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Translation Research VIII

Current Trends in Translation Teaching and
Learning
Volume III

Edited by
Mikel Garant

University of Helsinki
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Helsinki 2010

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info@yliopistopaino.fi

PO Box 26 (Teollisuuskatu 23 B)
00014 University of Helsinki
Tel. +358 (0)9 701 0230 (Telephone exchange)
Fax +358 (0)9 7010 2370

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Preface

This is the third volume of Current Trends in Translation Teaching and Learning. The goal is to present a forum for publishing up-to-date articles focusing on translation education. Online collaboration between scholars interested in this theme makes the publication of such a volume possible.

This volume has been in the making for the past year and puts forward articles that focus on many of the current themes in translation teaching and learning. The first article in this volume by Leena Aarikka-Stenroos addresses building business know-how in translation studies. Sight translation and process oriented approaches are dealt with in the article by Erik Angelone. Conference interpretation for humanitarian purposes is dealt with by Maria Brander de la Iglesia. María-Dolores Olvera-Lobo and Juncal Gutiérrez-Artacho discuss evaluating teaching and learning processes in translation. Marta Arumí Ribas addresses portfolio assessment on interpreter training while Ljuba Tarvi's article takes on a more theoretical approach to Translation Studies.

It is hoped that this volume as well as volumes I and II in this series are useful in helping both novice and expert translators evaluate and improve translation education. In Helsinki, first and second year translation students use the articles from these publications as the themes their presentations in communications courses. Students choose an article and present it adding their own perspectives to the material provided and then discuss the topic. This helps them

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develop both as translators and reflect on the process of learning to be translators. Perhaps other Translation Studies programs could use a similar approach.

After a double blind review process, selected papers were published in this volume. There is also a companion website located at: <http://www.cttl.org/index.html>. I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to the following individuals: the writers for submitting their contributions to a blind review process, because without their courage and effort an edited collection like this would not be possible and the members of the editorial review board for their thoughtful and timely reviews. I would also like to thank Nina Valjakka for her editorial assistance, Mari Pakkala-Weckström for her editorial and advice support and Dan Holt for his proofreading and typesetting.

I hope the readers will find reading Current Trends in Translation Teaching and Learning both interesting and rewarding.

Mikel Garant
November 4, 2010

Translating is a service and service business, too – building up “business know how” in translating studies

Leena Aarikka-Stenroos
Turku School of Economics, Turku, Finland

Abstract

The aim of this article is to profile translating as a professional service, and to bring a business and marketing approach to translating. Because translator students will be a part of the language business in their real work life, this article aims to create an understanding of how translation services are produced, marketed and bought as a service business. Services are mostly invisible, heterogeneous and process-based, and these, besides other characteristics of services, cause a number of problems, both for the service provider and the customer. Therefore, translating students who will provide translation services need to gain business knowledge on their expert industry. The focus of this paper is not linguistic, but instead it considers translating as business, with the main theory being grounded in marketing of services. This paper is based on qualitative interview research among translation agencies and their customers. It also gives some practical suggestions for enhancing the business aspect and know-how in translation teaching.

1 Introduction

In recent years, there has been a growing understanding of the fact that students need multidisciplinary skills, such as teamwork skills, self-employment skills and project management skills, in order to succeed in real work life (for example Calvo Encinas & Morón Martín 2006, p. 113) In other words, students need other skills and competencies alongside the substance competence of their own profession and industry. Understanding business is one of the competences that are required: translating graduates need practical translating skills to succeed in the translation industry (Garant 2006, p. 81), but they also need business skills too. This article relates translating and other language studies to the current topics of “business know-how” and “business competence” which have recently been under discussion in public. Translation graduates will be a part of language business and they will produce language services for customers. Therefore this article aims to articulate that an understanding of the service business builds students’ “business know-how” and improves their success in real work life. The article profiles translation services as a professional service, and introduces some concepts from business sciences into the translation/linguistics discipline, in order to increase our understanding of translating as business.

The focus of this paper is not linguistic, but instead the paper considers translating as business with the main theory being grounded in the marketing of services. The paper aims to build a bridge between business studies (especially service marketing) and translation studies. It introduces issues concerning characteristics of the services and professional service business that translators should be aware of, and discusses what translators should know about

producing and marketing professional services. The paper also presents the customer's viewpoint on buying translation services.

It would be advantageous to increase translator students' understanding of service marketing issues and business know-how for several reasons. Translation services can be considered as a challenging type of service to produce and buy. In general, the marketing of services is argued to be more complicated than marketing of products, since the services are mostly invisible, heterogeneous, and process-based. Professional services are challenging because of their knowledge-intensive characteristics (Clemes et al. 2000 pp. 575–578). The characteristics of the services challenge both the service provider and the customer during a business transaction: for the customer it might be difficult to understand and evaluate the service; for the service provider, such as a translation agency, it might be difficult to present the service offering in advance, and to manage the service process in order to achieve the best service outcome. Knowledge-intensive service businesses with complex features are increasing in EU countries (Eurostat 2004).

There are also diverse players in the translation industry and the translation service providers vary from individual freelancers to business-oriented global translation agencies. Therefore it is important to identify the features of translation business, understand business angle of translating and learn to market the substance translating skills.

The article describes the basic concepts and models of service marketing, selling and buying in order to increase explicit know-how of the service business. Secondly, it provides a description of translating as service type, on the basis of qualitative interview research among translation agencies and their customers. Thirdly, it concludes with the challenges that translators and project managers

and other experts in translation industry face when they execute their profession in real work life. The features and challenges of translating business are stressed, in order to make translating students and educators aware of the business aspects of their profession. These aspects should be learned in order to succeed in the translation industry in real life. Therefore the pedagogical aim of the article is to highlight the business viewpoint of translating and bring ideas on how to teach business know-how to students, so they are enabled to market and manage translation services in a more successful way from a business point of view.

The article describes translating as a part of service business and therefore special features of the service in general are discussed. These characteristics distinguish services from visible products and challenge service providers as well as buyers. In the next section, general service and professional service features are discussed theoretically and the main concepts are introduced to build foundation on which to evaluate translating as both a service and as a professional service.

Services have two dimensions: product and process. The product-dimension concerns the outcome and result of service, and can be considered as 'what' is produced and bought during the exchange. The process-dimension conceptualizes 'how' the service is produced (Grönroos 2000, pp. 63–64). In translation services, the actual translated document is an outcome of the process consisting of various activities from the very first contact to delivering the result of the translation project. Process- and outcome- dimensions are also reflected in the customer's evaluation, since the customer evaluates the outcome-related 'what'-dimension called technical quality and the process-related 'how'-dimension called functional quality (Grönroos, 2000, pp. 51, 63). The customer can be satisfied with

translation, but be disappointed with how s/he was treated as a customer or how the project was co-ordinated during the process.

Service offerings can be seen as consisting of three different kinds of layers. A core service is the reason for the company being on the market. Additional services called facilitating services are needed to consume the core service. The third type of services is supporting services, and they are used to differentiate the service from the service of competitors. The distinction between facilitating services and supporting services is not always clear (Grönroos 2000, p. 166). In translation services, the core service is to enable the customer's multilingual communication by producing the translation, but usually there are various additional services like office services and supporting services such as localization services.

The service marketing approach separates services from products on the basis of four features: intangibility, heterogeneity, inseparability and perishability (Zeithaml 1981, p. 186), but their existence and appearance have also been criticised (see Lovelock & Gummesson 2004). Services are relatively intangible. There might be a tangible outcome or the process might have tangible parts, but there are always intangible elements compared to products. In translation services, the outcome – the actual translation – is tangible. Inseparability means that services are partially produced together with the buyer and the seller, and the customer is involved in production by briefing the translation assignment, by stating the special requirements and by delivering material. Because of heterogeneity, every service process is unique, and two processes are never exactly the same. In translation services, for example, the quality may vary, because translators possess various skills and competencies and interact with the customer differently, and also peak times can affect the process. Perishability means that services can not usually be produced beforehand and they cannot be stored

afterwards. This causes considerable problems for service marketers, since supply and demand are difficult to synchronise. In translation services there might occasionally be peak times, and respectively, sometimes there is a lack of assignments.

Both the buyer and seller parties encounter problems because of the features of services discussed above (see Table 1).

Character	Marketing problems and challenges
Intangibility	Services are difficult to display or communicate. This causes difficulties for the customer to evaluate competing services. The customer perceives high levels of risk and tries to reduce risk using especially personal information resources, and using the price as an indicator of quality. Firm may need to stress tangible cues. Prices are difficult to set
Heterogeneity & Variability	Standardization and quality control of services are difficult to achieve and maintain: the service performance depends on the personnel and the level of demand to some extent.
Inseparability	Customer is involved in production
Perishability	Services cannot be inventoried, stored or produced in advance. Waste and peak times should be avoided.

Table 1. The classical specific characteristics of services and marketing challenges originating from them.

Summarized on the basis of Clemes et al. 2000, pp. 576–578, Palmer 1994, pp. 3–6; Zeithaml 1981, p. 186.

2 Translation services and characteristics of knowledge intensive professional services

As translation services can be considered professional services, this distinguishable service type is discussed next. Silvestro et al. (1992, pp. 67–73) have identified three types of services: professional services (doctor, consultant), service shops (hotels, banks), and mass services (telecommunication, bus services). The professional (knowledge-intensive) services have distinctive features: they are complex, intangible, and highly customized. Professional services are delivered by qualified personnel and they are usually difficult for clients to evaluate even after the purchase. In professional services, organizations have relatively few transactions, but the process has a long contact time. The service and the process are produced mainly by the professional personnel, who use considerable judgment to offer the service that best meets the customer's needs. (Silvestro et al. 1992, p. 73; Thakor & Kumar 2000, p. 71). The typical features of professional services are presented in Table 2.

The most typical and the most studied professional service industries are the following: law firms, accounting firms, management consultants, technology and engineering consultants, financial consulting, advertising agencies, architects, personnel and recruitment services, information systems consultants, designers, and medical services. (Løwendahl 2005; Clemes et al. 2000; Thakor & Kumar 2000).

<p>Knowledge-intensive and professionalism requires education and formal training linked to scientific knowledge development</p> <p>Ethical codes, setting clients needs above profits, respecting the limits of professional expertise</p>
<p>Customized solution for customers' problem</p> <p>High degree of customization</p> <p>The result and outcome are critical</p> <p>Problem-solving nature</p> <p>Complexity of the process and the result</p>
<p>Information asymmetry</p> <p>Knowledge gap between the service provider and the client</p> <p>Lack of clarity regarding the service needed</p>
<p>High degree of risk because pre-purchase evaluation is difficult</p> <p>Degree of tangibility: intangible</p> <p>Information seeking is personalized, personal sources are used</p> <p>Pre-purchase evaluation is difficult because of credence qualities and information asymmetry, price sensitivity is insignificant</p>
<p>The interaction and relationship</p> <p>Relatively few transactions</p> <p>Contact time relatively long</p> <p>Personal judgment is relevant, most-value added in the front office, where judgment is applied in meeting customer needs</p> <p>Relations can be project-based or relationship-oriented, typically projects in relationship</p>

Silvestro et al. 1992, p. 73; Løwendahl 2005, p. 22, 39; Lapierre 1997, p. 378 Edvardsson 1989, pp. 6–7; Thakor & Kumar 2000, pp. 65–71.

Table 2. The synthesis of the features of professional services.

It is noteworthy that translation and interpreting services are not mentioned in professional service studies in the business literature, even if they meet all the demands of the definition of professional services. 'Professional' professions typically require a higher, usually academic, education. Translators have translation qualifications but also qualifications and training for specific markets such as technical engineering or medicine (Holland et al. 2004, p. 255).

The professional service is produced by an educated expert with special knowledge and experience. The customer lacks this special knowledge, and this is called information asymmetry: information asymmetry makes the client dependent on the service provider to define the problem, and the expert usually knows better what the customer needs better than the customer does (Thakor & Kumar 2000, p. 65). The professional solves the customer's problems with education and specialist know-how, makes the diagnosis, formulates the problem and the way of operating, and produces the solution (Edvardsson 1989, p. 6). This problem-solving can be based on innovating new solutions or presenting old solutions (Løwendahl 2005, pp.121–141).

The relationship and interaction between the service provider and the client are also relevant in professional services. The average size of the projects can vary and the delivery of the service can require some cooperation of a professional team over a long time or only one expert for a day (Løwendahl 2005, pp.121–141).

Assignments in professional services are typically performed in long-term relations because of their high level of risk perceived by the customer (Lapierre 1997, p. 378), but short-term one-project-based assignments also exist. Usually there can be sporadic assignments and projects during the relationship, since after a project the client estimates whether to assign new projects to the service provider, or find a new service provider (Szmigin 1992, p. 17).

3 Translating service business from viewpoints of the service provider and the customer

When translating is considered as a service type, it is produced and marketed by the service provider (which can be an agency or a freelance entrepreneur) and it is provided for the customer. In the next section, professional service business is discussed as a dyadic business exchange, where the service provider as the seller party promotes and delivers the service, and respectively, the customer evaluates and buys the service.

Marketing discipline distinguishes business-to-business and business-to-customer contexts, and there are established differences between organizational and personal customers (see Coviello & Brodie 2001). In business markets, there are fewer but larger buyers, who create supplier-customer relationships, and purchasing is usually executed by trained purchasing agents, who buy for the organization. In consumer markets, the buyer is an individual person who lacks specific experience in buying. The translating business can be produced for the business or for the consumer markets, but here the focus is especially on the business-to-business-markets, because a business customer is the most typical client of professional services.

4 Marketing, selling and managing translation services: the viewpoint of the service provider

The service provider's task is to produce and market the service. In professional service agencies, marketing is usually managed by professionals themselves because it is seldom that there is a person specifically trained in marketing (Szmigin 1992, p. 6). This is conceptualized by the term 'part-time-marketer' (Grönroos 2000); the professionals within the agency usually have tasks related to

marketing (such as managing customer relationships and day-to-day-marketing) embedded in their work.

Another challenge is the sensitivity surrounding professionalism that affects marketing opportunities, practices and attitudes. The advertising and active marketing of professionals have formerly been considered unprofessional, and in some industries active marketing has even been prohibited. Times have slowly changed, and nowadays professional service firms have more opportunities to communicate about their offerings and performance (Feldman Barr & McNeilly 2003, p. 715; Thakor & Kumar 2000, pp. 72–73).

The sale and customer acquisition can be considered as a process that has several steps. The first step in the sale process is to find potential customers. When potential customers are identified, the seller approaches them, presents the firm and the service, counters and overcomes objections. The final step is to maintain the customer for the long term. (Moncrief & Marshall 2004, pp. 13–16)

Advertising is only one of the promotion activities in business-to-business marketing communication. The most often used practices to obtain customers in professional services are the following: direct contacts, such as direct mail and sales calls; social networking and utilizing events, such as continual contact building, speaking at functions, hosting seminars; informing potential customers through various media: Internet home page, websites, trade advertising, brochures, yellow pages, trade shows, newsletters, or utilizing previous contacts and works: positive recommendations of satisfied clients, recent successful work and winning industry awards (see Waller et al. 2001; Feldmann Barr & McNeilly 2003). Also, information technology based communication, such as email, web-pages and electronic newsletters facilitate promotion and enable the collection of new information about the customer, to remain in contact with them and to present the capabilities and offerings of the firm

(Moncrief & Marshall 2004, pp. 14, 16). The sales activities of the agency can be based on more distant bidding proposals or more active selling and networking (Løwendahl 2005, pp. 121–141).

There are obviously differences in marketing between large firms and smaller local firms. Large firms have large financial resources to invest in large scale marketing material and hire marketing professionals, whereas smaller firms invest in creating client relationships, build the firm's image and utilize referrals (Feldmann Barr & McNeilly 2003, p. 719). Most of the service providers act locally and are small or medium-sized enterprises, and this also concerns most translation agencies (see Holland et al. 2004, p. 254).

5 Buying and evaluating the professional: the viewpoint of the customer

In the eyes of the customer, the service business is viewed from a different angle. The customer is motivated to buy the professional service since they lack the skills or resources to execute the service itself. Nieminen (2005 pp. 25, 33, 35) studied the main reasons for buying translation services, and found that the reasons for buying are related to costs, lack of resources and skills, and the internationalization of business, which follows the general tendency of outsourcing where some services are bought to support companies' core business. However, even if the customer has a clear motivation to buy the service, executing the buying task is a complex activity, since the features of professional services make the need-formulation and decision making difficult (Mitchell 1998, p. 461).

This complexity stems from information asymmetry, intangibility, and the process nature of services, since because of them, professional services have mostly credence qualities, which increase the risk perceived by the customer. Medical and legal services can be

difficult to evaluate even after the purchase, because the buyer can not usually himself evaluate the diagnosis of the doctor or the actions of the lawyer. Goods usually have a high level in search qualities, because they can be examined before purchase (Zeithaml 1981, p. 187). The complexity of the buying process can also originate from the unfamiliarity of the buying task. According to the widely used classification by Robinson, Faris, and Wind (1967), different kinds of buying situations are distinguished. These are: a new task, a modified rebuy, and a straight rebuy situation. The buying situation has a direct influence on the information level of buyers, their perceived risk and their search behavior (Möller 1985, p. 4). The more unfamiliar and newer the buying situation is, the more difficult the situation is for the buyer.

The act of buying is usually represented as a process. The buying process starts when the need or the problem is recognized. The next stage is the formulation of the problem; the recognized need is transformed into objectives for a solution. Then the buyer evaluates the potential service providers with some evaluation criteria. The buyer identifies the alternatives, the initial consideration set, and the customer might also evaluate using an external consultant or its own personnel.

The 'short list' is formed because the buyer evaluates and selects only some alternatives for further investigation. The buyer evaluates the final alternatives and the consequences of the alternatives (time, price, quality, etc.) and selects the service provider. After the assignment is realized, the buyer evaluates the quality of service and perceives satisfaction or dissatisfaction. There are several propositions to describe the process and the stages of buying professional services (cf. Edvardsson 1989, p. 10; Day & Barksdale 1994, p. 46). However, Nieminen (2005, p. 35) found that buying does not necessarily follow the model in every single translation

assignment, since companies prefer long-term relationships with one or few service providers. The buyer party usually forms a formal or informal 'buying center' that executes the decision making, gathering and evaluating the relevant information (Johnston and Lewin 1996, p. 8). Persons within the buying center have variable roles: there are users, buyers (execute the buying), influencers, deciders, and gatekeepers (who control the flow of information into the buying center) (Webster and Wind 1972, p. 17). In buying translation services, Nieminen (2005, p. 28) found that there are small buying groups where roles are visible but overlapping.

The customer faces increased risks because of the lack of pre-purchase evaluation possibilities. The customer can reduce the risk by seeking information or by remaining loyal to a certain service provider (see Clemes 2000, p. 586). The customer seeks information by using non-personal communication (e.g. mass or selective media) and personal communication (e.g. friends or experts) (Zeithaml 1981, p. 187), but personal information sources are said to be emphasized in professional services since they convey credible information about credence qualities (Thakor & Kumar 2000, p. 68). The risk-reducing strategies of the buyer in professional services can also be based on choosing the leading firm in the field, asking to see similar work done by the firm, or obtaining colleagues' opinions of the firm (Mitchell 1998, 476). When choosing an appropriate service provider, the customer usually approaches several professional service agencies, but turns to a professional or an agency which has been employed before or is formerly known (Edvardsson 1989, p. 15, Mitchell 1998, p. 476). Additionally, the intangibility and the exiguity of concrete elements and information asymmetry drive customers to judge secondary tangible clues (such as appearance, behaviour, office, and the equipment and methods used) instead of the result of service (Edvardsson 1989, p. 8).

The customer chooses the seller on the basis of evaluation criteria. The most used evaluation criteria related to professional services are the following: the price, interaction with personnel, project knowledge, experience in the field, the result, previous work, knowledge and competence, reputation and image, social ties, proposal and presentation (Day & Barksdale 1992, p. 86; Edvardsson 1989, pp. 9–15; Dawes et al. 1992, pp. 187–193). Knowledge of the industry sector of the client is usually required (Edvardsson 1989, p. 15; Mitchell 1998, p. 476), and this also applies to translation services (Nieminen 2005, p. 12). In translation services, the important evaluation criteria seem to be: how well the company understands the customer and its specific problems, the turnaround capabilities on a given project, linguistics skills, technical competence, communication and accessibility of essential persons, the translation agency's network – in order to handle big and complex assignments in many languages, speed and flexibility of the service, and respect of timetables (Potsus & Deschamps-Potter 2002, p. 7; Nieminen 2005, p. 30, 36). The price is not usually the main element in selecting the professional service provider, since the customer may consider the price as an indicator of quality, and because a low price implies a low quality, the customer does not normally choose the lowest-priced service provider (Zeithaml 1981, p. 187).

