below:

Bilingual sub-competence (language competence in EMT and Kelly, communicative competence in Göpferich, and language + textual competence in Neubert) is the knowledge and skills that translators need in order to communicate effectively in their working languages. The competence covers not only communication skills in working languages but also linguistic knowledge required for text analysis and generation. For the purpose of this study, bilingual competence is linked with the courses that equip trainees with 1) communication skills, i.e. grammatical, lexical, speaking, writing, listening and reading skills in working languages, and 2) knowledge on linguistics as a scientific discipline.

Extra-linguistic sub-competence in PACTE, which corresponds to thematic competence + intercultural competence in EMT, domain competence in Göpferich, subject-area competence + cultural competence in Kelly, and subject competence + cultural competence in Neubert, has three aspects: "(1) bicultural knowledge (about the source and target cultures; (2) encyclopaedic knowledge (about the world in general); (3) subject knowledge (in special areas)" (PACTE, 2003, p. 59).

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Training programs offer introductory knowledge in various areas "with the aim of students acquiring sufficient basic knowledge to understand the major concepts in specialized texts, and to carry out in-depth documentary research for translation in a meaningful way" (Kelly 2005: 77). While other models involve (inter-) cultural competence as an area of competence in its own right, PACTE has placed acquisition of cultural skills under extra-linguistic sub-competence. To gain and improve intercultural skills, learners need both encyclopedic knowledge and direct contact with the given culture.

Instrumental sub-competence (information mining competence + technological competence in EMT, tools and research competence in Göpferich, and instrumental competence in Kelly) also has two aspects. One of them is related to general and translation-specific technology skills, and the other one is concerned with documentation and research skills.

Knowledge about translation sub-competence (translation service provision competence in EMT, translation activation routine competence in Göpferich, and professionalization + interpersonal competence in Kelly), according to PACTE's definition, involves knowledge about how translation functions (translation units, strategies, processes and so on) and knowledge about the translation profession with regard to more market-related issues. The definition of EMT is similar to PACTE's, where the product dimension is close to knowledge

about the act of translating and interpersonal dimension is related to knowledge about the profession. For the purpose of this study, this sub-competence is restricted exclusively to the courses related to *professional* aspect of translation. Components related to the process and act of translating are placed under the category of strategic competence.

Strategic sub-competence (strategic competence in Göpferich, unitization/ networking in Kelly, and transfer competence in Neubert) is of particular importance as a sort of meta-competence that links other sub-competences to manage a translation task and solve translation problems. Rather than defining it as a separate component, EMT refers to this competence in the product dimension of their translation service provision competence. The functions of this sub-competence are:

> (1) to plan the process and carry out the translation project (choice of the most adequate method); (2) to evaluate the process and the partial results obtained in relation to the final purpose; (3) to activate the different sub-competencies and compensate for deficiencies in them; (4) to identify translation problems and apply procedures to solve them. (PACTE, 2003, p. 59)

Table 2.1 provides a comparison of translation competence models summarized here.

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Table 2.1 Translation competence models compared (Yılmaz-Gümüş, 2013, p. 82)

Competence models Curricular components	Neubert (2000)	PACTE (2003)	Kelly (2005)	EMT (2009)	Göpferich (2009)
Language	Language+ textual	Bilingual	Language	Language	Communicative
Extra-linguistic	Subject+ cultural	Extra-linguistic	Subject-area+ cultural	Thematic+ intercultural	Domain
Technology	---	Instrumental	Instrumental	Information mining+ technological	Tools and research
Professional work procedures	---	Knowledge about translation	Professionalization+ interpersonal	Interpersonal dimension (in translation service provision)	Translation activation routine
Translation theory and practice	Transfer	Strategic	Unitization/ networking	Translation service provision	Strategic

Despite the close link between competences and curricula, curriculum design is certainly not the only factor that plays a role in curriculum design. There are several other factors that affect the curriculum design, including available resources, learner profile and motivation, and trainer profile and motivation, in addition to competences that learners are desired to acquire during training. However, considering that competence acquisition is supposed to be one of several factors considered in curriculum design, this study uses competence models as a framework for an analysis of main components in translator-training curricula at the undergraduate level.