6 Marketing translating services: findings on translation service providers' and their customers' challenges

6.1 Research design and methodology

Qualitative interview research was conducted for studying translation services as service business. The empirical data comprised eight personal interviews conducted during the summer

of 2005 and the summer of 2008. Furthermore, written marketing material from translation agencies was utilized as secondary data: various company documents were collected and analysed, for example, brochures, leaflets, web pages, advertisements and presentation materials.

The translation service companies and their customer firms range from micro-sized entrepreneurial enterprises to large international firms. The cases and the informants were chosen by means of theoretical sampling (Flick 1998). The first contact was usually with the seller/the translation service provider, and after that the buyers mentioned were contacted.

We used focused episodic theme interviews (Flick 1998). Interview guide and research questions followed the theoretical issues discussed in the theoretical part of the article. The questions concerned translating businesses' features and challenges, as well as efforts to meet these challenges. Each interview lasted about one and a half hours, and they were all tape-recorded and transcribed.

We used QSR N'Vivo software in our computer-aided analysis to manage the data. The data were coded into the following main categories: features of services, features of professional services, seller's viewpoint, and customer's viewpoint. Each main category contained more specific attributes. We started with open coding but changed to selective coding after further reading.

6.2 Main Results: Empirical analysis on translation services as service business

In the following section, translating services are examined in light of service marketing theory, in order to analyse how translations services reflect general service features and professional service features, and how they are marketed, managed and bought.

On the basis of the interview research, it became evident that the translating business field is fragmented and consists of various players of different sizes and professional levels. Some translating professionals compete with a low price, some with technique and project management skills, and others with professionalism and experience concretized in known professionals with a good reputation.

6.2.1 Translating services as services

Translation services are based on producing the actual translation (the core service), but this is usually enriched with facilitating services, such as localization, project management and office services. Also, make-up services and connections to photographers, editors and print houses were mentioned. The following extract from the data shows various core, facilitating, support services related to the translation services.

To put it simply, the customer buys translation services or localization services. However, project management is usually embedded in that service. It might be really simple, if it is a case of translating and localizing only one language.

But if the project is large and there are many different language pairs, lots of term work and everything – then there is a need for plenty of project management. We can also edit the text in publishable form, check all the pictures and texts and show the customer what the final text will look like. And we also construct term lists and the customer can later use them for various purposes and harmonize their vocabulary. (The CEO of a translation agency)

Translation services are product-oriented services since the translation as a tangible outcome is emphasized. Customers often mentioned the flexibility and the speed of the service process as

important issues, but still the importance of a good quality translation service outcome was the most important element. The speed of the service process was mentioned as a relevant issue in both service providers' and their customers' interviews. A customer from a communication agency described the need for a speedy process in the following way:

Sometimes I have plenty of time to produce a publication and in that case it doesn't matter whether the translating work takes a week or two days. But, if I write newsletters, I need to have them translated on the very next day, and you cannot use an agency that needs a week to do that work. The big organizations are usually not so flexible, but small agencies do the work, even if they have to work all day and night.

The intangibility, heterogeneity and perishability of services leads to difficulties for both parties in translation services. From the translation agency's viewpoint, the data suggested that the quality and the outcome of translation services are difficult to communicate and the production of translations needs to be managed and scheduled well. For example, the quality of the service performance depends on the level of demand, the given time schedules and the skills of the personnel, and therefore agencies usually intentionally tried to control the number of assignments in order to maintain the quality level and avoid busy times and slack times. It is interesting to note that one of the interviewed CEOs suggested that translation memories "store" and standardize service to some extent. During peak times, the service capacity of the agency was extended by buying work time from freelance translators, but this requires that the agency takes extra care of the consistency of the quality. Problems originating from the heterogeneity of services have driven agencies to use various practices to avoid quality problems and to maintain good quality:

Even if we use freelancers, they are all educated and tested. Our processes are standardized, and when a new translator starts, the more experienced translator reads his/her texts.

Due to the intangibility, the customer faced difficulties in evaluating competing translating services, and thus the customer perceived high levels of risk especially when buying translation services for the first time. Despite this challenge, the service provider firms seldom stressed tangible cues and reduced service complexity by giving information about the process and potential outcomes or asked for additional information.

6.2.2 Translating services as professional services

Translation services are knowledge-intensive services which require high education. However, the data revealed an interesting point concerning the professionalism. Customers mostly appreciated the speed of the process and the price, while the highest quality was not so important; instead, a decent quality level was optimal and satisfactory for most of the customers. Also some translation agencies mentioned that the customer does not appreciate good quality and professionalism; instead, some customers have asked, whether a trainee translator could do the work cheaply.

Due to the information asymmetry, the experience and knowledge of the customer in buying translation services varied, as the representative of a translation agency states:

A large enterprise may have had in-house translators, but nowadays the translating is outsourced and these ex-translators as customers know what translating is, they are able to coordinate the process, and they are good at evaluating the service. But in some customer organizations, the secretary has translated the texts, and in these cases we need to start from basics and define what the translating really is.

In general, information seeking, evaluation and quality checking were difficult for the buyer party because of the information asymmetry and credence qualities of professional services. Customers found it very difficult to evaluate and compare translating service providers even after trial translations. Even experienced customers were not completely able to evaluate the translation outcome, as the following buyer's citation shows:

Sometimes it is really difficult to evaluate how good a translation really is. We (within the customer organization) have usually discussed whether the translation is American English or U.K. English, and people who appreciate U.K. English have been dissatisfied and claimed that the translation is in awful American English style. In some special industries, for example, in biomedicine or biotechnology industries, it is really important that the translator know the right terms. But there are differences of opinion in these issues, for example, some people in our agency say that the translation is awful and some say that is totally ok.

In sum, translating services are difficult to evaluate even after the assignment. Nieminen (2005, p. 30) found that evaluating translations is not seen as easy unless it question of a common language such as English.

The data suggested that the most important evaluation criteria in translation services were price, project management, good attitude towards service, relevant specialization and capabilities, professionalism, speedy time schedules and good references. Prices of translation services are sometimes tricky to set (see Holland et al. 2004, p. 256). Translation agencies use various pricing systems and, therefore, customers may sometimes find it difficult to evaluate and compare the total costs.

Some customers of translation services are rather price-sensitive, and they do not even seek the best quality. For example some text has to be translated by law and, therefore, in some cases, the customer is more concerned about the price and delivery times than quality. In these cases, understanding and fulfilling the customer's needs can be quite frustrating for language professionals and difficult to accept, since in these cases the customer is not interested in their professionalism and expertise.

Translation services are primarily people-based services produced by professional staff with supporting equipment, like databases and translation memory, as the following extract from the data describes:

Sometimes translation projects are extremely hasty and time schedules too strict. In these situations we are not able to follow the required time schedules or maintain our quality requirements: Even if we have enough translators and we are able to translate the text, the consistency of the text suffers, because one proofreader cannot read all the text so closely that text would be totally coherent, or we need two proofreaders to read it. We do have term lists but still each translator has his/her signature style of translating and it always comes through in the final text. People are people; they are not machines, and even if we use software and are technically advanced, it is people who are mostly involved in the work.

Even if the translation services are produced by educated professionals, technology has a facilitating role during the service process. For example, a CEO of a large translation agency mentioned that translation web-portals clearly facilitate the service process management, since the customer can enter the text, the information system evaluates the text and the use of the translation memory and even estimates the price and time schedule of the service process.

Various shared information systems can add new possibilities to share information about the translations with the customers during the service process, and the value of the translation service is obviously higher when the customer and the agency work together using advanced information systems in order to achieve a better service outcome (see Holland et al. 2004, pp. 258–259). For example, Holland et al. (2004, p. 255) argue that utilisation of the translation memory can be a tool to move away from one-off-transactions to longer-term relationships, since it can add a crucial value for the customer.

Translation services are always customized to some extent, and according to the data, judgment was usually applied by translators and project managers to meet individual customer needs. The customer participates in the production of translation and thus has a role in creating value during the translation service delivery process by presenting some requirements and by giving supporting information to the professionals in the translation agency. This co-operative interference should be seen as an opportunity to carry out the translation as the buyer company wishes, as the citation from the CEO of a large translation agency shows:

If the customer is less experienced in buying translation services, we really need to define what translating and localization are and what the customer really needs and wants. We also need to figure out if the customer already possesses material or texts that we can put to use. Sometimes we discuss with the customer what kind of terminology and style they want to use. They need to tell us what they want, and we need to ask questions, for example, to whom their promotion texts or instructions will be directed and whether they have different kinds of standards or legislations in different countries.

Some professional services, e.g. technical consulting services, are more routinely produced and their service outcomes and processes are standardized (Edvardsson 1989, p. 7). Some translation agencies had standardized their process whereas other agencies had not. Translation services were produced routinely by using the translation memory database technology and by standardizing the customer interaction processes and project management. The agency usually pursued a speedy process, a better quality and a certain kind of customer by using standardized processes, as the following citation describes:

I think it is mostly quality control, if we have standardized processes. But it is also about cost savings, because everything goes efficiently and speedily. Also automation of translations is easier when we have standardized the processes.

6.2.3 Promoting and creating new relationships

Translating agencies acted quite differently in terms of promoting their services. Some agencies were only reactive, while others were more active in finding new customers and in creating new needs for their existing customers. It was usually the CEO who was responsible for marketing but project managers, coordinators and occasionally even translators as 'part-time-marketers' participated in the actual marketing in various ways.

The most frequently used marketing practices were web-pages, direct marketing by email or telephone, word-of-mouth and social networking, and participation in competitive bidding. Some agencies were quite advanced in marketing their competences and proving their translation capabilities to potential clients. They used recognizable reference names of their customers and case studies that built a reputation and create a good quality image. If the

translation agency mentions their customers from a certain industry, this indicates that the agency knows the terminology of this industry.

The interviews showed that customers of translation services tend to be loyal. This loyalty challenges the service providers, because they have to 'break' the potential customer's loyalty to their prevailing service provider by offering the customer more value; lower prices, speedier schedules, more services, better quality, better project management. Another finding related to the relationship issue was that even if the service provider's aim is to gain long-term customers, the customer usually had several translation agencies in parallel: customers wanted to maintain the rivalry between the translation service providers, or they used different kinds of agencies in different kind of assignments. One of the customers described the situation:

I usually use both a small and a large translation agency. With a large one it is easier to handle big projects, while the small ones are more flexible and speedier in rushed situations.

7. Conclusions of needed business know how in translating industries and pedagogical implications

This study contributes to our knowledge of the field by exploring translation services as a professional service type, since translation services have seldom been studied as a professional service. The conceptual discussion and empirical analysis builds business know-how for translation service industry, and stresses business aspects that could be taught and discussed during translation studies.

Because of high-customization of professional services, the participation of the customer is crucial and affects the success of the translation service. Because of information asymmetry, the customers usually do not exactly recognize all their needs and the available possibilities, but the customer is at least partly responsible

if the translation does not fulfil the customer's wishes. Therefore the customer sometimes needs to be guided or taught to participate in service production in the right way.

This study showed that good interaction between the agency and the client facilitates defining the desired service outcome and process. Outcome-related elements, such as the quality of the translation and pricing, and process-related elements, such as schedules and interaction and understanding the customer's needs should be communicated. The previous literature suggests that the outcome is the most important factor in professional services, and this research confirmed that also for the translation industry: the translation itself is the most crucial element. However, better outcomes and customer satisfaction can also be achieved if the service process is also managed well. Because there are few transactions but relations are usually long, each episode with the customer should be managed well. Customers want their translations fast and at a decent price, which increases the pressure on translating agencies to manage projects and quality effectively.

Because of service characteristics, the prices of translation services are difficult to set, and the standardization and quality control of translations are difficult to achieve. It is important to understand that these problems are common to all professional services, and service providers are able to manage these problems to some extent. For example, translation memory can be utilized to improve the quality and consistency of translation services, to reduce costs and to offer a faster service (see Holland et al. 2004, p. 255): it accelerates the service production, increases the efficiency and reduces the quality variation of the output.

Several marketing challenges were found within translation industries. From the service providers' viewpoint, the challenge is that translation services are difficult to represent, the quality is

difficult to communicate, and services are difficult to price in advance. Therefore the needs and expectations related to the assignment should be discussed openly and clearly in advance, and the translation service provider has the leading role in this discussion. The customers gained are important, not only because of profit, but also because of their promoting role through references and word-of-mouth activities. Recommendations originate from the satisfaction of existing customers and their positive word-of-mouth comments are important in gaining new customers. Professional service providers are not keen to promote their services (Feldman Barr & McNeilly 2003, Thakor & Kumar 2000), and in this situation, references, word-of-mouth and web-pages can be considered as neutral marketing conveying information about the offerings and capabilities. The professionalism and marketing attitude are not in conflict. Thirdly, the marketing role of the whole personnel as part-time marketers should be acknowledged; it is significant how translators answer the phone or email and how they present their agency to outsiders.

It is important for language professionals and translators to understand the viewpoint of customers as well. The existing literature acknowledges the increased risk perceived by the customer in professional services (Clemes et al. 2000, p. 576). Because intangible services with credence qualities are difficult to evaluate, translators should present their professionalism and especially their competence and experience more clearly and stress tangible cues, such as reference work and experience within various industries, their known and competent experts and facilities. One of the toughest points is that translator students are taught to make high-quality translations due to their professionalism, but in real business customers do not always appreciate the high-quality: instead they require fast “medium-quality” at a reasonable price, and this might

be difficult to accept by a translator student (see, for example, Garant 2006, p. 85).

This study suggested that in translation business, understanding the customer's viewpoint, needs and criteria and industry seems to be crucial, in addition to the price and time schedules. Translators should understand the relevance of these elements. Because translation services seem to be more price-sensitive than professional services on average, translation service providers should clearly indicate the benefits of the service to the customer to make the customer understand that they are getting their money's worth. This price sensitivity could be reduced by giving information about what the investment will bring to the client: speed, good quality etc.

Price sensitivity indicates that customers need to be taught to require good quality and to appreciate the professionalism of translating. This does not happen naturally and as a matter of course, and therefore it requires long-term work from the translation industry and training.

Finally, some pedagogical implications and suggestions are given on how to increase business know-how during translating studies. Some teaching methods, such as real translating projects for real customers during studies, teach students to interact with customers and to manage service projects. Authentic translation projects and assignments for customers (for example Garant, 2006, p. 81) are effective pedagogical tools, even though they are time consuming and require extra coordination from the teacher.

It is typical that some problems will emerge when students work with real customers: students will face time schedule problems, technical problems and customers' unrealistic expectations (see Garant, 2006, pp. 84–85), but these challenges are typical and normal in translation industry and managing these situations builds business

competence. Students could also acquire such project assignments in order to learn how to market and negotiate with customers.

New type of courses could also be offered. Some schools, such as the University of Turku and Turku School of Economics in Finland have implemented a study module called “Business Competence” that consists of modules such as Entrepreneurship, Project Management and Services Marketing. The aim of the module is to teach business skills to university students studying languages, physics, pedagogics, medicine, etc. The business aspects could also be explicitly and openly discussed during the language substance courses.

If students are encouraged to discuss problems concerning project management, pricing, interaction with the customer, quality problems, the knowledge gained on these important topics will increase business know-how among translating graduates.

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The benefits of sight translation in early-stage translator training: a process-oriented approach to modeling expertise

Erik Angelone
Kent State University, Kent, Ohio USA

Abstract

This paper discusses the potential benefits of integrating sight translation as a core curricular component of process-based early-stage translator training, primarily for purposes of expertise modeling. The pedagogical advantages of sight translation are explored from perspectives of uncertainty management (Hönig 1988; Kiraly 1990; Kussmaul 1995; Fraser 1996; Tirkkonen-Condit 1996, 2000) and metacognitive behavior (cf. Angelone forthcoming; Shreve forthcoming, 2006, 2002). In conclusion, a translation-orientated sight translation training model is proposed as a vehicle for fostering the fundamental skills of deverbalization, tapping into cognitive inputs (cf. Lederer 2007), and, perhaps most important of all, learning to trust ones instincts through self-confidence gained from reliable performance monitoring strategies.

1 Sight translation in interpreting and translation

Sight translation, broadly defined as the oral reproduction and re-expression of a written source text in a target language, has traditionally been utilized as a fundamental exercise in interpreter training programs (Agrifoglio 2004, p. 43; Lambert 2004, p. 294), yet remains relatively underused in the training of translators. As an oral, spontaneous form of language mediation produced under immediate temporal and cognitive pressure, sight translation closely parallels the demands associated with interpreting. Its similarities with translation, as a written, multistage, and ultimately revision-driven form of language mediation, are less obvious. In the context of interpreter training, a strategic skill set, including the deverbalization of source text segments, corresponding transposition strategies, and overall production effort, culminates with the establishment of a quasi “finished” product insofar that a target text ready for target audience reception without any additional post-sight translation modifications has been created. The extensive repertoire of pre-translation and post-translation strategies so firmly rooted in written translation as a multistage event (Wilss 1977, p. 268), including in-depth background research, terminology storage and retrieval and editing, are essentially not applicable. An outcome goal of sight translation exercises in interpreter training is the establishment of a functionally adequate *product*, resulting from on-the-fly transfer strategies in which source language (SL) processing is often synchronous with target language (TL) production.

Translation Studies scholars and translator trainers have also historically tended to regard sight translation, or *Spontanübersetzen*, as a form of interpreting (cf. Nord 2002), rather than as a form of translation. Though generally not applied as frequently as in interpreter training, sight translation has occasionally been used in

training translators to *deverbalize*, or deliberately transcend beyond surface-level constructs (primarily lexical or syntactic in nature) in producing functionally equivalent *meaning* in the target language. In such situations, translator trainees are encouraged to tap into both linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge while paraphrasing in an attempt to break away from the “fetters” of source language segments (Kussmaul 1995, p. 28). In the context of translator training, sight translation tends to focus to a much lesser extent on the product as such, and to a greater extent on the *processes* and *strategies* underlying text comprehension, transfer and production. In written translation, unlike in oral interpreting, an end product often does not emerge until after the target text has passed through multiple stages of editing and revision. Unlike the interpreter or professional sight translator, the translator has the opportunity to continuously refer back to the source text and retrieve information from primary, secondary, or tertiary resources at will. This, in turn, leads to more noticeable temporal gaps between source text comprehension, target text production and ultimate target audience reception.

Perhaps the greatest deviation that sight translation takes from written translation involves its suspension of the traditional “written” text product, demanding a degree of spontaneity in text processing otherwise not called upon when translating. This divergence has strong implications concerning what exactly sight translation practice has to offer to translator trainees, and how its integration can be optimized in translator training methodologies. Rather than as a means to an end, translator trainees should encounter and practice sight translation as a *procedural* means in and of itself. When assessing the potential benefits of sight translation in translator training, it is critical to make note of what it can reveal in terms of *how* translators translate, as observable through behaviors and strategies (or lack thereof). Interestingly, as far as process-

oriented awareness training goes, sight translation, like other forms of relatively spontaneous oral language mediation such as simultaneous interpreting, has the potential of being “better representative of the process of translation than a typical product of written translation” (Tirkkonen-Condit 2005, p. 411). By removing writing and its concomitant cognitive load from the overall language mediation process, sight translation provides a unique window of investigation into translation *processes* otherwise overshadowed by the corresponding product.

2 Sight translation as expertise modeling

The time-constrained, resource-free nature of sight translation requires the translator to strategically allocate and curtail attention in attempting to establish coherent, deverbilized target language meaning transcending beyond SL lexical and syntactic surface configurations. In terms of Gile’s Effort Models (cf. 1997), a unique *M (memory) effort* is called upon as the sight translator concurrently taps into both short term memory and extralinguistic knowledge as the task progresses, as opposed to the common “novice behavior” in written translation of immediately turning to various translation resources. Although professional translators generally do not face similar constraints on cognitive load, resource access, and, perhaps most importantly, time, studies have shown that they do tend to rely on and trust their instincts before being delayed by dictionary usage (cf. Fraser 1996), thereby exhibiting a plan of action very similar to what transpires during sight translation. The instinctual reactions of professional translators are driven by the application of declarative and procedural knowledge built up over years of practice which early-stage translator trainees simply do not have. Exposing trainees to situations relying on the manifestation of trust and confidence in instincts, as is the case with sight translation, can be fruitful (though

undoubtedly frustrating from their perspective) in modeling the expertise behavior of professionals in a relatively risk-free learning environment, where the end result is not to be equated with a later-stage, revised written translation. Although trainees will inevitably be taken out of their comfort zone and be baffled by the unnaturalness of a resource-free approach, having them take part in sight translation exercises will gradually lead to a realization of the importance of contextual awareness and self-reflection in successful translation. In this manner, they further model the expertise of professional translators, who more so than students are inclined to use global strategies based on pragmatic dimensions ascertained via text analysis (Jääskeläinen 1993, p. 113). Faith in judgment and trust in instincts go hand in hand with efficient textual and contextual awareness.

In her analysis of behavioral differences between professional and non-professional translators (students), Fraser (1996) observed that professionals tend to use dictionaries on the whole less often. Furthermore, she determined that professionals typically use dictionaries *after* target text has already been generated for purposes of *refining* meaning as the text unfolds, whereas students are inclined to use dictionaries for purposes of *establishing* initial meaning *prior* to target text generation. Lexical or conceptual gaps encountered by professional translators do not sustain lasting power as stumbling blocks impeding the workflow of target text generation and are efficiently “overcome” through the suppression or foregrounding of semantic features (Kusmaul 1995, p. 96). This often involves using combinations of hypernyms, hyponyms, or synonyms as respective temporary placeholders subject to future refinement– expertise behavior that corresponds directly with the generalization and particularization strategies fundamental to sight translation.

The sources of potential frustration experienced by translator trainees when asked to sight translate extend beyond simply not having immediate access to resources, and are likely to result from a lack of self-confidence in trusting instincts, resulting, in turn, from a lack of experience. Interestingly, empirical studies have shown that early-stage translation students are adept at proposing valid paraphrasing options orally among their peers when engaging in joint translation activities, yet ultimately fail to trust their instincts in following through with these options in their final translations, choosing instead to rigidly focus on restoring the original words (as opposed to meaning) of the source text using dictionaries (cf. Kussmaul 1995; Séguinot 1989). Even in instances when students of translation successfully determine the meaning of a word based on context, they are hesitant to actually use it in their translation if it is not confirmed by a bilingual dictionary (Hönig 1988).

This typical translation student behavior suggests that a lack of confidence leads to an over-emphasis on attempting to achieve one-to-one lexical equivalence, likely linked to not being as comfortable as professionals with the idea that meaning is inherently flexible and dependent on context (Lörscher 1992, p. 153). Oral modes of relatively spontaneous target language generation, such as sight translation, demand a breakaway from such fixated behavioral tendencies, relying on immediate comprehension and expression of *ideas* as opposed to words (cf. Seleskovitch and Lederer 1989). In a sight translation training scenario, it is hoped that trainees will be encouraged to place greater trust in their instinctual reactions as they deverbalize, transpose, and modulate ST segments, based on a firm understanding that a perfected end result, as produced in written translation, is not expected (or even possible) under such conditions. Over time and through practice, a certain comfort level can be reached, enabling risk-taking and increasing self-confidence

to gradually develop into proceduralized models of decision-making and successful uncertainty management— two of the strongest process-oriented indicators of expertise (cf. Angelone forthcoming; Shreve 2002, 2006).

One of the paramount factors contributing to expertise development, as trainable through sight translation, is the development of metacognitive awareness (Angelone forthcoming; Shreve forthcoming, 2006, 2002; Alves and Gonçalves 2004; Alves 2002). Shreve (forthcoming) defines *metacognition* in translation as the conscious, volitional, and strategic control over complex cognitive tasks, such as reasoning, problem-solving, decision-making, and self-reflection, in order to overcome obstacles and assure successful task completion. The concept of metacognitive awareness builds on what Tirkkonen-Condit outlines as *monitoring* behavior (2005, p. 407), involving the translator's ability to activate self-awareness in evaluating task performance. As a behavioral form of expertise, studies have indicated that professionals tend to be more successful than students in utilizing monitoring for purposes of self-feedback (Hansen 2003, p. 26).

Angelone (forthcoming) outlines a three-stage behavioral model which underlies problem-solving in translation: 1) *problem recognition*, which is manifested in the form of direct or indirect knowledge assessment, 2) *solution proposal*, consisting of strategy planning and the generation of solution options, and 3) *solution evaluation*, which involves monitoring for evaluative purposes. Of these three behaviors, Angelone's study revealed that the professional translator engages in problem recognition behavior more frequently than the student translator, whereas the student engages in solution evaluation behavior more frequently than the professional. Furthermore, when analyzing the impact of metacognitive behavior on translation error frequency and type, it was determined that less

errors are made in translation units when problem recognition was employed than in units when it was not, and, interestingly, more errors are made in translation units allocated higher frequencies of solution evaluation behavior. In other words, extensive problem recognition was conducive to limiting the number of errors in translation, whereas extensive solution evaluation, contrary to what one might expect, was of much less help in keeping errors at bay. These findings support Shreve's proposal (2002) that expert translators are more successful at recognizing and reacting to cues in the text that indicate potential translation difficulty. Through years of practice, they are able to more quickly recognize and hone in on problem areas, and, by doing so, successfully plan and conduct subsequent solution proposal and solution evaluation in response. The tendency for students to engage in solution evaluation behavior more frequently could point to 1) a weaker (under-trained) capacity for problem recognition, or 2) as alluded to earlier in the paper, less self-confidence in trusting instincts and a corresponding tendency to over-evaluate rather than move on.

Given all of these findings, two paramount questions emerge: 1) how can we, as translator trainers, help our students become more consciously aware of the *processes* and strategies in which they are engaged while translating, and 2) how can we structure training activities so that students can model behavioral indicators of expertise in a relatively risk-free manner? By foregrounding process(es) over product, sight translation, as delineated in the model to follow, emerges as a methodology and pedagogical practice of choice in answering these questions.

3 A sight translation model for process-oriented translator training

The following sequence of stages represents a proposed sight translation exercise model modified for use in a translator training environment and dedicated to fostering an awareness of translation processes through expertise modeling. For the intents and purposes of this paper, the model is deliberately general in nature, applicable in any small, group-based learning environment. It is based on the parameters of recorded sight translation (Biela-Wolonciej 2007, p. 31), in which the produced target text is captured as an audio recording subject to future stages of student retrospection and revision. The various proposed time allotments are based on a 100-word source text.

Stage 1: Reading comprehension warm-up

Description:	Trainees will silently read a SL parallel text of similar length and content to the text that will be sight translated. They will then answer a series of comprehension questions in the TL, as asked by the trainer
Duration:	45 sec. for reading, followed by a 2-3 min. question/answer session
Purpose:	Provides initial practice in time-constrained reading, SL general meaning extraction and corresponding transfer and TL articulation
Number of trainees involved:	Entire group; the trainer will call on trainees at random to answer questions, making sure that each trainee answers at least one question

Objective:

The primary objective here is to habituate trainees to processing and mediating across languages under deliberate time constraints. Answering comprehension questions requires focused attention on the “bigger picture” and context of the ST. Though not a translation activity *per se*, this warm-up activity calls on trainees to transcend beyond lexical and grammatical surface structure constructs in transferring general meaning – a fundamental translation strategy which professional translators undertake with great efficacy as they paraphrase text.

Stage 2: Paraphrasing warm-up

Description:	Trainees will silently read a TL parallel text of similar length and content to the text that will be sight translated. They will then be asked to paraphrase the text in their own words on a sentence by sentence basis
Duration:	45 sec. for reading, followed by 3-4 min. for paraphrasing
Purpose:	Paraphrasing is intended to provide practice in transcending beyond surface-level words in rendering underlying general meaning
Number of trainees involved:	Trainees will take turns paraphrasing on a sentence-by-sentence basis until the entire text has been paraphrased, with each trainee paraphrasing at least one sentence

Objective:

Whereas cross-language deverbilization and meaning transfer were central to the previous stage, here the focus is on intra-language deverbilization. Having trainees paraphrase at the sentential level

(as opposed to the text as a whole) adds a level of granularity in meaning transfer. Rather than focusing on the basic gist of the text, trainees learn to break down and process meaning primarily at a lexico-syntactic level, as rendered in text chunks transcending beyond the one-word level, such as collocations, colligations, or phrases.

Stage 3: Source text scanning and mark-up

Description:	Trainees will silently read the ST to be sight translated, scan the text for potential transfer problem areas (lexical, syntactic, or stylistic in nature) and mark it up along these lines
Duration:	45 sec. for reading, followed by 3-4 min. of scanning and mark-up
Purpose:	Scanning and corresponding mark-up introduce the trainee to real-time holistic text processing and contextualization as pre-translation strategies
Number of trainees involved:	Each trainee will individually scan and mark up the ST based on unique linguistic and extralinguistic competencies (or lack thereof)

Objective:

This activity is intended primarily to encourage pre-translation monitoring, and, most importantly, the execution of problem recognition behavior. All of the pre-sight translation stages in this model collectively encourage the trainee to regard translation as a multi-stage, complex process. By engaging in focused attention on problem recognition, trainees are modeling expertise in the domain of metacognitive activity for purposes of uncertainty recognition and subsequent management. When all is said and done, it is hoped that trainees reflect back on this stage with the realization that investing

time in problem recognition sets the stage for more efficient overall translation.

Stage 4: Source text segmenting

Description:	In preparation for the sight translation to follow, trainees will segment the ST into personally-relevant translation units
Duration:	3-4 min.
Purpose:	Segmenting further encourages trainees to process the ST in lexical or syntactic chunks, as opposed to at the one-word level; an initial synthesis of problem recognition behavior and corresponding solution proposal behavior is fostered through focused attention on segmentation
Number of trainees involved:	Each trainee will individually segment the ST

Objective:

Here, extended problem recognition blends into initial stages of follow-up strategic planning (solution proposal behavior). For example, a trainee might initially recognize a polysemous word as potentially problematic during the preceding scanning stage. However, through segmentation, contextualization strategies address the problem and thereby trigger initial solution proposal behavior. Pre-translation segmenting further assists the trainee in coming to see translation as a multistage process dependent on continuous planning and monitoring. Through textual analysis, trainees model expertise by engaging in such planning and monitoring along more global lines and in pragmatic dimensions.

Stage 5: Sight translation

Description:	Trainees will sight translate the ST without access to any resources, maintaining as steady a flow as possible while generating a target text; this will be recorded in audio format for future analysis and revision
Duration:	As long as needed to sight translate the entire text at a steady pace
Purpose:	The confluence, manifestation and catalyzation of problem recognition behavior, deverbalization, and risk-taking strategies in the context of a real-time translation task
Number of trainees involved:	Each trainee will sight translate one sentence on a rotating basis until the entire text has been sight translated

Objective:

The resource-free task requires trainees to tap into their linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge, take risks, and strategically apply the skill set developed in stages one through four. A critical link is established between metacognitive planning and execution, and confidence is likely to grow as trainees realize their preparatory work is paying off. Again, for this to transpire, trainees need to block out both doubts and perfectionist tendencies, knowing that the same degree of precision expected in written translation is not expected here.

Before moving on to the subsequent steps of this model, the recorded sight translation will need to be documented and disseminated to the group of trainees in written format.

Stage 6: Post-sight translation play-back and disruption identification/classification

Description:	As the sight translation recording is played back, the trainees will create a protocol by marking up the written target text to document manners and textual levels of disruption. The “manner” categories are unnatural extended pauses (indicated by a P), repetitions (indicated by an R), filler words (indicated by an F), or any other noticeable breakdown (indicated by a B) in natural translation flow. The “textual level” categories are lexical (L), grammatical (G), or stylistic (S)
Duration:	Temporal constraints are no longer in place once this stage has been reached. Mark-up will occur on a sentence-by-sentence basis. Audio play-back will be paused after each sentence; ensuing group discussion and reached consensus will ensure for consistency in mark-up
Purpose:	The marked-up target text will serve as a process/behavior protocol, providing a point of departure for group discussion to follow during the next stage
Number of trainees involved:	Whole group, with trainees proposing and modifying mark-up on a sentence-by-sentence basis

Objective:

Through the establishment of a sight translation protocol, trainees engage in follow-up problem recognition, this time coinciding with monitoring behavior for evaluation purposes. The trainer, who is

facilitating (as opposed to leading) the generation of this protocol, should emphasize that, at this stage, processes and behaviors are being evaluated – not the product as such from a qualitative perspective.

Stage 7: Retrospection

Description:	A group-based discussion will focus on possible explanations as to why disruptions occurred where and when they did, and what could have been (or was) done to address the problems underlying disruption
Duration:	Retrospection will take place on a sentence-by-sentence basis, to be repeated until all occurrences of disruption have been addressed
Purpose:	Trainees will get a better feel for the textual levels at which disruption occurred as well as and the corresponding processes and strategies undertaken in their presence, thereby further fostering metacognitive awareness
Number of trainees involved:	Whole group, with the individual trainee who generated each corresponding sight translated sentence opening retrospection, followed by comments from others

Objective:

Stage 7 is very much a continuum of stage 6. The encoding procedures conducted during the previous stage were intended to facilitate discussion and bring particularly the notion of textual level into sharper focus. The emphasis here is on self-reflection and discovery, both hallmarks of metacognitive awareness, as trainees find and discuss explanations for why disruptions occurred when and

where they did. Trainees are provided with a platform for reflecting on the impact of pre-sight translation segmenting and paraphrasing strategies on the actual sight translation task, determining what forms of planning were successful, and where shortcomings still lie. Through the conglomeration of pre-sight translation problem recognition behavior and post- sight translation problem recognition behavior, trainees are truly immersed in metacognitive activity, examining their own “black box” of cognitive processes and translation strategies most likely to an extent never before experienced. This retrospection is deliberately free from “product bias”, driven by analysis of the processes rather than the qualitative evaluation (in the traditional sense of the word) of the product.

Stage 8: Scaffolding and modeling of meaning-based translation strategies

Description:	The trainer will demonstrate meaning-based translation by “thinking aloud” while tapping into linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge and engaging in deverbalization to address one or two of the areas of disruption encoded in the protocol. Trainees will then apply these same strategies in addressing the remaining documented areas of disruption* in the target text
Duration:	This stage will continue until the trainees have addressed each recognized problem area
Purpose:	Through solution proposal, trainees have the opportunity to directly apply the learned skills of deverbalization and linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge tapping when transferring meaning across languages
Number of trainees involved:	Following trainer demonstration, each trainee will propose strategies for dealing with a marked problem area individually, followed by whole-group discussion; this will continue on a rotating basis until all problem areas in the protocol have been addressed

*Note that not all occurrences of disruption are necessarily a result of deficiencies in strategy execution or indicators of stumbling blocks. For example, an extended pause may simply indicate a lengthy retrieval process as information passes from long-term memory to short-term memory prior to articulation in sight translation, as opposed to a problem as such. Trainer and trainees will collectively decide on which disruptions are indicative of processing or strategy breakdown (and therefore in need of re-examination in the following stages of this model) and which are not.

Objective:

From a metacognition perspective, trainees are modeling expertise during this stage by establishing critical, linear links between problem recognition, solution proposal, and solution evaluation behavior. Trainer scaffolding should instil confidence in the trainees to exhibit similar degrees of freedom and flexibility in departing from surface structure lexis and syntax when transferring meaning. Like the trainer, the trainees should think aloud as they address problems, as studies have suggested a strong link between the direct articulation of problems and solutions and success in metacognitive activity for purposes of uncertainty management (Angelone forthcoming). Articulation can go a long way in contributing to the proceduralization of metacognitive behavior, even though it likely will not become a standard practice applied during future translation tasks.

Stage 9: Post-sight translation revision and reformulation

Description:	In pairs, trainees will now go back and revise the deverbilized target text, this time with full access to any and all resources traditionally used in written translation, in order to add needed degrees of lexical or syntactic precision and enhance stylistics
Duration:	A maximum of 20 minutes. Reintroducing a time constraint at this stage is intended to further discourage tendencies to get bogged down by literal translation attempts and translation resource dependency
Purpose:	Help trainees realize the value of having a deverbilized TT firmly in place <i>prior</i> to beginning the editing and revision process. The tandem-based format is intended to facilitate the articulation and exchange of post-sight translation monitoring behavior
Number of trainees involved:	Trainees will be working in pairs

Objective:

This stage marks the first in this model where translation resources can be utilized. The primary intention here is for trainees to model the behavior of professional translators in utilizing such resources to refine meaning found in already-existing target text as opposed to relying on them to establish meaning “from scratch”. Trainees will have the opportunity to see just how much they “know” and were able to successfully translate without relying on external assistance, gaining much-needed confidence in their instincts and metacognitive capacities in the process. Only during the last two stages of this sight

translation model does the focus on translation processes gradually shift to their manifestation as a translation product.

Stage 10: Sharing of revised target texts

Description:	Pairs will share their revised TTs for comparative purposes and whole-group discussion; the focus will be on the location and manner of revisions made when transitioning from the deverbilized “draft” to its “final” version
Duration:	As long as needed for sharing and discussion
Purpose:	Sharing establishes an awareness of differences between a sight translated text and a revised written translation, and of how the existence of an already-generated deverbilized target text facilitates the revision process
Number of trainees involved:	Whole group, with each pair taking turns in describing strategies undertaken during the revision process

Objective:

This final stage turns attention primarily to revised written translation, and focuses more on the product as such than any of the other nine stages preceding it. Through hands-on practice and discussion, trainees learn how to utilize translation resources in a new manner – for purposes of text *refinement* rather than generation. The modus operandi driving this sight translation activity as a whole is having trainees learn to trust themselves and their own metacognitive capacities, and come to regard them as standing on equal footing with the assistive potential of external resources. Note that the revised text produced during this stage is referred to as

“final” (in quotes). Again, this activity is geared towards the sight translation of a general language text, and it is hoped that multiple, successful “final” solutions will surface during sharing, as opposed to one definitive version, adding to the spirit of flexibility and deverbalization already fostered.

Now that the sight translation model has been presented, in conclusion it is important to return to the title of this paper, and, in doing so, reiterate three of the most solid arguments for integrating sight translation as a core curricular component in the training of early-stage translators:

- 1) By demanding both linguistic and extralinguistic textual analysis, sight translation encourages trainees to translate beyond the word-level in generating a meaning-driven, deverbalized target text.
- 2) Through the creation and follow-up analyses of sight translation protocols, trainees become more cognizant of the *processes* underlying and guiding their own translation behavior, in turn fostering metacognitive awareness and contributing to the proceduralization of its application.
- 3) By having trainees model expertise in metacognitive behavior and learn to trust their instincts, sight translation couples *self-awareness* with *self-confidence* – “two important psychological features which are part of the make-up of a professional translator” and “cognitive tools needed for professional work” (Kusmaul 1995, p. 32).

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Teaching and learning conference interpreting for humanitarian purposes: breaking the codes at social forums

Maria Brander de la Iglesia
University of Salamanca, Spain

Abstract

The United Nations have recently issued various documents calling for the protection of language diversity and the preservation of indigenous languages (UNESCO, 2008). The volunteers of Babels, the network of volunteer interpreters for Social Forums, have started to develop a free software environment that will facilitate the teaching and learning of volunteer interpreting in specific humanitarian contexts. One of Babels' founding principles is the possibility for everyone at Social Forums to express themselves in the language of their choice (Babels' Charter, 2004). Such a principle implies that interpretation should be good enough to be understood, ideally in any language chosen, hence the need to address the issue of quality and ad-hoc training and of finding viable solutions to improve training tools. This paper aims to provide the background for the development of DidactiBels, a portmanteau word for "Didactic Issues in Babels", for the training of ad-hoc volunteer interpreters of minorised languages and peoples in the months preceding a Social Forum.

1 The codebreakers: meet the interpreters

Browsing the website of the United Nations Development Programme in search for a suitable speech, an interpreter trainer can easily find a direct link to the free download of *The Codebreakers*¹, a 2006 BBC World documentary explaining how least developed countries are using FOSS (free, open-source software) applications for humanitarian development. Free and open source has become the rage, be it in education or in other aspects where the development of LDCs can be encouraged. One example among many of such projects is the Open Source Simple Computer for Agriculture in Rural Areas (OSCAR), which involves the prototyping of a free software application for weed identification and control of the rice and wheat crop systems of the Indo-Gangetic Plains. An increasing number of similar examples of free software initiatives have appeared since across the world. In the field of education, the State of Paraná in Brazil has developed a software application called APC (Ambiente Pedagógico Colaborativo) which includes a web portal and a teaching environment using Free and Open Source Software (FOSS) development tools. The portal is released as FOSS itself, as any content created for it is also free², providing subject materials and enabling teachers to collaborate and develop course contents. The project also “aims to contribute towards increasing the Portuguese content of the Internet as these materials will be published in Portuguese” (IOSN: 2006).