3. THE SITUATION IN TRANSLATOR-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS IN TURKEY

Translator training at the university level started in the first half of 1980s, and has accelerated particularly in the early 2000s, in parallel with the increase in universities opened by foundations (informally known as private universities) in the Turkish higher education system. The 2015 guide of Turkey's Evaluation, Selection and Placement Center (ÖSYM) for the selection and placement of students to higher-training institutions lists 30 universities (15 state and 15 foundation universities) that offer translator and interpreter training for a four-year undergraduate degree. These universities offer about 50 programs in seven language combinations. For the purpose of this study, the curriculum used in translation and interpreting programs in English, and if there is not an English program, the curriculum used in other language programs are taken into consideration. The analysis is based on the curricula of programs in 29 universities that were either available on the program website or requested directly from academics in the program. I was not able to obtain the curricula of translator-training programs in one university.

I went through the curricula of these programs and placed each course in the curriculum under one of the areas of competence defined above. As argued by Kelly (2005: 78), the defined (sub)

competences "never constitute individual modules on a training programme", but they are linked with the learning outcomes of many modules. Based on course descriptions, I specified the predominant competence that learners are expected to acquire after receiving each course. I took the ECTS credits of courses into consideration to have an idea about the weight of each competence area in the curriculum.

The following points were taken into consideration in the curricular overview of undergraduate translator-training programs:

- In Turkish universities, there is not a distinction between translator and interpreter training at the undergraduate level. Students of all programs graduate as both translators and interpreters from the departments named either Translation and Interpreting, or Translation Studies. However, for the purpose of this study, interpreting courses (e.g. "Consecutive Interpreting", "Simultaneous Interpreting") and relevant courses (e.g. "Note Taking", "Sight Translation") are not taken into consideration, as the focus of the study is exclusively on translation. In some programs, students get specialized in either translation or interpreting in the final year of study, where the curriculum is divided into two tracks – translation and interpreting. In such a case, the courses in

> the translation track of the program are included in the study.
>
> - Turkish language and Turkish history courses, compulsory for all undergraduate students in Turkish universities, are not taken into consideration. Some universities have components that all students are required to take, e.g. "Orientation", "Introduction to University Life", "Entrepreneurship", which were also excluded from the study.
>
> - The main focus of this study is on compulsory courses. However, the weight and diversity of elective courses have been increased in the curricula because of the requirements arising with the Bologna process. Electives offered in the program are also mentioned, when required.

The curriculum analysis provides the following results with respect to each area of competence:

3.1   Language Competence

Needless to say, bilingual competence is a must for translation. Translation and language learning had been interrelated and gone hand-in-hand for years until grammar translation lost its popularity in language pedagogy on one hand, and Translation

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Studies declared its independence as a field in its own right on the other hand. However, there is a need to rediscuss and reassess the relationship and interaction between translation and language teaching. In Translation Studies, believing that translation competence goes beyond speaking two languages does not mean disdaining the role of language learning in translation. An overview of translator-training programs in Turkey suggests that the main focus of translation teaching has still been on teaching the foreign language, given that Turkish students do not always enter programs with the expected and desirable level of foreign language. Foreign-language teaching has been one of the most debated issues in the Turkish education system from primary to higher education. Researchers refer to a broad array of factors that explain why we fail to reach the expected level in foreign-language teaching and learning, including problems related to teacher training (e.g. admission of future teachers to education faculties, practical experience during training, combining subject area knowledge with pedagogy, future trainers' anxieties related to career opportunities and professional status, as summarized by Takkaç, 2012, p. 53), learners' low level of motivation (mainly due to problems in teaching methods, teachers' quality and learners' prejudices), and education and language policies of the country. Furthermore, students are admitted to undergraduate translation programs based on their foreign-language score in the nationwide university entrance examination, which is a

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multiple-choice test assessing student performance in several
subjects. Student getting prepared to study translation focus on
developing multiple-choice question skills. However, translation
requires more specialized skills that allow students to generate
texts in two languages (Eruz, 2003, p. 98). After being admitted
to a translator-training program, students take foreign-language
proficiency tests. Students failing the tests study in a preparatory
program in the said foreign language before starting the first year
of translation program. However, Eruz (2003, p. 99) notes that
these programs must be redesigned to fulfill the needs of
translation students. Considering these factors, it may be
acceptable that language teaching, especially foreign-language
teaching, is still a significant component of translator-training
programs.