1 For more information on this documentary, go to:

<http://www.apdip.net/news/fosdoc>

To download the documentary for free, go to: <http://video.google.com>

2 For more information about this project and others, go to

<http://www.iosn.net/publications/case-studies>

For years, despite a growing need for the training of ad-hoc volunteer interpreters for Social Forums³, it seemed that the subject of 'preparing' ad-hoc volunteers or teaching volunteer interpreting remained in 'deontological limbo'. Indeed, the need for what could be called a 'training of sorts' had become especially visible at the larger World Social Forums for ad-hoc interpreters for minorised languages. Minorised peoples and their languages have been traditionally ignored by governments, funding institutions, international organisms and, as a consequence, interpreting schools worldwide. A group of volunteers with Babels have been trying to find long-term and inexpensive solutions to the issue of training. The resulting project, DidactiBels, is a project for the creation of a copylefted free software⁴ environment for the training of ad-hoc volunteer interpreters in the months preceding a Social Forum, created in the spirit of the Open Learning Model described by Himanen (2001) in his 'hacker ethic'⁵.

I will first give a few definitions in order to introduce the concept of 'interpreting for development'. I will then show how DidactiBels' ethical background corresponds to the principles of the World Social Forum and the Babels' Charter. Then, I will contextualise the project

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- 3 A World Social Forum is an annual meeting held by members of the alter-globalisation movement to coordinate world campaigns, share and refine organizing strategies, and inform each other about movements from around the world and their issues (source: Wikipedia). The international nature of the larger Social Forums and their interpreting needs made way for the creation of Babels.
 - 4 For more information on the benefits of free software (vs. commercial) solutions see "On Fallibility, Atonement, Redemption, Trust and other Arcane Technical Concepts" (Stephenson:1999).
 - 5 In this article, the word 'hacker' refers to a person in the free software and open source movement, as opposed to the term 'cracker', describing a person involved in unauthorised circumvention of computer security (source: Wikipedia).

by outlining its background and the possibility of finding shared values within the translation and interpreting community. Lastly, I will deal with the practical implementation of the project and its past and present settings within the 'sit-prep' (situational preparation)⁶ project, describing how DidactiBels was conceived, its future contents, motivations and ideological background within the network Babels⁷ and the alterglobalist movement⁸.

If we bear in mind the distinction between 'modality' and 'context', that is, between the techniques acquired for interpreting (e.g. consecutive) and the physical place we practise them in, we can very easily see that:

1. what has traditionally been called 'conference interpreting' comprises at least the four techniques mentioned below.
2. the techniques that traditionally have defined 'conference interpreting' that is, simultaneous and consecutive, are used in most other modalities as well, be it in the traditional settings, or in a more ad-hoc manner.

The clearest examples of this are 'chuchotage', or whispering, in which the efforts are the same as in simultaneous interpreting (Gile: 1997), and 'liaison interpreting', considered a two-way consecutive,

6 For more information on the sit-prep project see 'The Forerunners of DidactiBels'.

7 Babels is a network of volunteer interpreters created in 2002 for Social Forums (website: www.babels.org).

8 I would like to thank the many Babelitos who contributed to this project. This paper does not represent the views of the entire Babels network, and has been written using open-source and collaborative tools, in the hope that all members of the translation and interpreting community (with or without formal training) may be able to find universally-shared values (Cortina: 1997) and make Another World Possible.

plus an added intercultural effort (Abril et al.: 2001, Collados et al.:2001 and Collados and Fernández: 2001), In the table below, I use only some of the seven hypertexts introduced by Pöchhaker in 1995 for conference interpreting (Díaz Laborda, 2000).

Technique	Context			Conferences (thematically)		
	Public-service interpreting					
	Social services (health-services, schools, refugees etc.)	Justice-related (Court Interpreting, Police etc.)	Meetings (business, tourism etc.)	International organizations (e.g. UN, EU)	Humanitarian (e.g. NGOs)	Private sector, Universities etc.
Simultaneous (in-booth or whispering)	X	X	X	X	X	
Consecutive (one-way or liaison)	X	X	X	X	X	X
Sight translation	X	X	X	X	X	X
Simultaneous with text etc.	X	X	X	X	X	

Thus, 'interpreting for development' would include humanitarian-related conference interpreting, using simultaneous or consecutive techniques, but also interpreting in any other context where NGOs and other international entities interact in a multilingual environment, be they international organisations or part of the social services of a given country.

On the other hand, the expression 'volunteer interpreting for development' would comprise interpreting in meetings and conferences for non-profit entities with lack of funding. This would specifically *never* include government-driven initiatives or sufficiently-funded private projects, nor Public Service Interpreting,

which should be done by professional interpreters and paid accordingly:

In other words, we do not intend that the voluntary nature of work performed should serve as an excuse for the creation of what is beginning to be called a “third sector,” which would amount to the utilization of volunteer work and non-profit organizations together with private initiative to organize, at low cost, services which in our opinion ought to be supplied by the public sector, the only one capable of the coverage necessary. De Manuel et al. (2004)

It is essential here to underline the difference between the concept of 'volunteer interpreter' and the at times misunderstood view of 'unpaid unprofessional interpreter' who may incur in unfair competition or dumping if he or she accepts working for free for a client who can indeed afford it. To mention but two examples of widely-accepted behaviour according to professional standards, a trained interpreter who works pro-bono for people who cannot afford it will probably perform other paid humanitarian work as well in his regular work for well-funded entities; an ad-hoc volunteer interpreter working for minorised languages and peoples in a third-world country will need to be trained for free, and volunteer professional trainers in interpreting are best equipped to help them out.

2 Didactibels and the notion of freedom

DidactiBels, like Babels, agrees with the Charter of Principles of the Social Forum (2001), as well as to those of Babels' Founding Charter (2004). Among its objectives, the Charter defines Babels as a “workshop for the evolution of languages, expressions, and their terminological differences; proposals for translation of technical terms or ideas, taking into account their linguistic heritage” (Babels'

Founding Charter, 2004). Similarly, the fourth principle of the Social Forum Charter (2001), which has also been advocated for by Babels and ALIS⁹, states:

The alternatives proposed at the World Social Forum stand in opposition to a process of globalization commanded by the large multinational corporations and by the governments and international institutions at the service of those corporations' interests, with the complicity of national governments. They are designed to ensure that globalization in solidarity will prevail as a new stage in world history. This will respect universal human rights, and those of all citizens – men and women – of all nations and the environment and will rest on democratic international systems and institutions at the service of social justice, equality and the sovereignty of peoples (Charter of Principles, 2001).

The ALIS system, based on free software alternatives, has since the start of the alterglobalist movement become a key player in the improvement of work conditions for interpreters at Social Forums. The volunteer activists and technicians involved in its development, together with Babels members, have argued that translation and interpreting for Babels and ALIS are not simply 'free' in the sense of 'unpaid work' (Jung and Brander, 2007). Free software alternatives are used in Babels as a matter of principle, and the fact that volunteer work is also done for free is a secondary concern compared with the volunteers' motivations and objectives (Brailowsky and Brander, 2009). Applied to education in the Open Learning Model (Himanen, 2001: 64, 72), these principles are fundamental for the creation of any

9 ALIS, Alternative Interpretation System, constituted by a group of activist technicians, provide the equipment used in some Social Forums. For more information on how the ALIS console works, go to <http://www.babels.org/article602.html>

training-related materials in Babels. The Open Learning Model is based on critical dialogue and non-hierarchical effectiveness, since authority is open to anyone on the basis of achievement and peer reviewing, in a spirit of free knowledge for all, hence the use of the word 'free' as in 'free speech' and not as in 'free beer', also applicable to volunteer translation on the Internet (Jung and Brander, 2007).

3 Didactibels, a didactic framework for social forum interpreting

3.1 The forerunners of DidactiBels: sit-preps and guides

The concept of 'sit-prep' (situational preparation, forerunner of DidactiBels) was developed during the Babels General Meeting in Brussels in 2004, in a workshop on 'Quality of Interpretation in Social Forums'. A 'sit-prep CD' included several digitised videos of conferences at previous Forums, with explanations and basic instructions for its use. It was meant for the sole purpose of ascertaining whether a volunteer could interpret, and was to be used in a controlled situation where a professional interpreter or lecturer would be able to listen to the volunteer's performance. According to the proceedings of that first meeting,

- Simulation of booth activities is a major requirement; these will focus both on developing the practice of simultaneous interpretation and understanding the technical requirements of a real (or virtual) booth
- Simultaneous interpretation will be practised using recorded audio or video transcripts (speeches) of former Forums (ESF, WSF).

- Technical capacity will be developed by learning to use the Nomad¹⁰ system (Babels wiki, 2004)

The 'sit-prep' created a “situation as close as possible to how interpretation is experienced in a Social Forum, allowing the interpreter to practice and get used to the likely conditions” (Babels, 2005). In an ideal situation, the number of volunteer professionals and advanced interpreting students for a given language combination would suffice for the needs of a Social Forum, and the 'sit-preps' would be used to try out newcomers, or for self-monitoring of bilingual volunteers with previous training. Among other volunteer interpreters, the meeting was attended by a teacher who had already created a database of videos of Social Forums and other conferences for training purposes at the University of Granada, and who was also working on the subject for his doctoral thesis (De Manuel, 2006). The 'sit-preps' were used, for the first time, with local success in the months preceding the European Social Forum in London in 2004, when there was an insufficient number of professional volunteers for a given language combination.

The 'sit-prep' idea was taken a step further in 2005 for the World Social Forum in Porto Alegre; DVDs were distributed and a total of 80 to 100 volunteers met every week from 3 to 5 hours, for a period of 3 weeks to 4 months before the event took place in different parts of South America. In 2005, a short technical document was posted on the Babels website, with the aim of explaining how the project started and guiding users through the process step by step (Babels, 2005).

A year later, the guides, together with the lexicons¹¹ (Babels, 2004c), were used in preparation for the 2006 European Social Forum in Athens.

10 The Nomad console is the forerunner of ALIS.

3.2 The Birth of DidactiBels

It was not until the months preceding the second Babels International Meeting in Paris, 2006, that different members of Babels around the world realised that the concept of 'sit-prep' was becoming obsolete, as a CD with speeches did not suffice to cover the needs for training of ad-hoc volunteers interpreters. During the meeting, they came up with the long-term project of putting together their individual proposals in order to improve the process of training and selection in Babels. At the 'Training and Selection' workshop, after an ambitious, and perhaps overcrowded, first encounter, separate 'Selection' and 'Training' workshops were scheduled for the last day of the International Meeting. It soon became clear that some of the proposals were selection-oriented, while others were based on the training experience of several members. It is not the purpose of this paper to study in detail selection processes in Babels, although it was obvious to all those attending the first workshop in Paris that training and selection are intimately related and subject to improvement. Selection is more of a political issue within Babels, as it entails some kind of power on the part on those who insist on selecting other volunteers, a subject bringing endless ethical discussions among those who wish to discuss such issues. This paper aims to focus only on points agreed upon by consensus (unanimously or by common assent) by those attending the workshop on 'Training'.

The last workshop on 'Training' was attended by twelve people (Babels wiki, 2006) who had made public their proposals beforehand by means of the Babels Forum webpage¹². Among the issues raised in

11 The Lexicons are multilingual glossaries on specific Forum-related subjects and constitute another long-term project in Babels.

12 See <http://www.babels.org/forum/viewtopic.php?f=38&t=714>

the discussion were the production, processing and distribution of videos of Social Forum-related events for the purpose of training ad-hoc volunteers in specific language combinations. Also discussed was the merging of three proposals (from Colombia, Venezuela and Spain) for the provision of basic training needs in countries where there are not enough existing trained volunteer interpreters (e.g. for minorised languages and peoples).

This is how DidactiBels was born. From the start, it was meant to be a long-term project – perhaps an ambitious one, yet undoubtedly not impossible to implement in the years to come. The name of the project was discussed, as was the idea of merging the three initial proposals in a wiki. Every aspect was agreed upon by consensus. It was decided that the appropriate type of copyleft should be found and explained to other members so as to protect such an extraordinary amount of work from “being used for profit by some heartless stranger with an agenda” (Babels wiki, 2006).

The author of this paper attended the meeting and was involved from the start in the collective effort producing the sit-prep and DidactiBels projects as well as finding the appropriate copyleft license for them. The split between “gratis” and “libre” (‘free’ as in ‘free beer’ vs. ‘free’ as in ‘free speech’) also applied here to DidactiBels defines the main reasons for involvement in FLOSS¹³ projects: empowering the poor and advancing the state of the art, in the spirit in which Himanen (2001) conceived his Hacker Ethic. That is, valuing publication above all, meaning that it is obscene for any mathematician or engineer to be required to solve any problem that any other has ever solved, a principle which has been embraced by academics in other fields of study.

13 FLOSS: Free, Libre, Open Source Software. Popular examples are Linux and Firefox.

3.3 The Contents of DidactiBels

Logistics were also discussed and agreed upon. It was decided that a DidactiBels webpage and wiki with basic guidance and downloads would be created within the Babels website; that the contents would be agreed upon by consensus; that a first server could be used for the speeches, provisionally hosted at the University of Granada, where hundreds of digitised speeches were already being kept and subsequently transcribed for a research project by students in Granada. Ideally, more servers around the world would be found to decentralise the project, perhaps by contacting Linux networks and people in each country ready to record and transcribe in other regions.

The need for maintenance and growth of the resulting project included the processing of existing material: transcriptions of the speeches and exercises that had been done by students in Granada¹⁴, but also the creation of more groups of recording volunteers and transcribers worldwide, in order to design exercises in different language combinations, provisionally adopting as a model that offered by the merging of the three initial proposals from Colombia, Venezuela and Spain. 'TranscriBels: Transcriptions in Babels' was conceived within DidactiBels to this effect, to facilitate the division of workload and the expansion and decentralisation of the project, even before more volunteers willing to record speeches made in Social Forums elsewhere were found. Its immediate objective was to obtain a minimum number of transcriptions of real speeches in each language needed, as well as the adoption of a document on the

14 Some of the members of Babels and this association have been students or lecturers in the mentioned University, hence the relationship between them.

formatting of transcription material, to avoid unnecessary repetition of work already done by volunteer students.

In the 2006 International Meeting, participants also discussed exercises and didactic use, advocating the creation and adoption of a *non-prescriptive* document or webpage where basic exercises would be explained, always bearing in mind the tools (or complete lack thereof) available on each occasion and for how long they would be accessible. It was agreed that there would have to be an option for working only with audio (in case of slow Internet connections making streaming difficult, or lack of easy access to computers in the region), as well as printable transcriptions and accompanying exercises, because Babels' coordinators in many countries may not be acquainted with the interpreting / teaching world, or the interpreter training community, in some cases because it does not exist in their region as such. In other cases, independent co-ordinations within the flat structure of Babels might wish to adopt their own guidelines. Co-ordinators and volunteers may lack time, availability or resources (offices, computers, etc.). Consequently, participants during the meeting discussed the need for a basic document offering core guidance before developing the whole project, in order to improve quality by first fulfilling the most compelling needs, and solving urgent problems that arise in the training and selection processes which precede a Social Forum. Participants also called for a change in the way the sit-preps are distributed, as well as for the need to liaise with ALIS and the ESF Memory project¹⁵ in order to exchange material for training. Finally, it was suggested to create a document on how and when it is possible to find and record more training

15 The memory project aims to keep recordings of what has been discussed in a given Forum. See, for instance, <http://www.fse-esf.org/spip.php?article163>.

material, given the need for more speeches in minorised languages and peoples (Babels wiki, 2006).

To conclude, it is worth mentioning that the project was further developed in the months preceding the European Social Forum in Malmö (2008)¹⁶. These training materials and resources are now being used by members of Babels worldwide to prepare Social-Forum related events lacking the necessary funding. The project has also inspired a specialised distance course on the Open CourseWare platform of the University of Salamanca (OCW-USAL: 2008). The next workshop on Social-Forum interpreter training will take place in Limerick, Ireland, during AGIS, the Action week for Global Information Sharing, a meeting of solidary translation and interpreting professionals who work for a variety of NGOs.

4 The future of Didactibels

This paper aims not only to present the DidactiBels project, but especially to encourage anyone who already shares our values and principles¹⁷ and would like to participate in its development to join Babels. The project has only started, and it will continue for as long as there still are minorised peoples with a need to be understood in their own language.

Appropriate training materials in the languages of both the colonised and the colonisers become obsolete, the Social Forum changes, as does the alterglobalisation movement, people move on and new volunteers arrive. One of the many advantages of a flat structure is

16 For more information on this project see the self-assessment report on training for the Malmö ESF <http://www.babels.org/wiki/Esf08TrainingReport>

17 To find out whether you agree with our principles see the Babels Charter of principles (2004) <http://www.babels.org/article21.html> and also the Founding Charter of Principles of the Social Forum: <http://www.portoalegre2002.org/default.html>

interdisciplinarity, and the freedom that comes from volunteer work in social movements. One of its disadvantages is that for long periods of time people have to work in other areas in order to earn a living. Hence the importance of the participation of lecturers and students worldwide in bestowing the meaning of 'professional interpreting' with a sense of ethos.¹⁸

Unfortunately, free software has its limits, not only academically and in the social sciences, but also in a practical manner, in countries where it is virtually impossible to receive an education for free, yet alone 'training' in more complex skills or fields of study. An answer to this challenge could come in the form of a tool like DidactiBels capable of encouraging the training and empowerment of Babels members worldwide, independently of their resources or language combination. Despite our differing opinions on a variety of subjects and the fact that Babels is heterogeneous, there is a general consensus on the need for a tool empowering minorised languages and peoples. DidactiBels is being developed in the hope of one day achieving this empowerment through the quality of volunteer work, freedom of spirit and the will to learn.

Babels offers untapped resources, as do other associations and networks of volunteer translators and interpreters, such as the Rosetta Foundation, Translators without Borders or Tlaxcala (Brander and Brailowsky, 2009).

Translation and interpreting schools, professional associations, translators and interpreters, lecturers, and society in general, could reflect upon the benefits of volunteer interpreting for development and its effects when reconsidering hierarchies at the time of

18 Not to be confused with the concept of 'deontology' or 'work ethics'. For more information see Brailowsky and Brander (2009) and Brander de la Iglesia (forthcoming).

conceptualising the profession. Teachers and lecturers can, or perhaps even should, help in the creation of intercultural societies, as proposed by Cortina (1997:177), Morin (1999, 2003), and the UNESCO (1998, 2003), among many others. The concept of education based on universally-shared values proposed by Cortina (1997) is undoubtedly linked to that of constructivist approaches in translator education (Kiraly, 2000) and of critical pedagogy (Kanpol, 1999), an approach that endeavours to help the students to question and respond to any form of domination, to achieve critical consciousness and understand the deep meaning, root causes, social context and ideology of a given discourse.

Yet regardless of the methodology chosen by teachers, lecturers and researchers, or the didactic framework adopted, there are common traits shared by vocational teachers around the world. In the words of Susan George,

The many teachers and academics in the global justice movement are professional knowledge workers and they can play an irreplaceable role because they spend their lives trying to inspire students of all ages with the desire to learn. For the movement, these teachers and researchers are a precious resource but one which has too often been squandered (George, 2004:200).

Translation and interpreting teachers must not be an exception. As Susan George (2004) said: “Another World is Possible If... Educators Educate”.

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Initiatives and evaluation of the teaching-learning process in translation training

María-Dolores Olvera-Lobo
and Juncal Gutiérrez-Artacho
University of Granada, Spain

Abstract

Nowadays it is essential to know about information and communication technologies (ICT). The discipline of translation is not unaware of this trend, because ICTs have changed and developed the actual translation profession. Translation training is more than learning a proficient command of languages, because translators must also develop other highly important skills like the access and management of information resources.

A group of teachers from different departments of University of Granada (Spain) have developed and applied a series of new innovative learning projects. These initiatives have tried to go into the translation teaching from the information society perspective and the demands of translation market. This group has created and developed a “Professional Approach to Translator Training” (PATT), which builds a dynamic, virtual model of translation briefs and familiarizes students with real-life work environments and tasks. This didactic approach combines elements of role-play, team-based task learning, case study and simulation in an innovative e-learning environment that functions via a collaborative platform. In addition, we have drawn up some didactic tools like a work guide, a Digital Library for Translation, and some interactive multimedia tutorials.

These tools are intended to assess the impact of this innovation on the students. It also seeks to determine their levels of knowledge and their capabilities as ICT users.

1 Introduction

Information and communication technologies (ICT) have an important role in our society because they are, either implicit or explicit, in our main daily activities. Nowadays it is a requirement to know and manage the technologies which enable the access to information. In some labor areas, being competence in market consists on being able to use information. So, translation is a paradigmatic task in this context.

The gradual introduction of new technologies in the undergraduate teaching and classroom is necessary for future workers (Hong, 2002; TTEL, 2001). This is very important, in particular, in degree programs at preparing professional translators (Ramirez & Secara, 2008). Translation is a prototypical teleworking profession where translators are almost obliged to make use of these technologies every day. Formative activities relating ITC and training can be originated and justified by some important circumstances: a) a strong economy (at least, these last few years) has encouraged a constant development of ITCs; b) the real growing of affordable and available information in all the formats; c) the fact that information is becoming more heterogeneous; and d) the real need of the users of being constantly updated on the most recent developments in every discipline.

The process of ITCs' implementation has evolved some important changes in translation training: new activities' areas are emerging (localization, audio description, subtitling); translators have the possibility to have the original text, the resources and information sources in electronic format; and some useful informative tools are appearing which help translators' work (automatic translation systems, translation memories, word counters, and so on).

Today's translators can define themselves as multilingual communicators with command of some necessary tools. Translation training is more than learning a proficient command of languages, because translators must also develop other highly important skills in other different subjects. But it does not mean that language competence has become less important, on the contrary, it is only one facet of the essential sub-competences to acquire a real translator competence (Kelly, 2000). ITCs have greatly helped translator's work, exactly facing up to labor market, so these technologies have to be an important role in translation training (Archer, 2002; Askeave, 2000). The syllabus of the Granada University's four-year first-degree program in Translation and Interpreting includes some courses of different disciplines. These courses set off the linguistic and traditional translation modules in order to give the students the correct training. Disciplines like documentation, multimedia programming, terminology and professional management have an important role in translators' training, because they are absolutely necessary in labor market.

The purpose of encouraging a translation teaching based on information society and translation market, a group of teachers from different departments of Granada University have developed and applied new innovative learning projects. The main idea is to carry out a transversal training focused on the relationship between students and the implementation of knowledge and skills about the development of translation process. So we have applied a "Professional Approach to Translator Training" (PATT), based on these ideas (Olvera et al. 2007, 2008b), and we have developed other related tools.

2 Methodology

According to Olvera and colleagues (2005), translation market can be defined like global, decentralized, specialized, dynamic, virtual and exigent. While a command of languages and a high understanding of text subject are still generally considered the cornerstone of quality for the professional translator, other highly important translation tasks incorporate the management and use of a wide range of information and communication resources. Tasks in the translation process include documentation, terminology, desktop publishing and handling client and target reader relations.

Today, the Internet is the greatest source of information in the world, provides rapid access to information irrespective of geographical location. Consequently, gathering the information needed to understand correctly a source text has been considerably reduced. It is a great advantage because translators can take it up the major part of the time required to produce the translation. However, today's translator must develop research strategies and evaluate the quality of information without the help of other professionals (librarians or subject matter specialist) who used to carry out these tasks and were so vital to the success of the translators' work .

Terminology has followed a similar way, as according to Wright & Wright (1997), it is more important to achieve some skills for the acquisition and management of information than to be a specialist in this area. Once, the fundamental problem was gaining access to obscure sources of specialized terminology. Today, online and digital resources enable to access a wide range of updated lexicons, which guarantee a greater degree of precision than that expected by the specialists. All these facts have changed the terminological tasks and problems.

Layout (graphic design of the text) has undergone a real revolution because users can create a good quality publication using only a word processor or PC. In this context, translators are expected to be familiar with some requirements of companies, journals or clients have accustomed us to. So it is compulsory that translation students learn some design and layout skills during the degree.

In addition, we have to consider the opportunities opened up by the telecommunications. Translation market has changed to be a local market in a worldwide one (Muñoz, 2000). It is very usual that translators and their clients never meet each other face to face, and they will communicate exclusively via Internet. But this is just one aspect of the phenomenon. The change to an information society has provoked new kind of translations with different formats.

From the reception of work to the delivery of the final product, the translator has to do several tasks organized in some stages: documentation stage in both languages, terminology stage, translation stage, revision stage and layout and publish stage. So, the translation process involves different tasks which are related and set aside in order to give a good translation. When a translator works alone, they have to complete every stage. But when they work in teams, the tasks are divided and assigned to different people. The increase of translation agencies encourages this reality. The best idea would be that the agencies have a group of staffs from different areas (documentalists, terminologists, translators, and specialists in other areas), but, normally these agencies are small and middle companies, so they usually hire versatile translators who can do all the tasks. All these tasks and resources have led to the creation of a new job: project manager. This reality is expressed perfectly in organizations where there is an amount of text to translate, like translation services of European Parliament. Nevertheless, in all the small and middle companies, there is always a project manager who uses to

revise and establish the relations with clients and freelancers. So they are a key element of the production system.

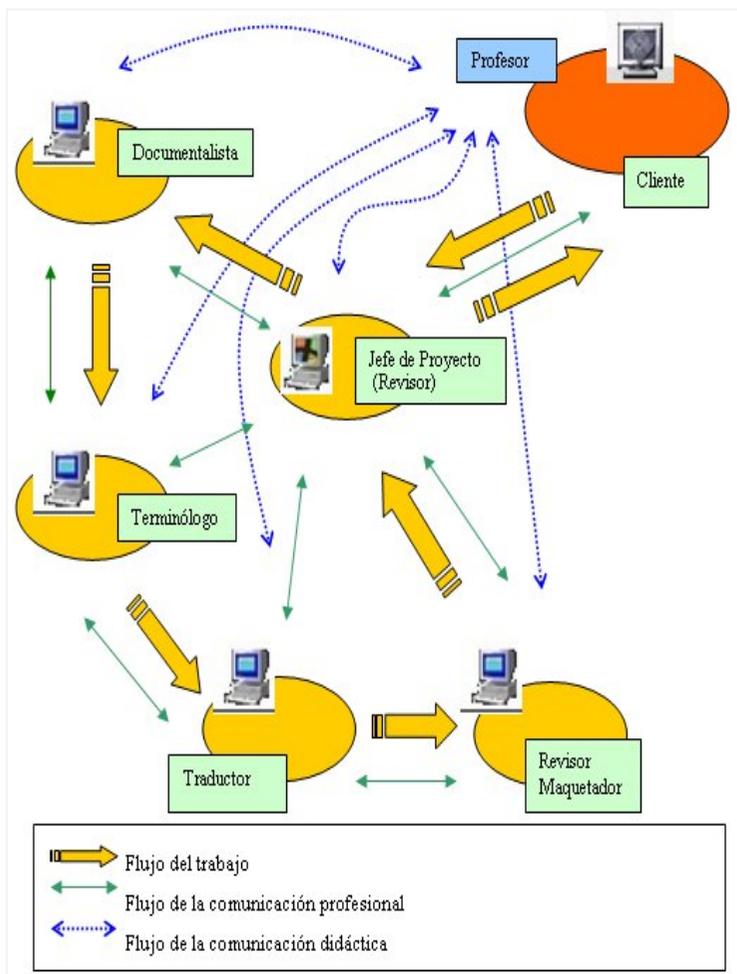


Figure 1. A professional approach to translator training application using basic support for cooperative work.

PATT is based on all these ideas (Figure 1). Compartmentalizing learning into course modules with only minimal coordination of

teaching does not allow an overall view of the full task within a professional process (La Rocca 2007) Neither does it facilitate learning about teleworking and teamworking, two of the main keys to success for professional translators. Our idea is to introduce a sequence of tasks into the translation subjects. Students belong to teams, where each individual student carries out tasks related to the specific module but which fulfills invaluable functions for the team as a whole. Our project performs the Bologna Declarations because it offers career-centered teaching with the focus on students and on the volume of work they undertake. Moreover, we want to favor the understanding of learning objectives for all participants. It also brings productive work routines into the classroom and helps students to internalize these in a real context that should later give them a competitive edge when they join the labor market.

PATT has been implemented on several courses of translation studies, where there are the following linguistic combinations: Spanish-French, Spanish-English, Spanish-Italian, Spanish-Portuguese and Spanish-Russian. Students are divided into translation teams, each one is in charge of managing a task. Like it shows in Figure 1, each group comprises five members, each of whom selects a different role (documentalist, terminologist, translator, reviser and typesetter, or project manager). For every new translation assignment, team members adopt a different role, so each student carries out all of the different tasks. Teachers have an important role because they must supervise student progress during the translation assignments. With our project, students can gain an insight into the role of each task within the translation process as a whole, before entering the job market.

Teleworking is crucial for translators' learning and work (Montalt, 2005; Olvera et al. 2009), so we want to encourage it by using PATT in the modules of the Faculty of Translation and Interpreting. PATT

enables students to publish their results and share their tasks on the web, strengthening their teleworking skills. In most translation courses, students have tutorial support for their translation assignments. PATT ensures more effective overall translator training by a virtual dimension. So we have created two tools that allow students to share problems or questions that may arise in the course of a translation: a web page and a collaborative work platform.

Our website is a meeting point and the main tool for developing our translation project. It has been developed in the last few years, providing new areas and updating the previous information. In our website, students can find information about our project, teachers, and course modules that are involved. Students can look up the work guide set out as a tutorial, designed to help students with the tasks and roles they undertake in the project. The website also provides links to information related to the translation briefs and the teams, online resources and a reference corpus in the Digital Library for Translation. There are also some interactive and multimedia tutorials where students can fill out the information given at the library. In addition, the website also gives access to a collaborative work platform and a restricted area, where students can exchange ideas, organize meetings, store documents, upload and download documents and files, and evaluate their knowledge with auto test. The website also enables teachers to monitor learning activities and evaluate their students.

Other important tool for the implementation of PATT is the online collaborative work platform. It enables students to organize their project, exchange documents, support inter-group communications and share their results (Peperati, 2009). We have analyzed different available platforms, and have used some of them for teaching purposes (Claronline, BSCW, Moodle, Swad). These platforms enable

the creation of a specific work space for each translation team where they can interchange documents, websites, files, and so on.

The work is organized in shared work space that facilitates online collaboration between team members. The use of organization benefits our project because it is perfect for planning and sharing out the different tasks of translation. In addition, using this tool enables students to exchange information more easily than with other tools (for example, File Transfer Protocol).

Another important advantage of our project is that we can promote self-learning. It is meant that our approach is nearer to that the teaching in European Space for higher education than the Spanish traditional model. Students can always contact their teachers or tutors for assistance, but they are responsible for meeting the standards and needs of the colleague who represents the next link in the chain of production. In addition, using virtual learning environment as pedagogical tools — also known as e-learning — allows more precise coverage of the learning needs of labor market. Students also show a higher level of satisfaction than the students using other traditional didactic models.

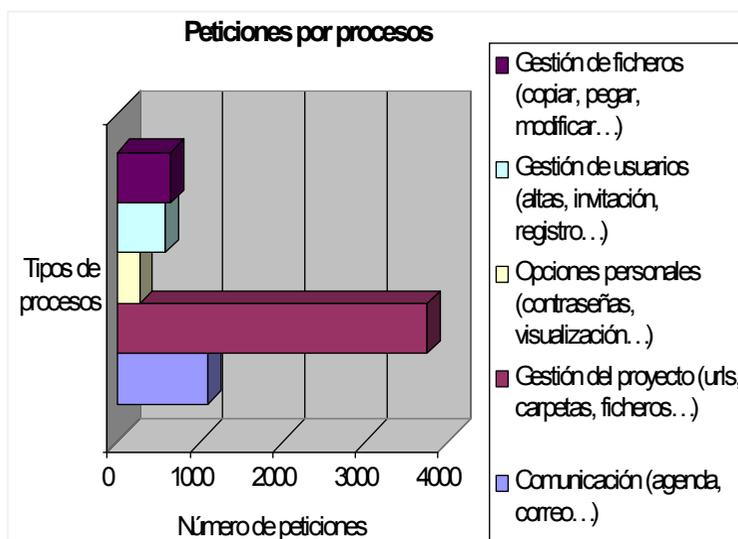
3 Results

We have carried out several investigations to evaluate the impact of our innovative project in some aspects of translation learning, and to determinate the opinion and level grade of student satisfaction after having participated in PATT. We have used different tools to evaluate them: figures of website use, analysis of log files, pre-course questionnaires, post-course questionnaires, and so on.

The analysis of log files is based on the entry of users' transactions (teachers and students) with the system. The log files are generated automatically, and they record the interactions between users and

the collaborative work platform. The workflow analysis of students' work shows us first-hand information about the student work environment. We can obtain some interesting data about student work, teleworking, teamworking, and about the project in general thanks to the analysis of the website server and the platform.

In the same way as found in Appelt's work (2001), the log files' analysis generated by the collaborative work platform shows us that the most used tools have been those which virtually manage the collaborative project (Senso et al. 2006), like file administration or linking documents, images or URLs.



Questionnaires have been the other evaluation tools we have developed and used in our project. Students' data was collected through two kinds of questionnaires, one before (pre-course questionnaires) and another after (post-course questionnaires) the implementation of PATT. Questionnaires were structured around different topics: computer knowledge, translation, teleworking,

teamworking, online collaborative work platform and prior and post knowledge about PATT and translation process.

In general, students have reported that they have gained knowledge on using computer thanks to participating in our project, as other studies have also reported (Olvera et al. 2008a). In addition, we have proved that students believe there has been an improvement in their documentation skills and their knowledge about word processing and web searching.

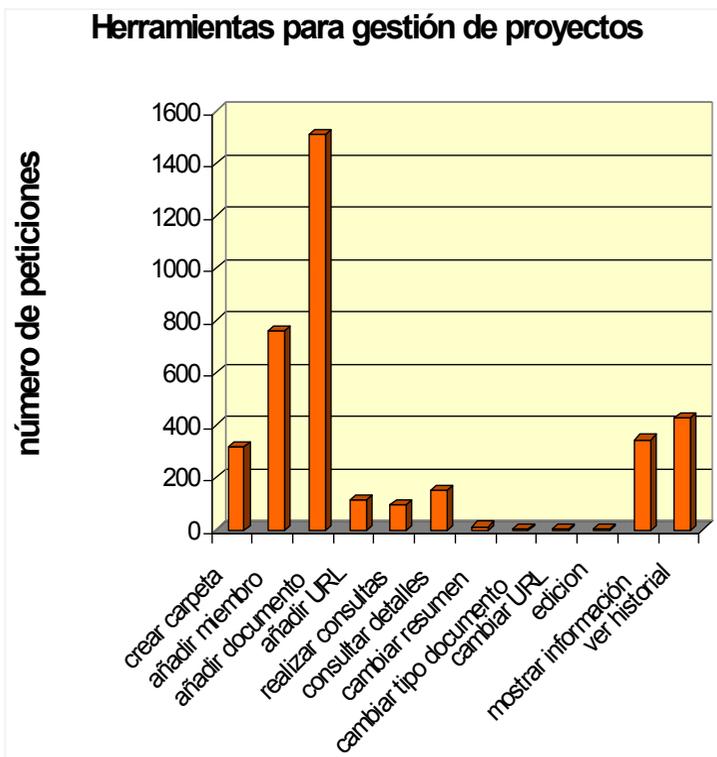


Figure 2. Evaluation of this project.

Thanks to a calculation of the variables surrounding collaborative teleworking, we find that students have a very good impression of

teleworking in the translation process. These statements confirm the suitability of this experience, not only for translation but also for promoting increased knowledge of teleworking among students. In fact, figures demonstrate this increase in knowledge, at least from the students' point of view.

Variables gathered about teamworking before and after PATT suggest that the virtual classroom has served to improve students' overall disposition towards teamworking and, as in the case of Hong, Lai & Holton (2003), it has found that students are generally satisfied with this aspect of translation tasks. Students declare that teamworking is one of the main differences between PATT and traditional models.

Relating to translation, evaluation of the results shows us that students feel their competence with different tasks (documentation, terminology, translation, revision and project manager) have widened in general. Through participating in the virtual environment, students have boosted their general confidence and feel more capable of carrying out any stage of the translation process. This last idea is confirmed by some student's responses to the post-course questionnaires. Some students also state that they are more familiar with the different tasks in this process and this broader understanding gives them a sense of being prepared better for the professional world.

4 Conclusions

This article presents a research study carried out at the Faculty of Translation and Interpreting of the University of Granada (Spain). Our aims are to develop several tools and projects in order to improve the translation teaching process, to technologically advance the translation process, and expose students to real-life tasks and

work environments, like teleworking and collaborative work platforms.

Our first objective was to familiarize the translation students with the working method of a translation agency. We have achieved this objective asking each student to do a task in the chain of production through the system created in our website and the other tools. Other important task was to obtain information about the influence of new technologies in translation teaching. Thanks to analysis of log files and pre- and post-course questionnaires, we have collected data to evaluate the experience. So, it has been possible to give a specific idea about the possibilities of new information technologies in didactic projects. It was necessary to create some tools and a specific model, PATT, to carry out all the previous tasks and to present a real work environment.

To achieve all these objectives, it was necessary to encourage teleworking, teamworking and interdisciplinary and/or combination of all courses implied in the four-year translation program. The Professional Approach to Translator Training (PATT) tries to combine all the possibilities appreciated from a theory-practice point of view.

Finally, thanks to the work developed in this project and the empiric results obtained, we can establish some methodological models where it has been proved and accepted. These approaches have been already established and it can be obtained a lot of advantages in future works. The data also has suggested using a collaborative work platform in translation courses is beneficial, enabling students to gain confidence and feel satisfied with their work. Nevertheless, we believe that it would be interesting to compare the results presented here to those obtained by other studies measuring increases in students' satisfaction and competence after completing translation briefs in the traditional way, without the virtual communication made possible by a collaborative work platform.

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Formative assessment in the interpreting classroom: using the portfolio with students beginning simultaneous interpreting

Marta Arumí Ribas
Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona

Abstract

This article analyses the immediate consequences of the sociocultural theory on assessment methods at a conceptual level as well as its application in the interpreting classroom. Following the premises of sociocultural theory, assessment takes on a dynamic nature. It should enable the instructor to observe what the student is capable of doing under guidance and stresses the close link between assessment and self-regulating processes. The article also presents a learning-centered approach for assessment in simultaneous interpreting classrooms which is aimed at making students jointly responsible for their learning. In addition, it addresses student portfolios from two viewpoints: as a self-regulation support instrument and as an assessment tool.

1 Introduction

The term “assessment” comes from the Latin *assidere*, meaning “to sit by / next to”. I would like to reclaim this metaphor from D. Kiraly (2000, p.140), who describes assessment as the process of sitting down and working with the student in a mutual search for new knowledge. This view is a far cry from the final exam assessment method in which students demonstrate the knowledge they have taken on board on the basis of what they have been formally taught. Assessment is a fundamental element of the teaching-learning process. The objective is to give feedback in the classroom which aids the student in constructing knowledge. Clearly, the kind of assessment a teacher uses is closely linked to the way he or she envisages learning and, consequently, the methodology used.

When it comes to assessment in conference interpreting training, one characteristic feature is that there is not only a lack of agreement among the various authors who have written on the matter, but also a lack of research and, more pertinently, a lack of research into formative assessment. Some authors have verified the need for such studies, as in the case of Hatim and Mason (1997, p.197) who express this in the following terms:

The assessment of translator performance is an activity which, despite being widespread, is under-researched and under-discussed. Universities, specialized university schools of translating and interpreting, selectors of translators and interpreters for government service and international institutions, all set tests or competitions in which performance is measured in some way. Yet, in comparison with the proliferation of publications on the teaching of translating – and an emergent literature on interpreter training – little is published on the ubiquitous activity of testing and evaluation.

In addition, this article deals with the immediate impact of very recent learning theories on assessment both at a conceptual level as well as applying them to the interpreting classroom. Based on the theoretical approaches covered, a pedagogical proposal for dealing with assessment in a simultaneous interpreting class is put forward which is learner-centred and aimed at making learners jointly responsible for their learning.

2 Socio-cultural theory and its implications for assessment

Accepting Vygotsky's line of reasoning, human beings have the capacity to regulate their own mental processes, including memory, attention, planning, perception, learning and development (Lantolf, 2002, p. 84). The fundamental concept behind what is known as sociocultural theory (Lantolf 2000, 2002) is mediation: higher cognitive processes that favour learning are promoted by interacting with other individuals. This means a student can gradually progress from an initial stage to another which is a little more advanced by interacting with others who are at the same level or a little more expert. These experts include both students and teachers. Seen from this perspective, the importance of interaction is not so much in the communicative dimension as such transmitting and receiving messages, but rather in the cognitive dimension, i.e. how learning processes are promoted by means of language. This dimension is where one finds the concept of "collective scaffolding", referring to the joint construction of explicit knowledge, new meanings, based on the knowledge that each member contributes by means of group interaction and negotiation in class. According to Ausubel (1968), a student's previous knowledge plays a key role in acquiring new information. Meaningful learning is only possible if the new knowledge is related to knowledge that has already been acquired.

From the very beginning of sociocultural learning theory, the basis of teaching should be to discover what students can do alone and where they need guidance. Consequently, assessment should be closely related to development, teaching and learning.

Vygotsky (1978) defines the Zone of Proximal Development (ZDP) as the cognitive state of the student that can be transformed by interacting with others. According to Vygotsky's premises, two levels of development can be discerned during the learning process: the current level which is what a student knows and knows how to do by her/himself, and her/his potential level, which is what the student is capable of doing with help from others.