This study has shown that there are three types of courses that
are designed to improve translation students' language skills.
Table 3.1 provides the distribution of these three language
competence areas in undergraduate translator-training programs
in Turkey. The courses in the first category (L_1) aim to develop
students' skills in the language pair they study in the program.
Although bilingual or multilingual competence is the keystone
in translation, there has been less emphasis in translation
research on the place of language learning/teaching in translator
training. This is probably because students are expected to enter
translator-training programs with competence in at least two
languages. However, this is not always the case. In

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undergraduate translator-training programs in Turkey, the credits of compulsory language courses constitute four percent to thirty percent of the curriculum, given that students are required to achieve 240 credits (ECTS) to complete the study. All training programs offer language courses as compulsory components. It may thus be concluded that one of the main concerns of translator training has still been improving language competence of students, with specific emphasis on the development of B language. The curricula of all 29 programs offer courses to improve mainly writing and speaking skills in B language, and in some cases, courses on reading and listening skills in B language with focus on advanced language use. Specifically designed for translation students, language courses are mostly delivered by trainers in the program. In addition to generic courses such as "Speaking", "Writing" and "Oral Comprehension", the components such as "(Contrastive) Grammar", "Text and Composition" and "Academic Writing" are also included in this competence category. The aim of those components are also to improve communicative skills in B language. B-language teaching is particularly important in countries such as Turkey, where translation into B language is quite common. A translation agency owner reported that half of their translation work was from Turkish into B language (Yılmaz-Gümüş, 2013, p. 195). Therefore, as Beeby (2003, p. 42) suggests B-language learning requires particular attention in translator training in consideration of contextual factors (i.e.

learners' profiles, language policies in the country, degree of translation into B language, market needs, etc.).

There is less but growing concern on the enhancement of A-language skills of students for translation purposes. Although I do not have an overall survey of previous translation curricula, my personal experience and informal talks with senior trainers demonstrate that A-language skills were rarely the concern of translator-training programs. While bilingual competence is considered the cornerstone of translation, "[e]nhancement of the mother tongue is just as important as, if not more than, that of the foreign language" (Li, 2001, p. 349), preferably with the support of courses specifically designed for translators. Not specific to Turkey, translator-training programs have commonly underestimated first language proficiency in their attempts to boost students' language skills. In Turkey, all students admitted to a higher-education program receive an obligatory "Turkish Language and Literature" course for two semesters. Nevertheless, not designed explicitly to improve language competence for translation purposes, this course is not expected to contribute considerably to first language proficiency required for translation. The programs have recently started offering courses that lay emphasis on A language. Sixteen programs contain Turkish courses specifically designed for translators, i.e. fourteen as compulsory and two as elective courses. Moreover, thirteen programs include comparative grammar, comparative syntax or comparative language studies courses to familiarize

students with similarities and differences between their A and B languages.

The second point related to language competence is teaching linguistics (L_2) in translator-training programs. Twenty-five out of twenty-nine programs included in this study offer linguistics courses at various levels ranging from introductory or general linguistics to more specific linguistic modules such as etymology or syntax, mostly in the form of compulsory curricular components. For Malmkjær (2009, p. 5), the tendency in Translation Studies to focus on linguistics is not surprising given that the major concern in translation is texts, although Translation Studies today has many other interests. Thus, in translator-training programs, linguistics courses serve text analysis as well as language teaching purposes.