According to Lantolf (2002, p.87), the most immediate consequence of applying sociocultural theory to assessment is that the traditional distinction between teaching and assessment should be renounced.

Lantolf (2002, p.87-88) likewise holds that:

ZDP is a performance space in which learning leads to development. It is a spaced oriented towards the future and not the past, as happens in the case of traditional assessment methods (...). Seen from this perspective, any kind of test which only evaluates what the student is able to do alone does not provide a complete picture of the student since it does not account for the future, that is, what the student is able to do with the mediation of another person or artefact.

In Coll's terms (1993, p. 174), "assessment activities provide us with inherently static snapshots of a process that by definition is dynamic." It would be pointless to try and reproduce a given performance, with the objective of demonstrating its reliability, or suggest that any kind of exam can be a true measure of an individual's competence, as a basis for its validity. The results of a single test cannot be used to make general judgements about other

situations which are likewise unique. Although it may be useful to determine to what degree student learning is significant at a given moment in time, we should not lose sight of the fact that a student's true potential usually reveals itself eventually (Coll, 1993, p. 174-175).

Here lies the need to completely rethink the role of assessment by incorporating the following three basic aspects:

1. The dynamic nature of the learning process.
2. What the student guidance is needed according to the parameters laid out in sociocultural theory and in the ZDP as a teaching space.
3. The close link between the assessment and self-regulating processes.

This means providing learners with the necessary tools so they can reach the stage of working responsibly and making important decisions. They should be able to decide what they want to learn and when and be constantly aware of their learning objectives. This includes planning their work goals and consciously applying learning strategies and constantly monitoring their learning process as well as the results of the tasks.

3 Reflective practice in interpreter training

3.1 Moving towards student-centred learning

When looking at traditional course programmes at interpreter training institutions in Spain and abroad, there is a certain degree of consensus concerning how the various modes of interpreting are taught (Mackintosh, 1995, p.129). The contents of the majority of these programmes were transmitted without any scientific or contrastive verification of their effectiveness, and the lack of

empirical studies to support these theoretical or didactic postulates further contributed to these contents establishing themselves as the only options with credibility. As a consequence, interpreter training came to be based on a series of categorical ideas which underlined the effectiveness of certain exercises and the order in which they should be introduced, while criticizing other approaches. Gile (1995) states that this criticism was not founded on solid empirical principles.

Nevertheless, from the 1990s onwards, there has been a growing interest in interpreter training as can be seen from various monographic publications (Gile, 1995; Pöchhacker and Schlesinger, 2002; Pöchhacker 2004). This interest extends to creating specific training programmes for interpreting instructors who are normally professional interpreters with no prior training but with a great deal of enthusiasm for passing on knowledge and raising awareness about their profession teach in such programs.

Current social changes, adapting universities to the European Space of Higher Education and developments in the profession, necessitate a major rethinking and defining of teaching practices, and moving towards new and more systematic approaches based on the results of empirical research.

One of the major challenges today is to be able to have students who are increasingly more autonomous and participative. Generally speaking, when students enter a training programme they often take it for granted that learning mostly takes place within the confines of the classroom. This is why it is important to rekindle abilities that enable students to describe their learning experience, plan it, and monitor it. They should also be able to analyse and evaluate their own performances and describe it.

According to Little (1997, p.101), there can be no autonomy without conscious implication in the learning process, since the basic objective consists of preparing students for “life-long learning”. From this perspective, autonomy is understood as the capacity to make decisions, act independently and reflect critically and objectively. Conscious reflection includes knowledge and know-how as well as the necessary processes to acquire them. It should also lead to a process of self-regulation, without which it is impossible to reach this life-long learning objective.

Moser-Mercer (2005, p.65) notes that to enable students to situate themselves in the learning process and see learning outside the classroom as an intrinsic part of the learning experience in general, one has to have a thorough understanding of the interpreting process. It is essential to see a clear division of the skills and sub-skills and have a clear and detailed definition of the progress students need to make.

3.2 Formative assessment and encouraging self-regulation

Gipps (1994, p.92) defines assessment in the broadest sense as “a wide range of methods for evaluating pupil performance and attainment including formal testing and examinations, practical and oral assessment, classroom based assessment carried out by teachers and portfolios”.

As stated by Sawyer (2001, p.138), two types of assessment should be readily differentiated from one another: formative and summative. Formative assessment takes place during the course of teaching and is used essentially to feed back into the teaching and learning process. In contrast, summative assessment takes place at the end of the term or a course and is used to provide information about how much students have learned and how well a course has worked.

According to Sawyer (2001, p. 139), the distinguishing features of formative assessment are:

1. Instructor evaluation during the course of teaching;
2. Feedback into teaching and learning process;
3. Collegial relationship;
4. Grading assignments; feedback on coursework; feedback on ipsative assessment (self-assessment statements, journal, field notes, or log).

As can be seen from this description, formative assessment is the type which most favours involving the learner in the learning process and which best contributes to developing self-regulation in the student.

Mayor *et al.* (1993, p. 31) define self-regulated learning as all learning in which the users are active participants – metacognitively, motivationally and behaviourally – in their own learning process, in which there is self-oriented informative feedback which enables this process to be controlled. As can be inferred from this definition, awareness and control, on the one hand, and interaction on the other, are the fundamental building blocks of self-regulation.

Nevertheless, the transfer towards self-regulation is not spontaneous, but rather the product of the process: it takes place slowly and gradually, and only with the help of external factors which encourage mediation and external and internal dialogue (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

The most recent theories in the field of psychopedagogy highlight more and more the mediating role of the teacher to pave the way towards self-regulation. The essence of this role lies in transferring control gradually to the students and making them aware of each

educational activity (Monereo 1995; Kiraly 2000; González Davies 2004; Kelly 2005; Barberà 2005 & Barberà *et al.* 2006), in such a way that they appropriate the meaning of the curricular contents being covered so they can use them independently.

According to Esteve & Arumí (2005), the mediating role referred to involves the instructor teaching students to monitor their own learning process.

Some authors have stressed the relationship between metacognitive practices and training interpreters (Ficchi, 1999). So it would seem that developing metacognitive thinking corresponds to the type of reasoning which leads to expertise.

Moser-Mercer *et al.* (2000, p. 110) give some indications as to how this progress from one level to another takes place:

In interpreting, novices need to engage in tactical learning whereby they learn specific rules for solving specific problems, such as how to convert particular syntactic constructions in the incoming message to matching constructions in the outgoing language. This tactical knowledge then becomes increasingly well organized and the novice develops a set of strategies (monitoring strategies, workload management strategies, etc.) designed to optimally solve the problems he encounters.

Tactical learning and the set of strategies these authors mention can indeed be reinforced through metacognitive tools which foster effective learning and pave the way to progress from one level of proficiency to another. Therefore, awareness and control of the learning process should constitute one of the cornerstones of interpreter training.

Perry *et al.* (2006) state that students who regulate themselves manage to make good use of the opportunities they are given, deal

with the challenges posed by learning and practice, develop an in-depth understanding of the subject matter and strive to reach their objectives. In this kind of learning setting, students usually find it difficult at first to manage their own learning as they have been used to a more conventional and teacher-oriented classroom environment (Sainz 1997, p.135). The role of the instructor in the classroom should shift the focus from a transmission perspective, in which the instructors transmit their knowledge and the students work alone, to a transformation perspective, in which learning constitutes a scaffolding process where instructors and students collaborate in a knowledge-building community (Kiraly 2000, p. 33).

Furthermore the majority of teaching methods used in interpreting are focused on creating routine experts, in other words, experts who fit well into a large number of similar and repeated situations (Moser-Mercer, 2005). With the introduction of new forms of interpreting such as video-conferencing or telephone interpreting, interpreters increasingly have to deal with new situations. Thus, we are faced with the question of how we can go beyond present pedagogical principles and produce new professionals who are more flexible and capable of adapting themselves easily to new settings. This means creating classroom settings and situations that encourage reflective thinking, i.e. learning contexts and practices that focus on how knowledge can be organized and which strategic abilities are necessary in solving problems.

The following section describes a methodological approach aimed at promoting self-regulation. The aim behind introducing this approach is that it allows for:

1. Gradually transferring awareness and control of each learning activity to the student, promoting a more symmetrical relationship between the teacher and the

student, in such a way that both take real responsibility in the learning and assessment process.

2. Promoting an internal dialogue within the student that helps them monitor their own learning process, and via systematic reflections which are supported and guided by the teacher.
3. Promoting the convergence of different perspectives, and at different moments, in the assessment process, so that the student can obtain multiple snapshots of the dynamic process involved.

4 The student portfolio

A portfolio is an alternative to the traditional way of presenting corresponding professional abilities and competences of the individual in question. The use of portfolios began in Canada and the US, and its use quickly spread to other countries. The portfolio is simply a means of keeping an organised and structured record of those work-related documents an individual considers to be most relevant. The use of portfolios quickly spread to the sphere of education and to university training. Klenowski (2005, p.83) explains just how popular the portfolio has become in education:

Today we can find portfolios at every stage of education and professional training, in learning as well as in progressing and assessment. Working with a portfolio can be used in developing and evaluating knowledge of a subject, acquiring teaching skills and reflective practice, and also in vocational and professional training.

The students' portfolio is a compilation of all the significant documents of each student as well as their progress. The portfolio is an actual product, printed or in digital format, drawn up

autonomously by the student with the objective of setting out what has been produced during the learning process for the benefit of both the student and other external assessors. This way of working does not just provide a retrospective view its purpose is not limited to merely keeping a record of what has been done. Instead, it is also projects forward, inasmuch as it serves as a basis for the student to set objectives related to changing or improving the competences being covered.

This does not only mean including the most positive aspects, but rather everything which really documents development and change; in other words, all the significant aspects of the learning process in which the student is immersed. One particularly important aspect is that the student must always accompany these samples with due reflection. So, the portfolio is an efficient support tool for all the reflective and self-regulating tasks performed by the student.

The specific functions of the portfolio are as follows:

1. To analyse the individual learning process based on an appraisal of all the documents in the portfolio;
2. To reflect on the abilities and knowledge that students are acquiring during the learning process by providing a compilation of the work they have done;
3. To guide to establish an assessment dialogue between student and lecturer and thus favour symmetrical interaction in the tutorial sessions;
4. To encourage self-regulating processes based on students being actively aware of the material presented in their portfolio;
5. To offer a possible alternative to the traditional assessment system.

Among the items that should be included in an interpreting student's portfolio, Sawyer (2001, p.157) highlights the following, given in the table below. It is important to not only include samples of the student's performance (the product), but also evidence of their reflections on the learning process (self-evaluation grids, learning diary, etc.)

Other examples of the use of the portfolio in interpreting courses can be found in Sawyer, D. 2001, Esteve, O. & Arumí, M. 2005 and Gross Dinter, U. 2007.

1. Personal Statement / Self-evaluation
2. Table of Contents
3. Course Syllabus and Planner
4. Statement of Personal Goals for the Instructional Unit or Course
5. Video- and Audiotapes of Student Work: Speeches from the Classroom and Practicum
6. Instructor Comments on Student Work
7. Glossaries
8. Preparation and Research Materials for Specific Events and Topics (Dictionary Lists, Webliographies, Parallel Reading, etc.)
9. Journal or Log, other Reflective Statements on Interpretation Work
10. Samples of Notes with Analysis
11. Self-Assessment Statements
12. Peer Review Statements
13. Action Research Paper

Table 1. Breakdown of materials included in an interpreting student's portfolio (Sawyer 2001).

5 The experience: using the portfolio with students beginning simultaneous interpreting

My experience working with portfolios, as defined above, comes from teaching two introductory courses to simultaneous interpretation. The objective behind using the portfolio was to help students evaluate themselves on a regular basis, reflecting on the learning process itself and as a means of demonstrating or proving the levels of competency they are reaching. In practical activities such as interpreting, so highly marked by their oral component, there is a risk of losing information due to the setting of immediacy and the speed at which they must be performed. The purpose of the portfolio was to enable students to effectively compile all the information generated in the classroom as well as individual and autonomous work. Thus, the idea was for the portfolio to be an assessment tool from the vantage points of the lecturer and the student, and a very significant aspect of the final course grade, given that it is a dynamic brief about the student.

5.1 Contextualisation

German-Spanish/Catalan Simultaneous Interpretation I and II are 3rd and 4th year courses in the degree programme, and they are core subjects aimed at introducing students to the simultaneous modality. Students who enrol in these courses have a wide range of interests, motivations and abilities. Individual classes comprise some 20 students.

The fact that these are two courses given by the same teacher allows them to be perceived as a continuum over two 3-month terms, so students work with their portfolios over a period of six to seven months. The portfolio is an essential part of ongoing course grading within the evaluation framework, along with in-class participation,

tutorials with the teacher, and handing in individual interpreting work.

5.2 Portfolio used by students beginning simultaneous interpretation

The following table includes the guide for drawing up the portfolio:

Proof of process	How are students accompanied?
1. Simultaneous Interpretation I course syllabus. 2. Personal goals sheet. 3. Weekly interpreting performance self-corrections (from the self-evaluation grid and tutorial sheet)	Between weeks 2 and 3 of the three-month term: Initial tutorial
4. CD with digital oral interpretation files 5. In-class correction diary 6. Sheets featuring results from tutorials with professor 7. Oral presentations given in to class	Between weeks 6 and 7 of the term: Follow-up tutorial
8. Final report with: a) thoughts on whether they have reached the official program objectives and personal goals, and if so, how; b) evaluation of own performance and results of the work done. 9. Exam	After the exam: Portfolio revision, exam and next-term preparatory tutorial

<p>During this second stage of the process, the students compile similar examples as in the previous stage, with only the following changes:</p> <p>At the beginning of this second stage the self-evaluation grid is revised again, and the necessary changes introduced. The students now work from the new grid.</p> <p>This second stage includes peer correction experiences, the results of which are included in each of their portfolios. Peer correction usually takes place in activities such as the simulation of a real conference.</p> <p>They include the summary of one or more readings from articles on any given theoretical aspect of interpretation.</p> <p>The final report is more extensive, as it is a revision of the entire process. It is drawn up based on evidence from the portfolio.</p>	<p>Between weeks 2 and 3 of the three-month term: Initial second stage tutorial</p>
	<p>Between weeks 6 and 7 of the term: Follow-up tutorial</p>
	<p>After the exam: Final Process Tutorial</p>

Table 2. Breakdown of the items included in the students' portfolio.

5.3 Samples of documents from student portfolios

The following pages include some specific examples of how students have worked with the various instruments included in the portfolio.

5.3.1 Samples of personal goal sheets

The aim of this document is to get students to read the course syllabus and, after a close reading of the objectives, set their own goals, identifying the ways by which they can reach them.

INTERPRETACIÓ SIMULTÀNIA I ALEMANY-CASTELLÀ/CATALÀ
NOM:

Quan un comença una cosa nova sempre es fa una llista de bons propòsits. Quins són els teus propòsits per a aquesta assignatura? En el programa de l'assignatura hi pots llegir els objectius que jo, com a professora, i la institució, en general, es planteja per a tu aquest trimestre. M'agradaria que pensessis si els teus objectius coincideixen amb els proposats, quins objectius tens tu i què creus que faràs o podries fer per assolir-los.

OBJECTIUS:
 Aquest trimestre, fins com a objectiu principal desenvolupar la disciplina i intentar gaudir fent-ho. Els meus objectius es centren en memorització a curt termini i reformulació, principalment, però m'afecta com l'autocentrat, el treball transparent, un missatge de manca realitat i el treball en equip amb el company de cabina també m'interessa molt. Per a aconseguir-ho, afavorir voluntat, l'exercici i un bon mètode de revisió personal del que fem a classe.

QUÈ FARÉ/QUÈ PODRIA FER?
 Cos que podria ser interessant practicar amb la "peut-être utile". A nivell més "micro", estic fent glossaris amb vocabulari nou i encollo les grabacions per treballar els errors.

QUINS RECURSOS TINC?

- Diccionaris
- Televisió (per a fer shadowing)
- Cinta grabada = classe (entenció, nou, errors gramaticals...)
- Glossaris
- Aute (per a l'autocentrat i/o més ben dit per a la manca d'autocentrat)
- Actuar: tott disarreas en demany, en les meves grabacions
- Company de cabina (aprotar = errors i a descansar)
- Recursos informatius: Albars de fer la interpretació, tenir uns coneixements pròpis del tema,

In this first example above, the student in question focuses her priorities on the practice of memorization and reformulation as well as self-control. To do so, she proposes regular practice, access to resources such as German television, compiling glossaries, etc.

**INTERPRETACIÓ SIMULTÀNIA I ALEMANY-CASTELLÀ/CÀTALA
NOM:**

Quan un comença una cosa nova sempre es fa una llista de bons propòsits. Quins són els teus propòsits per a aquesta assignatura? En el programa de l'assignatura hi pots llegir els objectius que jo, com a professora, i la institució, en general, es planteja per a tu aquest trimestre. M'agradaria que pensessis si els teus objectius coincideixen amb els proposats, quins objectius tens tu i què creus que faràs o podries fer per assolir-los.

OBJECTIUS:

- completar una fase de introducció a la interpretació simultània
- conèixer los recursos em que se cuenta en la interpretación simultánea
- probar mis capacidades para esta práctica
- interpretar con cierta soltura texto oral sencillo
- conocer los principales problemas que plantea la práctica de la interpretación simultánea

QUÈ FARÉ/QUÈ PODRIA FER?:

- atender todas las clases.
- practicar por mi cuenta en el aula de autoaprendizaje todo lo que me sea posible.
- intentar hacer ejercicios en casa con material audiovisual o con amigos alemanes.
- seguir profundizando en mis tiempos B y A.

QUINS RECURSOS TINC?

- las clases normales y ordinarias
- programas de autoaprendizaje del aula 223
- material audiovisual en lengua B
- bibliografía general
- bibliografía específica sobre simultánea.
- amigos germanos parlantes.

In the second example, the student proposes testing his practical interpreting abilities, to identify the major problems that arise and be able to interpret simple oral address forms with certain fluency. Another of his goals is to improve oral comprehension in his B language and expression in his A language. To reach this objective, he stresses the importance of individual practice in the self-learning lab in addition to class attendance.

5.3.2 Self-evaluation sheet samples

Students are given a self-evaluation sheet by the teacher at the beginning of the course so that they can carry out weekly self-evaluations. This sheet divides interpreting practice into four main skills: a) comprehension of the source language, b) content and information, c) reproducing the speech and d) applying techniques and strategies. Likewise, each of these skills are made up of sub-skills such as, for example, whether there are omissions and changes in content (b); intonation and vocalization (c); linguistic expression and grammatical accuracy (c) or proper coordination of listening, verbal reformulation and short-term memory retention skills for the outgoing message (d).

FULL D'AVALUACIÓ DE PRESTACIONS

Primera interpretació. 8 de maig

1. COMPRENSIÓ DEL DISCURS ORIGINAL

Un problema que he observat en les meves primeres interpretacions de l'alemany al català és el fet que sovint escolto una paraula i la confonc amb una altra atribuint-li conseqüentment el significat equivocat. Això és degut sovint a l'accent de l'orador i la velocitat del discurs. Sovint també em poso nerviosa i pronuncio la paraula inadequada quan el meu cap sap de sobres quina ha de dir però sembla que en alguns moments en aquestes situacions li costa processar bé. Quan a casa he llegit el text imprès que ens has lliurat m'he adonat que entenc perfectament el que allà està escrit però quan escolto em dec atabalar i no capto bé les paraules, això és molt greu i he de posar remei. Hauria d'escoltar amb més atenció però a vegades justament quan estàs tan altament concentrat és quan significats obvis et passen de llarg. Sovint, si jo escoltés més relaxada, tranquil·lament, sense aquesta pressió, captaria les coses de forma correcte. Paral·lelament a aquest problema m'he adonat que en certs temes tinc una petita carència de vocabulari que em dificulta en gran part la interpretació. Quan en certes parts del discurs falla la comprensió completa del text original, llavors es fa difícil fer una reproducció fidedigna del text. En la gravació a vegades no es reflecteix, només l'aparició d'alguna frase inacabada ho pot fer notar.

This is an excerpt from a student's thoughts on comprehension of the source language message. She refers to the speaker's accent and speed of delivery as two obstacles to proper comprehension. In addition, the student analyses how, when she concentrates as hard as possible, she misses relevant information and fails to recall translations of words that she would have otherwise found easier to translate. She also alludes to the nervousness factor.

3.3. EXPRESSIÓ LINGÜÍSTICA I INTEL·LIGIBILITAT

A) És un discurs clar, net i intel·ligible?

És un discurs molt clar: s'entenen totes les idees, no hi ha frase sense acabar i vocalitzo molt.

B) He sabut reproduir el mateix registre que el discurs original?

C) El llenguatge utilitzat és prou idiomàtic?

D) El meu vocabulari és ric?

E) Des del punt de vista gramatical, l'expressió es correcta?

Apareixen diverses frases agramaticals com "li agraeixo per la seva benvinguda"

F) Em manca precisió lingüística?

Al principi del discurs tradueixo "Bundespräsident" per "canceller"

G) Detecto interferències castellà/català o a l'inrevés?

Hi ha un moment en que dubto del significat d'una paraula i per acabar la frase que havia començat dic "algo". Hi ha una frase en que dic "de que" i hauria de ser "que". També hi ha dos calcs de l'original: "ich habe erfahren" dic "he experimentat" i tradueixo "letztlich" per "finalment". Això no és incorrecte, però en el context és molt millor traduir-ho per "en el fons" o "en realitat".

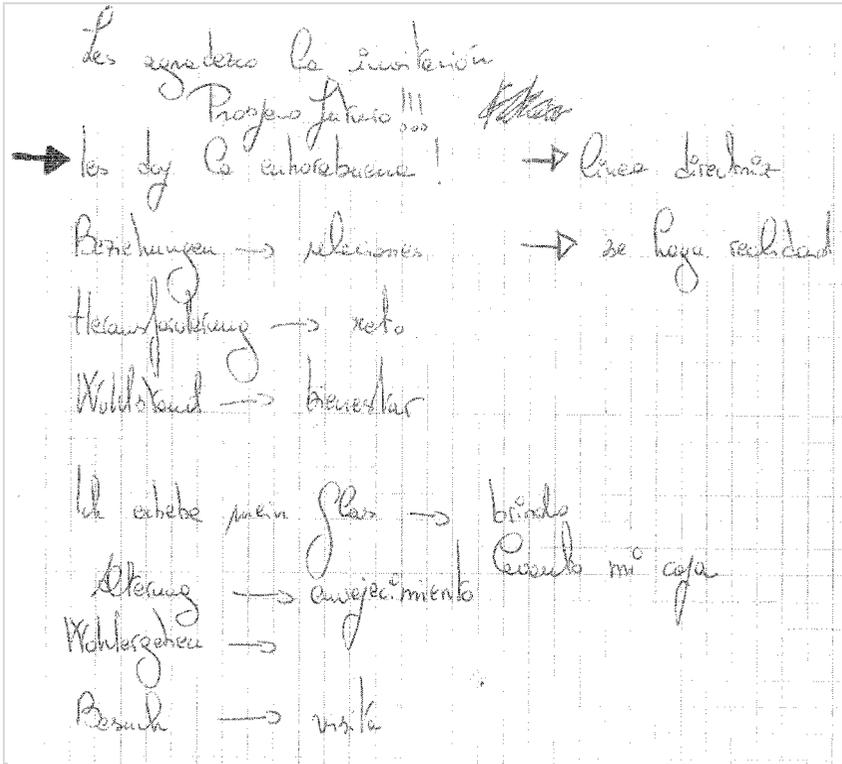
H) Sóc capaç de transmetre fidelment les xifres, els noms propis, les referències culturals, etc?

A la interpretació a apareixen tots els noms propis i les dues xifres que apareixen. En canvi, vaig tenir problemes amb la traducció d'"Agenda 2010" perquè no estava segura que en català fos igual.

Here the student evaluates his own linguistic expression and intelligibility in the target language. He states that his interpretation has been clear, that he has left no phrases unfinished and that he has vocalized well. He points out a few grammatical errors, and syntactic calques in German conveyed into Spanish. He emphasizes that he has correctly conveyed the proper nouns and figures.

5.3.3 Correction diary samples

The correction diary is the most open-ended document of all those proposed in the portfolio. Students are instructed to include their ideas, corrections, remarks and suggestions generated in class, either by their lecturers or other students. They are also asked to jot down personal ideas, reminders, etc.



In the first example, the student devotes her correction diary to making a list of especially difficult vocabulary.

iniciación a la traducción simultánea

- Grado de dificultad: (del 1 al 5) 6
- Definición: consiste en reformular un discurso en lengua A2 / A1 en otro equivalente en lengua A / A2 de forma simultánea.
- ¿cómo escrito?
 - a) memoria a corto plazo.
 - b) décalage
 - c) reformulación
 - d) coordinación

• ¿cómo he aprendido?

- a) Las ideas no corresponden a una lengua. Son universales. La trad. simultánea es posible a partir del momento en el que la persona interioriza un discurso impregnado de contexto (social, cultural, político etc) que rodea a la lengua de partida, lo "universaliza" (extrae las ideas) y lo reproduce en la lengua de llegada dotándole de su contexto particular. El DP y el DL deben ser equivalentes.

The second example consists of a diary entry from the first introduction to simultaneous interpretation class. On the one hand, the student has made a note of the four skills she believes that she exercises (short-term memory, décalage, reformulation and coordination). She has also written down what she learned during the class. The entry is specifically about the fact that it is not a matter of interpreting mere words, but rather ideas; that ideas exist within a context and this is particularly important for interpretation.

5.3.4 Examples of final reports

The final report is written by the students at the end of the course and must be based on their thoughts as to whether they have reached the goals set at the beginning, and if so, how. They are also asked to evaluate their own performance.

Haciendo memoria, reflexionando y releiendo las hojas de autoevaluación y las fichas de evaluación de mis compañeras, creo que puedo afirmar que este trimestre he avanzado en varios aspectos:

- He ganado en seguridad; controlo mejor los nervios.
- He mejorado en el tono, volumen y claridad de la voz.
- He mejorado en la eliminación de sonidos onomatopéyicos.
- Me he hecho un poco más consciente de la dificultad de los discursos reales.
- He mejorado en ejercicios de TAV.
- He descubierto posibilidades de autoaprendizaje: ejercicios de interpretación viendo la tele o cuando voy por la calle, por ejemplo.

Conforme avanzaba el trimestre he ido ganando en seguridad y satisfacción, hasta el punto de que creo que me gustaría profundizar en la Interpretación con el objetivo de dedicarme a ella profesionalmente. No olvido que aún me quedaría un buen trecho del camino para conseguirlo, pero ahora veo que me gustaría intentarlo.

This student clearly defines in his final report the areas where he has progressed: self-confidence and control; voice quality; increased awareness of the difficulties real speech entails; improvement in sight translation technique; and discovery of the possibilities offered by self-learning.

Este curso me he visto mucho más cómoda en esta asignatura. El ambiente en clase ha sido muy bueno y relajado, y creo que se ha notado en el trabajo realizado. A nivel personal considero que sigo teniendo muchos problemas de vocabulario que se demuestran en la comprensión del original. Sin embargo, creo que he mejorado en la aplicación de estrategias. Me veo capaz de separarme del original y, en el caso de que no haya entendido la idea, introducir alguna propia en relación con la temática. He mejorado el tono de voz, ya no titubeo tanto como antes, y me noto más segura en la práctica. La velocidad de los discursos ha aumentado bastante con respecto al año pasado, pero creo que, aunque con errores, me veo mucho mejor en esta actividad. Con respecto a lo que debería mejorar: sigo dejando frases sin acabar, ya sea porque no he entendido una idea o porque la velocidad del discurso es elevada y no me da tiempo. Alguna vez introduzco algún sonido onomatopéyico que debería estar totalmente eliminado, y sobre todo, saber prestar tanta atención a la escucha del original como a mi interpretación. Tan importante es la una como la otra y sé que le doy más importancia a escuchar bien el original. Es por ello que cometo a veces errores de concordancia fácilmente evitables. Además, sé que prestando más atención a mi reformulación podría expresarme mejor, con un vocabulario más rico del que demuestro en las interpretaciones.

In this example, the student mentions feeling more at ease in class compared to the previous course, and describes the class atmosphere as good and relaxed. As for her development, she still finds problems in her interpreting mainly related with comprehension and the repercussion this has in the form of unfinished phrases, insecure expression, etc. In another note, she reports having improved in applying strategies such as distancing herself more from the original speech. She has also noticed improvements in the tone of her voice.

5.3.5 Examples of tutorial preparation guide

As discussed in the first section, the latest theories from the field of psychopedagogy increasingly emphasize the mediating role of teachers. This is an essential element for a gradual transfer of control and awareness of each of the students' educational activities, thus facilitating their internalisation and ownership of the meaning behind curricular contents covered so that they can work with it independently (Monereo, 1995). Ericsson (2000) underscores the importance of the social and personal factors for the development of expertise. For example, he includes the idea of the importance of coaches and teachers playing an important role in guiding future experts to acquire superior performance levels. This gives rise to the importance of programming tutorials which closely accompany the student.

In this practical proposal, tutorials always consist of two parts. In the first tutorial, the student and teacher discuss the evaluation results from a single interpreting performance that each of them have drawn up on their own, using the self-evaluation grid. In the second tutorial, the student and teacher discuss more general issues such as achieving goals, planning new challenges, questions, etc. Students have tutorial preparation sheets which they have to complete prior to the tutorial:

Tutorial preparation guide

1. Which sample should I select for self-evaluation? This will be the sample I send to the lecturer for our joint evaluation. Remember to notify the lecturer by email of the interpreting performance chosen.
2. Why did I choose this one?
3. Did I have any trouble doing the self-evaluation?
4. Point out three aspects in which you think you have improved since the last tutorial.
5. Point out three aspects which you think need more work.
6. Am I reaching the goals that I set at the beginning?
7. If this is the first tutorial, what should I set for the next one based on the established goals, analysis of my development and my own ideas?

Table 3. Example of Tutorial Preparation Guide.

6 Discussion

Between 2005 and 2007 a study was carried out that focused on three foreign language and translation and interpreting classrooms in which self-regulation instruments were used, portfolios being one of them, to discover how useful the students found them (Arumí, 2009). This study was part of a larger project which aims to carry out an in-depth research into the nature and characteristics of metacognitive strategies used by university undergraduates studying different foreign languages, translation and interpreting and, at the same time, to explore the possibilities of using teaching tools designed to activate and encourage these strategies.

For the purposes of this study, a questionnaire was drawn up which comprised two parts. The first part comprised of semi-open questions aimed at evaluating the various instruments used by the instructor in the classroom, including the use of portfolios. The second part comprised closed multiple choice questions “yes, “no” or “to some extent” on whether this methodological approach had been useful when coping with a series of objectives commonly associated with self-regulation.

In turn a final semi-structured interview was carried out on three students from each group with the purpose of obtaining complementary data to that in the questionnaires.

Among the main findings, the questionnaire revealed both positive and negative student comments, although the positive feedback was significantly higher (56) than the negative feedback (9). This breakdown was corroborated in the different classrooms under study:

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Total
+	32	19	5	56
-	4	3	2	9
Total	36	22	7	65

Table 4. Statistical breakdown of comments on using the portfolio.

Regarding the positive aspects, the portfolio is seen as a good alternative to an exam, as a good method of continuous assessment, with some clear metacognitive implications such as managing workloads and raising awareness. Figure 1 illustrates that the most commonly recurring comments refer to the fact that the portfolio helps to manage the course workloads on a continued basis (P1); enables further learning (P3); promotes continuous assessment (P5); helps to raise awareness about the work students have done, the

knowledge they have acquired or the level they have reached (P8); facilitates using more resources (P12); makes it feasible to manage one's own space and time as a basis for working (P20) and enables one to reinforce and acquire more in-depth knowledge of the subject (P21). As regards negative feedback, these tend to reflect individual situations or learning styles and have little bearing, as these related to a diverse range of evaluations with no emerging patterns. These negative comments refer to lack of time and a level that was too demanding; that it does not require them to study as much, technical and logistical factors, excessive workload, that the portfolio imposes a way of organising work outside the classroom and that assessment should be the responsibility of the lecturer.

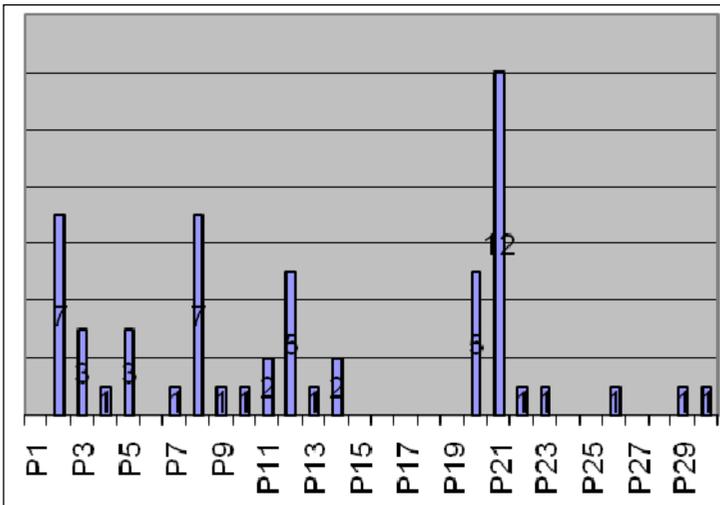


Figure 1. General positive evaluations about using the portfolio.

The data obtained from the interview validated for the most part student perceptions found in the analysis of the questionnaire: when talking about the positive aspects, the majority of students interviewed saw the portfolio as a good alternative to an exam. However, having to keep a portfolio for the course is considered to

entail an excessive increase in work on top of having to pass an exam or various tests.

Another positive view which coincides with the questionnaire concerns students reflecting on and being aware of the work they have done. Students rated the portfolio positively in one way or another because it forces them to reflect on their work in more depth, be aware on a regular basis of what they do well and where they have under-performed, in addition to enabling them to correct their own mistakes. Similarly, students relate the portfolio with continuous assessment, in other words, they rate very positively the fact that the portfolio makes it possible to take into account the work they have been doing on a regular basis.

Finally, some of the students pointed out that the portfolio has helped them to adopt a more positive attitude towards learning.

From another perspective, some of the negative views in the interview coincide with those found in the questionnaire. For example, the major time investment involved in keeping their portfolio up to date, as well as the excessive amount of work and how demanding this was. They also alluded to the fact that this assessment method does not adapt itself to individual idiosyncrasies, as they found it too rigid and inflexible, leaving little room for developing their own more personal system for monitoring learning.

Taking these results into account, it can be stated that using the portfolio in an increasingly efficient and rapid manner is a matter of continuous training. It is a pedagogical approach to interpreter training and learning, and it should be adopted at all levels and in all curriculum subject matters so that students can internalize this approach and apply it during their studies and beyond into their career. Students should be made aware not only of the curriculum objectives but they should also be given a detailed, student-centred

presentation of the knowledge and skills targeted by each specific lesson. In this way, students will know what to focus on during the learning process. Incorporating the portfolio in the interpreting curriculum will basically enhance the quality of education from three perspectives:

From the student's perspective:

- A portfolio helps the students to selectively compile the documents that show their competency development and relevant reflections;
- It gets students involved in the evaluation process; it enables them to be active learners, managing the learning process.
- A portfolio has an easy-to-use, manageable structure;
- It covers various phases within the reflection process and duly accompanies them with guidelines and other instruments;
- It provides students with valuable information about themselves so that they can work more efficiently and productively;
- It enables the students to manage their time effectively and decide on how much time is needed to complete a particular task or improve a skill;

From the teacher's perspective:

- It enables the teacher to be more proactive, target-oriented and efficient;
- It helps the teacher refine the syllabus;

- It enables the teacher to follow the student's progress in more detail and work on the skills, sub-skills and strategies required;
- It features teacher accompaniment through personalized tutorials. Teachers follow the entire experience closely through the answers given to the students while checking the documents that make up the portfolio and the tutorials.
- It enables the teacher to help the student integrate new strategies and corrections when the student fails to do so.

From the interpreting school's perspective:

- It enables the design of a skill-based curriculum, where the overt aim is the variety of skills which the student should acquire;
- It enables the design of a student-centred curriculum, where the educational objectives, material, content, activities and learning environment are all arranged and managed according to the needs of the individual student;
- It helps to design a curriculum in more realistic terms as it takes into account first-hand information about the individual and their particular needs;

However, we cannot overlook certain controversial aspects of working with a portfolio. For example, it involves a major investment of time by lecturers and students, and demands a high degree of self-discipline and responsibility. Furthermore, for some lecturers, using a portfolio can mean having to make certain changes to their teaching approach in order to reach a more systematized assessment stage, in relation to learning objectives and the progressive steps, since this can fall foul of subjective and tangential perceptions.

7 Final remarks

As stated at the outset of this article, formulas have been presented based on teaching practices used to assess students from a more learner-centred perspective in the learning process, and dialogue-centred as a way of jointly constructing teaching from the basis of socio-constructivist principles.

The importance of self-regulation is another feature which has been discussed in this article. One of the objectives of any course should be that students end up being able to determine what they know and what they still need to learn, and that this can only be achieved if they are gradually interiorising self-regulation skills. Self-regulation is closely linked to the concept of assessment, and therefore cannot be overlooked in a pedagogical model based on self-regulation and its inherent principles.

The model presented in this article does not consist of excluding external assessment, i.e. the instructor's assessment, but rather leaving room for assessment by the students themselves about their needs, progress and production. The aim here is to allow for introducing appropriate corrective measures that allow students to develop their knowledge and abilities. This means assessment oriented towards the process rather than towards sanctioning the results obtained. As has been clearly illustrated, self-regulation requires a period of apprenticeship, which is why it is needed to give careful consideration to evolving and strategic curricular contents.

By means of the instrument presented here and shared reflections, I hope to have provided an overview of how to gradually introduce teaching strategies that allow for incorporating and promoting a form of assessment that is more in accordance with the general principles behind self-regulation and, above all, more constructive for the learner.

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From ‘haute couture’ to ‘prêt-à-porter’, or how theory can be ‘vulgarized’

Ljuba Tarvi
Helsinki University, Finland
Tallinn University, Estonia

Abstract

Tertiary education instruction in translation studies is supposed to combine two major aims (and two types of knowledge): the practical aim of learning to do something (procedural knowledge), and the scientific aim of learning how to know something (declarative knowledge). Theory is important for students since they are expected to be able to analyze texts for translation and research. The problem is how to adapt the ‘haute couture’ of theoretical thought to the ‘prêt-à-porter’ of effective everyday instruction. No approach could be the ‘be-all and end-all’ of reality and no claims about one’s theory’s comprehensive relevance, generality and truth could be accepted at face value. Almost any major theoretical model, however, contains many useful ideas that can be used in instruction. Some ways of adapting potentially useful theoretical material to a meaningful practical use is the topic of the present paper, which offers neither conceptual innovations nor theoretical breakthroughs but rather sober reconsiderations of some of the available theoretical propositions.

1 Introduction

‘Simplicity is a prerequisite for reliability.’

Edsger Wyde Dijkstra

The comparatively young discipline of translation studies could hardly be described as modest in its theoretical aspirations. At first glance, the book titles and dustcovers might imply that the field of theory in translation studies has long been conquered by an army of *couturier*. The approach adopted here is aimed at moderating expansionist theories with “a monopolistic tendency” (Delabastita, 2005, p. 40), which promote themselves by claiming to embrace “scientific investigations of the competence of human beings to communicate with each other” (Gutt, 2000, p. 205).

The approach adopted in this paper rests on three principles. First, it is *not in the least critical* since any attempt to systematize and generalize such a complex interdisciplinary field as translation studies is to be respected. Second, the suggested interpretations might, as any *interpretations*, be described as imperfect and, hence, prone to criticism. And third, the considered alterations are *simplifications*, or ‘vulgarizations’. The terms ‘vulgarization’ was suggested by David Watson Rannie nearly a century ago. As Rannie asserts, one may admit that theoretical instruction should be of practical importance, if one uses “the word practical in its most vulgar sense”. In that sense, “...those studies are practical which immediately help the student to do something which he wants to do” (1915, p. 6).

At the graduate level, for instance, one might need theory, to analyze a text, to produce an ‘equi-valent’, in terms of every possible ‘valence’, translation, to write an MA thesis, etc. In this paper, the word ‘vulgar’ is hence used in the sense of ‘crude’, i.e., “not exact or detailed but useful or correct in a rough or general way” (Collins

COBUILD Dictionary). Therefore, the term 'vulgarization' implies the simplification of a complex theoretical construction, which might, one must admit, result in a twice-degenerate presentation: at the level of the model itself, which is the "...reduction cost we have to pay for our cognitive control over reality" (Delabastita, 2005, p. 46), and at the level of its 'vulgarization'. Sometimes, however, it might give one new insights into a complex situation or problem. When, for instance, reading Chesterman's *Memes of Translation: The Spread of Ideas in Translation* (1997), I could not help noticing (2006, p. 144-146) a certain 'cross-shape' logic in his presentation of norms, types of ethics, and models, which the author had been unaware of but later acknowledged as an underlying pattern.