The final category of language-related courses in curricula is C language (L_3). The majority of translator training programs in Turkey work with a single language pair, i.e. Turkish in combination with a foreign language, which is specified in the guide of Turkey's Evaluation, Selection and Placement Center (ÖSYM). There are only two programs that declare to have three working languages from the very beginning of training (the programs at Bilkent and Kafkas universities). However, all other programs teach a second foreign language, in some cases at the level required for translation from a C language. In the example of Hacettepe University, the programs offer translation and

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interpreting training in two foreign languages to students that fulfill certain criteria, while, for instance, Istanbul University programs extend C language teaching to the entire period of study for all students. The point to consider here is that students generally enter the program with a certain level of proficiency in B language, and start learning C language in the program.

Table 3.1 provides the breakdown of language courses in translator-training programs.

Table 3.1 Language competence in undergraduate translator-training programs in Turkey

Language competence	Number of programs
L_1	A language – 16 programs (credits ranging between 2 and 10)
	B language – 29 programs (credits ranging between 5 and 64)
L_2	24 programs (credits ranging between 4 and 27)
L_3	29 programs (credits ranging between 12 and 58)

3.2   Extra-linguistic Competence

The courses that aim to develop extra-linguistic competence fall under two categories. In the first category, there are courses designed to furnish students with general world knowledge and specific knowledge on certain fields that commonly provide

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source texts on the translation market (EL_1). Translation practice has been involved in all fields of life as a mediator within a specific field and among various fields in different cultures. Thus, our knowledge of other disciplines certainly influences how we translate. Sharkas (2013, p. 52) suggests that subject knowledge acquired through prior documentary research may be an important tool for students to improve their specialized translation skills. From a historical perspective, until 1980s when the first translator-training programs were established in universities, translation was a part of language and literature programs, e.g. English Language and Literature. These programs produced graduates with a strong background in culture and literature to be employed, inter alia, as translators. When Translation Studies started to become a discipline on its own right and first university translation programs were launched in Turkey, curriculum was one of the major issues to be discussed as there were no previous examples of programs (Akbulut, 2016, p. 29). Since the first translator-training programs, major disciplines such as economics, politics and literature as well as culture have been a part of the curricula.

In Turkish programs, in some cases, subject-area knowledge is provided in parallel with specialized translation courses. Students receive, in separate courses, knowledge of a specific field and then specific translation skills required to translate texts related to field concerned. In some translator-training programs, specific field knowledge is incorporated into specialized

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translation courses. On the other hand, almost all programs offer introductory courses in a wide range of areas such as economics, law, psychology, journalism and media as both compulsory and elective components. In some programs, there has been a tendency to adopt a modular approach, with an effort to promote a sort of specialization in translator training. This approach, presently employed in a few programs (e.g. programs in Yeditepe and Istanbul universities), offer modules in various subject matters and entail students to choose a module/modules to enter the market with a certain level of specialization in the given field.

Literature has traditionally been the most or one of the most focused subject areas in translator-training programs. In the curricula examined here, twenty-two programs offer literature in its own right as a compulsory or elective component, in addition to literary translation courses. Another noteworthy point about subject areas is the emphasis on international organizations and the European Union, with about half of the translation programs offering courses on either or both of these subjects or on international politics, in most cases as an elective component. Furthermore, the programs offer some courses to enhance general world knowledge of students. Among these courses are history of civilization, making of the modern world, or cultural history.

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The second component of extra-linguistic competence is related to equipping translation students with knowledge of the culture of their working languages (EL_2). Kelly (2005, p. 74) states that it is possible, but not enough to acquire cultural competence through cultural information already available on the Internet and library resources. Direct contact is the alternative to descriptive knowledge of cultures. As a part of the European Higher Education Area, Turkish universities have mobility agreements with European universities. Both incoming and outgoing students provide a ground for cultural exchange. However, as this sort of exchange is still confined to a few students each semester, students need to acquire cultural knowledge in their traditional training setting. Eighteen programs involve courses on cultures of program languages. Obviously, cultural competence cannot be confined to the courses that involve the word "culture" in their name, and is expected to be integrated into the entire curriculum, probably just like in the case of instrumental competence and knowledge about the profession. Nevertheless, for the sake of an overall curriculum evaluation, this competence area covers the courses focusing explicitly on respective cultures with titles such as "British and American Culture", "Modern Turkish Society", "Comparative Culture" and so on.

Table 3.2 presents the number of programs that offer compulsory courses targeted specifically at improving extra-linguistic competence, as well as the credits of compulsory courses.

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Table 3.2 Extra-linguistic competence in undergraduate translator-training programs in Turkey

Extra-linguistic competence	Number of programs
EL_1	24 programs (credits ranging between 5 and 24)
EL_2	16 programs (credits ranging between 3 and 19)

3.3 Instrumental Competence

Instrumental competence refers to the ability to use information technologies and other research and documentation tools in all stages of translation process. Almost all translation competence models suggested in 2000s involve technology as an individual competence area (see for example Kelly, 2005; PACTE, 2005, 2008; Tan, 2008; EMT, 2009; Rico, 2010). There have been discussions on what to teach in technology courses. For instance, Mossop (2003, p. 21) argues that students need basic skills to use Windows, Internet, e-mail and Word, and that they can learn the rest later, while EMT (2009) suggests that students are required to know:

> how to use effectively and rapidly and to integrate a range of software to assist in correction, translation, terminology, layout, documentary research (for example text processing, spell and grammar check, the internet,

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> translation memory, terminology database, voice
> recognition software),
> how to create and manage a database and files,
> how to adapt to and familiarise oneself with new tools,
> particularly for the translation of multimedia and
> audiovisual material,
> how to prepare and produce a translation in different
> formats and for different technical media,
> the possibilities and limits of MT.

Diverging to some extent from these maximalist and minimalist
approaches, Austermuehl (2013, p. 330-334) argues that it is
more important to develop over time revising skills and
documentation research skills rather than technological skills
related to computer-assisted translation or project management
tools, which may be gained more rapidly on the job. There is a
need to collect data from trainers and learners in order to be sure
whether different points of view on the teaching of translation
technology have been reflected in translator-training programs.

In the curricula examined here, there are two types of course
contents that may help students acquire this competence. In the
first place, eleven translator-training programs involve general
computer or information technologies courses to equip students
with basic skills (I_1). The content of these courses mainly
concentrates on the use of word processing tools, online means
of communication, and search engines. It is understandable that

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the majority of translator-training programs do not include course components on I_1 given that university students of today are digital natives equipped with computer skills. However, digital natives may still need computer skills specific to translation processes.

In the second category, there are courses where the focus is on translation technologies (I_2), especially translation memories, e.g. "Computer-Assisted (or Aided) Translation", "Translation Technologies", "Use of Computer Technologies in Translation", "Research Tools and Technology in Translation" and so on. The survey shows that nine programs offer these courses as compulsory components, nine programs offer as electives, and five programs have both elective and compulsory options. This category also includes the courses designed to teach research techniques or tools in translation.

A decade ago, Pym (2006, p. 114) observed that translation technologies, as course components, were placed toward the end of program, and were taught separately from translation courses. Students learned translating with pen and paper in the translation class and then with technologies in the technology class. Now, an overview of translator-training programs in Turkey reveals that there are no standards with regard to the semester(s) in which translation technologies are offered. The range is wide from third to eighth semesters, and the concentration is on fourth (six programs) and fifth (six programs) semesters. Furthermore,

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"no common approach to the course contents is adopted when it comes to TT [translation technologies]" (Şahin, 2013, p. 177).

Table 3.3 shows the credit range of courses related to the acquisition of instrumental competence.

Table 3.3 Teaching technology in undergraduate translator-training programs in Turkey

Technology	Number of programs
I_1	11 programs (credits ranging between 2 and 6)
I_2	23 programs (credits ranging between 4 and 16)

3.4   Knowledge about the Translation Profession

Together with instrumental competence, this is probably the main area that provides students with translator competence in addition to translation competence, as distinguished by Kiraly (2000). In PACTE's competence model, the sub-competence knowledge about translation includes mainly declarative knowledge about the translation process and aspects of the profession. However, in this study, the category mainly includes the courses that aim to support students' knowledge of translation profession and market, rather than knowledge of how to create a translation product.

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Translator training is defined as a "typically vocational activity which is often based in, and in other ways contingent on, academic settings" (Kearns 2008: 185), and Translation Studies is defined as a discipline "which has more of a vocational angle than many other language-based disciplines" (Anderman and Rogers, 2000, p. 69). The *vocational* aspect of translation emphasized in these definitions entail translator-training programs to familiarize students with the functioning of the translation market, where they are expected to act after graduation. This aspect has a quite large scope, including finding a job or finding clients (for freelancers), communicating with clients, pricing and invoicing a translation product, and being cognizant of professional standards and translators' rights. Based on Montané's occupational integration model, Torres-Hostench (2012, p. 792) contends that translation students – in her case, graduate students – need to get *knowledge* of the real translation market, i.e. how to enter the market, how to find clients, what clients expect and so on, to acquire *skills* required to be successful in the recruitment process, e.g. CV writing and getting prepared for an interview, and to develop *attitudes* for occupation such as "dedication, flexibility, professional maturity and professional self-esteem". Pym and Torres-Simón (2015) asked BA and MA students of translation what they would like to know about translation in courses titled "Overview of Translation Studies", "Lectures on Translation Studies", and "Introduction to Studies on Written Translation" offered in two

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institutions. More than half of students in one institution and more than one third of students in the other institutions desired to know about the translation profession, including money-related matters, entering the market, desirable skills, daily routines of translators, and relationships with clients.

In the Turkish context, knowledge about the translation profession is one of the relatively new components in the translator-training curricula. With the increasing number of translators (either graduates of university programs or others) on the market, the discussions on professionalism and regulation of the market have accelerated. Given the close link between academic training and the market, the parties are expected to support and nurture each other. Particularly with greater focus on the market in recent years, university programs observe the market and describe the problems to offer solutions to them in training contexts, support the attempts to establish professional associations, and cooperate with the market to enhance quality (Parlak, 2012, p. 69). One of the fruits of these efforts is the National Occupational Standards for Translators adopted in 2013. Universities and translator associations worked in cooperation for the development of these standards. The inclusion of courses related to the translation profession is an indicator of universities' efforts to train translators that have knowledge of the market before they enter the market, and hence to promote the translation profession.

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In the present study, the survey provides two types of components that are integrated into the curriculum to empower students in professional terms. The first and probably the most significant component is work placement (P_1), which has increasingly become a compulsory part of translator training in recent years. The survey of curricula shows that half of the departments have already incorporated the work placement component into the curriculum. While some programs have assigned ECTS credits to this component, some others only use pass/fail option to assess the placement process, without giving any letter grades and credits.

The second type of courses that contribute to professional empowerment of translation students is designed to provide students with mainly declarative knowledge, i.e. factual knowledge and information, on the translation profession and functioning of the translation market (P_2). Such components have been recently added to the curricula, and named, for example, "Translation Today", "Professional Translation Standards and Practices", "Professional Knowledge of Translation", "Legislation on the Translation Market" or even "Labor Law for Translators". Currently, ten translator-training programs include a course on the translation profession, some of which are offered as electives.

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Table 3.4 Knowledge about the profession in undergraduate translator-training programs in Turkey

Knowledge about the profession	Number of programs
P_1	15 programs (credits ranging between 0 and 10)
P_2	10 programs (credits ranging between 2 and 9)

3.5 Strategic Competence

General or specialized translation courses are placed under strategic competence as this competence allows students to combine the knowledge and skills they acquire in other courses to produce a translated product. They acquire this competence through learning stages and strategies of translation, defining the translation solutions they encounter, solving these problems, justifying their solutions and choices, and evaluating their translation products. Given that strategic competence helps translators link other sub-competences to assure that a translation task is completed and problems in the translation process are solved, I place under this category all translation practice (S_1) and translation theory (S_2) courses, i.e. courses designed to teach *how to* translate. The curriculum analysis provides a wide range of courses about the process and product of translation, ranging from general or introductory translation to specialized translation in diverse fields. Additionally, almost in all programs, electives are offered in specialized translation,

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providing students with a chance to get specialized to a certain degree. For the purpose of practicality, the courses on text analysis and precis writing are also dealt with under this category as they are offered as a sort of pre-translation module in training programs.

The second set of components expected to develop strategic competence of future translators is theoretical courses that enable and motivate students to reflect on translation processes and decisions. Translation theory is also dealt with under this category as theory components are included in training programs to enable students to "reflect on what they do, how they do it, and why they do it in one way rather than another" (Baker, 1992, p. 1). According to Shuttleworth (2001, p. 505), theory not only adds an "academic weight" to the curriculum but also contributes to the preparation of students for future translation careers. In the list of curricula, these courses have names such as "Translation Theory", "Translation History", "Translation Criticism", and "Translation Studies Seminar" and so on.

Almost all programs contain courses such as translation seminar, translation project or graduation projects in the final semesters of training, which allow students to combine their knowledge of translation theory with practice. As seen in Table 3.5, translation practice courses expectedly constitute a substantial part of translation curricula, where its proportion is up to 40% (50% when electives are counted) in some programs. This is

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justifiable, given that translation practice courses enable students to combine the knowledge and skills they acquire in other curricular components.

Table 3.5 Strategic competence in undergraduate translator-training programs in Turkey

Strategic competence	Number of programs
S_1	29 programs (credits ranging between 17 and 95)
S_2	29 programs (credits ranging between 6 and 24)

4. CONCLUSION

One of the main concerns of translator-training programs is to improve students' foreign language competence. There is a compulsory preparatory program in foreign language for students that cannot achieve a certain proficiency level before students start their study in the translator-training program. However, despite the presence of such a program, translator-training programs need language courses to improve students' language competence. Beeby (2003, p. 42) argues that there has been little focus on language learning for translators. Since language competence is one of the major expectations of employers (see Yılmaz-Gümüş 2013, p. 195) and defined inherently as the major component in competence models, there is a need to rediscuss the place of language learning in translator

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training, with particular attention to admission requirements for translation students, and foreign language teaching policies adopted for earlier years of education.

With regard to extra-linguistic competence, this study shows that literature still occupies a predominant position in Turkish translator-training programs. The emphasis on cultural competence is still not enough in translator training, considering the number of programs offering courses on the culture of respective languages and credits allocated to these courses. This brings us back to the question to which extent cultural knowledge is integrated into other course components.

Instrumental competence seems to have become a part of translator training. However, going over the curricula of translator-training programs, Şahin (2013: 179) notes that there is no standard among translator-training programs in Turkey with regard to technological competence. The present study also shows that no standard is seen with regard to when translation technology teaching starts.

Knowledge about profession has become a focus of interest in translator training, particularly with the increasing academic interest in the market. Today, half of undergraduate translator-training programs in Turkey include a work placement component, which is one of the most effective ways of preparing prospective translators to the market. It is also worth mentioning

that one-third of programs offer elective or compulsory components on functioning of the market.

All these components offered separately and combined under applied and theoretical translation courses are expected to come together to improve students' strategic competence. I started with an academic urge to list and categorize components of translator-training programs in Turkey, and found it quite difficult to place a course under a single competence area. Courses are intermingled and supposed to be integrated with and complement each other in the training process. More or less, each program apparently includes all five competences in their curricula, with greater emphasis on language competence and translation practice. Yet, it is worth mentioning that inclusion does not always mean *integration* of competences into the curriculum. For instance, there is a need to integrate technology competence into translation practice courses to assure that technology is a part of translator training. Further studies with trainers, learners and graduates are required to investigate the *integration* of components into the curricula.

This study provides an overview of what is taught and what is not taught in undergraduate translator-training programs in Turkey. It may be used as a point of reference to explore any changes and evolutions in translator training in Turkey over time, and also for cross-cultural comparison.

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