The need for theory is huge, both as a way of formalizing practical aspects that would otherwise have gone unnoticed at the bench or classroom levels, as well as a means of allowing for the ethical side of the matter and for representing the field to those outside it and at its margins. To meet the needs of practice, however, the attained generalizations have often to be 'vulgarized', which does not imply that theory is, a priori, unconnected to practice. Whatever 'vulgarization' techniques are used, they are just channels for bringing high-flown 'haute couture' ideas down to the 'prêt-à-porter' level.

2 Aspects of translation studies theory 'vulgarized' for pedagogical purposes

2.1 The Bird's View of the Field: the Map-Matrix Model (MMM)

Several meta-models have been devised to represent the variegated field of translation studies, e.g., Holmes 1988 [1972], Lambert & Van Gorp 1985, Gutknecht & Rölle 1996, Hatim 2001, Munday 2001. Some

couturier advertised their models as “systematic and replicable”, going beyond “static linguistic models of translation”, and bringing together “concepts from systemic functional linguistics, corpus linguistics and the sociocultural framework” (Munday, 2002, p. 76); some as comprehensive and embracing as its object the whole of “...translated literature, that is to say, translational norms, models, behaviour and systems” (Lambert & Van Gorp, 1985, p. 51).

The function of meta-models, or “representations of a phenomenon made of components and relations holding between them” (Pöchhacker, 2004, p. 108) is “...to bring to the surface what is hidden” (Katan, 2004, p. 127). Students do need a ‘map of the territory’ so that they could see what part of the field they are ‘plowing’ from a wider perspective.

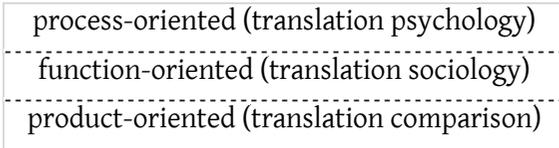
As Delabastita instructs us, we should “...never stop positioning ourselves within the entire field and try to achieve a second-order understanding of *what parts and aspects* of translation we do and do not cover, *from what position* we are observing the object, and *where we stand* with respect to other approaches” (2005, p. 49, emphasis added).

As “peculiar instruments of power” (Pym, 1998, p. 3), maps can, however, be sometimes misleading. The problem, as with all models and maps, is that, in order to account for as much variation and change as possible, these blueprints tend to ‘over-detail’ the picture, which results in cumbersome descriptions, often difficult not only to use but even to comprehend. It is at this stage that ‘vulgarization’ of a complex meta-model can be introduced so that its ‘core idea’ could be activated. After all, a case study (Gillham, 2000, p. 1–14) at the graduate level is hardly any more than “a study of individual trees” (Neubert, 2004, p. 6), and, hence, an MA student can do well without elaborate multi-level text analyses.

In my lectures, I have used several *couturier* representations of the field as a whole. Gradually, I came to see the potential of Holmes' model (1972) as the most suitable candidate for 'vulgarization'. Holmes' comparatively simple 'Map' of the research in the field is still widely used as a meta-description, probably because it corresponds to what Delabastita calls "...'naive' personal experience and reflection" (2005, p. 46) as showing some kind of structure and inner logic, having a broad scale and applicability, being explicit and amenable to empirical testing, and exhibiting insights and a certain level of originality. Probably these qualities have made Holmes' meta-model prone to various graphic modifications (Tarvi, 2008a).

I find Holmes' sixteen-block model irresistibly suggestive as a 'pro-vulgar' specimen of theory. Out of the nine papers I have published after my PhD defense (2004), five are devoted to elaborating an overview of the field based on Holmes' Map. My 'before theory' views as a practical translator (2006a) were followed by the first clumsy versions of the Map-Matrix (2006b, 2007a) with a focus on Holmes' translation function. The next step was returning to Holmes' basics, his sixteen-block Map, with the idea of refining the Map-Matrix into a 'simple' grid of nine blocks (2008a). The provisionally final step is a 'popular' version of the Map-Matrix Model – the 'W Model' – graphically depicting the 'path' of a text from its creation through translation to the target reader via Holmes' three branches of research, elsewhere presented as the 'Hourglass Model' (2008b).

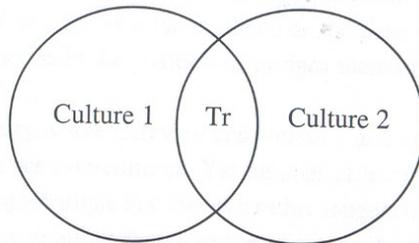
When 'vulgarizing' Holmes' Map, thirteen blocks out of the sixteen outlined by Holmes were omitted (Tarvi, 2008a), with the remaining three blocks: process-, function-, and product-oriented branches of research coming to prominence.



Scheme 1. Holmes’ Branches of Research.

This reductive three-partite division has been popular with a number of scholars. Chesterman, for instance, classifies models of translation into roughly similar types of comparative, processes and causality models (2000, p. 15). Venuti similarly argues that “[t]he history of translation theory can in fact be imagined as a set of changing relationships between the relative autonomy of the translated text, or the *translator’s actions*, and two other concepts: *equivalence* and *function*” (2000, p. 5, emphasis original).

To give the ‘flat’ model (Scheme 1) a new dimension, I used Pym’s simple graphics of describing the complex phenomenon of intercultural interaction in translation (1998, p. 177) which depicts translation as “one of the most representative paradigms of the clash between two cultures” (Álvarez & Vidal, 1996, p. 2):



Scheme 2. Pym’s ‘Basic Idea of Interculturality’.

The intersection of both schemes, Holmes’ vertical and Pym’s horizontal, results in a nine-mesh matrix form, each mesh theoretically containing the whole Map, which explains the name, Map-Matrix Model (Tarvi 2008b): Pym’s Culture 1 is represented here

by column 1-2-3, Interculture – by column 4-5-6, Culture 2 by column 7-8-9, each embracing Holmes' levels of processes (line 1-4-7), functions (line 2-5-8) and products (line 3-6-9).

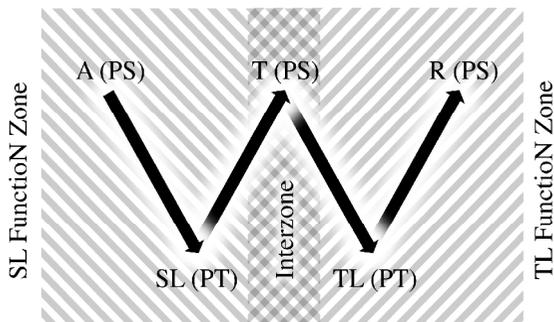
1	4	7
2	5	8
3	6	9

Scheme 3. Map-Matrix of Translation Studies.

The scheme allows one to get oriented in the field of research by placing a given case study within the Map-Matrix, which enables one to see the interrelation of the chosen topic with other research areas in the field. For example, my PhD research – a comparative description of several translations of a classical literary text – can be described as belonging to the lower line of Holmes' scheme (product-oriented research) and the middle section of Pym's scheme (zone 6). If research is focused on the process of translation, then it is 'located' in the middle section (Pym's Interculture) of the upper line (process-oriented research) of the Matrix (zone 4). Or, another example: a highly popular, at least among my students, topic – studying the function of a translated product in the receiving culture – could be located in the middle line of Holmes' scheme (function-oriented research) and the 'Culture 2' slot of Pym's scheme (zone 8).

2.2 The ‘W Model’

The Map-Matrix Model (Scheme 3) looked, in my opinion, quite abstract and, hence, needed further ‘vulgarization’. The first ‘vulgarized’ MMM version, called the ‘Hourglass’ Model (Tarvi, 2008a), had to be later reconsidered and abandoned due to its complex graphic design. Its version presented here, the ‘W Model’, is a further MMM simplification meant to represent the oscillations of a text (in its production, translation, consumption) between the process and product levels. Unlike the Matrix, where Function Zone, as a field of research, is topologically separated from the zones of processes and products, the ‘W’ model locates the process and product research fields inside the Function Zone understood here as a broad social-cultural norm-imposing context where products (PT) are created (PS) and function (FN). While being much more reductive than the Map-Matrix, the ‘W’ Model is, in a way, broader since it allows for the processes of text production by the author, translation by the mediator, and interpretation by the reader, as well as for both SL and TL texts as final products – all these blocks as if immersed into the context of text production, translation, and consumption.



Scheme 4. The ‘W’ Model (WM).

As is seen from the scheme, a text starts its existence with the ProcesS (PS) of its production by the Author (A), **A (PS)**, and, having

passed through the inevitable 'sieve' of the SL Function Zone requirements, results in a SL Product (PT). If a certain **SL (PT)** is chosen for translation, it continues its 'journey' through the Process of its translation by the Translator, **T (PS)**.

The translator is located in the Interzone because he or she has not only to translate a SL Product (PT) into a TL one, but also to take into account, depending on the translation skopos (Reiss & Vermeer, 1984), the requirements of the intended TL Function Zone. The resulting translated product, **TL (PT)**, is then on its way to the final interpretation by the TL Reader, **R (PS)**, who, being part and parcel of the TL Function Zone, consumes the TL (PT) via his or her own personal 'code' of this context.

The scheme highlights the pivotal role of the translator as an intercultural mediator: unlike the 'one-sided' positions of the author in the source culture and the reader in the target one, the translator's position in the scheme implies that his or her choices are dictated not only by the linguistic requirements of the SL and TL PTs, or by the considerations of the intended status of the TL PT in the receiving socio-cultural context (TL Function Zone), but sometimes also by the actual status of the SL PT in its SL socio-cultural environment (SL Function Zone).

2.3 Structuring Research and Building up an Argument

As evidenced by students' feedback, the Map-Matrix Model (MMM) helped them see both the research possibilities of the field and the position of their research topics within it. That does not normally preclude MA theses writers from stopping short after the descriptive stage of their MA research is over – a major problem for students is to build up an argument.

But, as Theo Hermans claims, “[d]escription is not enough. It has to serve a purpose, such as explanation” (1999, p. 102).

2.3.1 *Research Progress Steps (RPS)*

When doing research, one has, consciously or unconsciously, to be reductive. Delabastita asserts that

...immense reductions have to be carried out at the following three levels: that of the object we are studying (our corpus, our data); that of the conceptual matrix and methodological grid we are employing (concepts, theory, methods); and that of our objectives (what we set out to do, the questions we would like to answer)... (2005, p. 48).

The basic theoretical source I ‘vulgarized’ for the purpose in question was *The Craft of Research* by Booth et al. (1995). The authors list the same levels of reduction in research as Delabastita does: claim, or what is postulated (Delabastita’s objective); evidence, or textual material to support the claim (Delabastita’s object); warrant, or theoretical basis to support the claim (Delabastita’s conceptual matrix). Following the terms and the logic of *The Craft*, I worked out a reductive five-tier scheme of research which gradually ‘boils down’ to the argument (Step 5). At the tier of the problem, the logic of research goes from a defined topic through its questioned, motivated and formulated versions to a claimed hypothesis; at the tier of warrant – from consulted theories through a chosen paradigm to a selected model and later to an outlined method; at the tier of evidence – from selected sources through collected and later classified data to defined variables.

Step 1: defined topic	consulted theories	selected sources
Step 2: questioned topic	chosen paradigm	collected data
Step 3: motivated problem	selected model	classified data
Step 4: formulated problem	outlined method	defined variables
Step 5: claimed hypothesis (argument)	warrant	evidence

Scheme 5. Research Progress Steps (RPS).

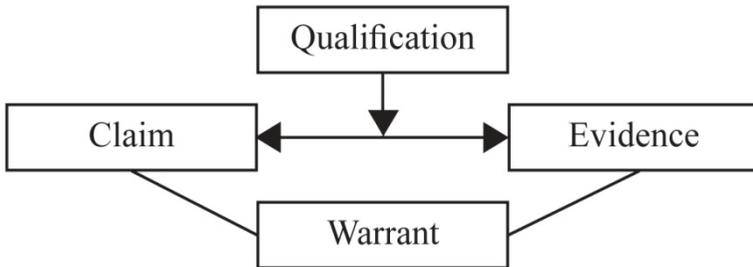
The sketch seems to work since it allows one to see the current stage of one's research and, hence, what is missing in one's personal scheme. The scheme imposes no succession, since research can start from any slot: an appealing source, an impressive model, etc. In the beginning of my research, for instance, I had two 'filled' slots: a formulated problem (Which translation of *Eugene Onegin* by Pushkin is closest to the original?) and the selected sources (19 English translations).

2.3.2 Structure of the Argument

The argument (Step 5 in Scheme 5) logically includes all the three levels of the scheme discussed above. Booth et al., however, add the fourth important level – qualifications, or logical restrictions on the claim, evidence and warrant. Delabastita also mentions the necessity “to give consideration to the various psychological, economic and sociological dimensions of scholarship” (2005, p. 49).

The graphics below is a slightly altered version of the scheme proposed by Booth et al. (1995, p. 92). The alteration suggested by my

students was to swap the places of the ‘Qualifications’ and ‘Warrant’ blocks, since, as they claimed, ‘theory is a basis’.



Scheme 6. Argument Structure Rectangle (ASR).

Oversimplifying, no doubt, the complex phenomenon of an argument, the outlined components presented in this schematic version allow one, nonetheless, to see not only what is missing in the evolving project, but also the necessity of a certain balance among the constituents.

2.4 Models of Text Analysis

In translation studies, several attempts have been made to create a universal methodology of source-target text analysis “...which is applicable to *all* text types and text specimens, and which can be used in *any* translation task that may arise” (Nord, 2005, p. 1, emphasis added), or which could “... explicitly link text and context, and at the same time take account of the human agents involved in text reception and production” (House, 2001, p. 134). As a student of translation studies, I cannot help admiring such ‘universal’ methodologies; as a practical analyst, I would assert that no universal text analysis methodology could be created since not only are texts different but they are analyzed for different purposes. The *couturier* elaborations, however, are so rich in ideas that they could be effective even when partially used.

2.4.1 Triangulation: Triadic Philosophy of Text Analysis

In each case study, a text intended for research requires its own approach often elaborated by a joint effort of a student and of his or her supervisor. Fruitless discussions of whether, depending on the trends of a new 'turn' (Snell-Hornby 2006), it is better to start at the micro-level and move to the macro-level, or vice versa (Tymoczko 2002), or of how many points on the 'checklists' (e.g., Lambert & Van Gorp, 1985, p. 52-53) of compared details are enough for the set purposes, are often ineffectual. Instead, one can use what is called 'triangulation' – correlating the analyzed material with at least two methods of analysis, or "...harmonizing system-oriented and critically-interpretive thinking with descriptive translation" (Crisafulli, 2002, p. 41). The 'dialogic' philosophy of text analysis (text – method) could efficiently coexist with a 'trialogic' one (method – text – method).

One side of the 'triangle' being a text, the second side could be any method which allows direct measurements within the stylistics or social and, hence, also quantifiable (Pym, 2006, p. 14) framework, while the third side could be conventional judgments of 'impressionist' criticism, or some qualitative descriptions at the macro-level of the cultural context. If the micro- and macro-analyses, dating back to the Aristotelian and Platonic traditions, produce comparable results, they confirm the claimed hypothesis. If the results do not converge, then either the suggested hypothesis is disproved, or one of the methodologies is faulty.

There are numerous methods available on both methodological planes, with formal methods being currently out of fashion and often condemned as reductive and value- and context-free. These methods, however, have long been helpful in solving complex problems, even when used alone, especially in cases of disputed authorship (e.g.

Michell, 1996, p. 228-229). As an example, I would like to offer my own quantitative method of comparative analysis based on simple counting of translated words.

2.4.2 Token Equivalence Method (TEM)

The Token Equivalence Method (TEM) was suggested (Tarvi 2004) as a method of formal comparative assessment of translations with their originals. The words in the original text are consecutively numbered, and if a translated counterpart is found, it gets the same number. As a result, one gets (within a chosen set of rules) the number of translated words (tokens), as well as the number of omissions and additions. In my research, the results obtained by the TEM were triangulated with the numerous, due to the popularity of the classical text chosen for analysis, conclusions of conventional critical assessments, and showed a perfect fit with them. Unlike the latter, however, where the results of comparison are conveyed in terms of evaluative adjectives, the TEM results are expressed in one figure, Translation Quotient (TQ), which is a percentage of the number of tokens preserved in the translation.

Once converted into a software product, “...well worth attempting in a classroom situation” (Lengyel, 2006, p. 286), this method has a chance of being used as a background for any further analysis. Such a rough approximation of the translation-original comparative assessment might become a meaningful start for a discussion in class. In other words, in evaluating translations, TQ may serve as an initial step followed by considering various quality control factors of a comprehensive evaluative matrix, such as cohesion and coherence, syntax, sociolect, register, tone, etc. The computer program could be interactive, so that in the course of discussion students could introduce changes into their versions and thus improve their personal TQs and ultimately the overall quality of translation.

2.4.3 The 'Triangulation' Approach in Action

I would like to conclude this section with two examples of the 'triangulation' approach. One example is taken from my PhD thesis, in which I applied the Token Equivalence Method (TEM) to the text analyzed by Juliane House (2001) – a German translation of an English fairy-tale of 376 words. The conclusion House reached after analyzing the text within her fairly complex four-tier 'functionalist-formal' model was: “[t]he German translation analyzed above can be described as a covert translation, in which a cultural filter has been applied” (2001, p. 154).

The TEM used to estimate the semantic fit of the English translation to the German original produced the following quantitative results: 46 sTs (source Tokens) were not retained in the German translation, which implied an 87% semantic fit (TQ = 87%), while 31 eTs (excessive Tokens) were added. It goes without saying that if 46 sTs (13% of the text) were not retained, and 31 eTs were added, the 'cultural filter' had apparently been applied, which conclusion fully converges with that reached by House after her 150-page analysis. Hence, both House's method and the TEM have measured a ST-TT 'distance' which results in a certain way of the translation's functioning in the receiving culture, the former in a much broader descriptive context than the latter.

Another example concerns the possible use of the TEM in publishing business. In my report *Profiling Translation Quality: Do Formal Means of Assessment Work?*, given at the KäTu-IV Conference in Savonlinna (2006), I used the TEM to compare various English translations of Leo Tolstoy's *Anna Karenina*. The figures in the table below describe the completeness of preserving Tolstoy's lexical material (within the limits of the chosen excerpts):

Translator	Year	TQ (%)
Magarshack, David	1961	95,9
Carmichael, Joel	1960	95,6
Garnett, Constance	1901	95,2
Pevear, Richard / Volkhonsky, Larissa	2000	92,7
Edmonds, Rosemary	1954	91,2
The Maudes, Aylmer & Louise	1929	90,3
Greenwood, E.B.	1995	89,7
Townsend, Rochelle S.	1912	79
Wiener, Leo	1899	55,1

Scheme 7. Translation Quotients of the English Versions of Tolstoy’s Anna Karenina.

As can be seen, the TQs differ considerably: from 55,1% to 95,9%. Taken alone, the figures might be meaningless; but once they are correlated with the available conventional critical responses, they might help publishers, driven as they are by rights availability and sales, take a sensible decision as to which version to choose for republishing.

‘Triangulation’ could be viewed as a way out of the present situation which can be described as chaotic, when every analyst has a different approach and rejects everyone else’s method, when every discovery proclaimed by one theorist is disputed by another, equally qualified. By correlating the ‘labeling’ and ‘measuring’ techniques, ‘triangulation’ enables one to cross-check and re-check both the suggested methods and the obtained results.

3 Text typology

It would be a truism to say that the success of instruction in practical translation skills largely depends on the choice of texts, and, hence,

on an instrumental text typology. Theoretical generalizations in this area of translation studies can at best be described as sparse, which is attested by the stable popularity of Katherine Reiss' text type 'triangle' (1977). Her model is still attractive, despite criticism, because it is relatively simple and built on classical principles.

3.1 Cline Text Typology (CTT)

Reiss based her classification on Karl Bühler's language functions – expressive, informative, operative – based, in their turn, on Cicero's aims of language – to delight, to instruct, to move. A 'vulgarized' binary opposition, limited to the level of products and thus inevitably reductive, presents text typology as a cline between the poles of fiction and nonfiction. Berel Lang succinctly characterizes the essence of the dichotomy as follows:

...nonfiction may be true or false and fiction would be –
neither? Both? Something

more? Something less? ... The truth of the matter is
that...fiction has nothing to do

with facts, and nonfiction thinks of truth as a bit of
information (1983, p. 225).

One of the poles of the cline is, hence, fiction or non-facts (expressive function), the other pole is nonfiction or facts (informative and operative functions combined).

Art	Craft
expressive function (fiction, non-facts)	informative function (non-fiction, facts)
	operative function (non-fiction, facts)

Scheme 8. Cline Text Typology (CTT).

It should be recalled, however, that under real conditions the modes of expression and functions may be mixed (Lang, 1983, p. 63).

3.1.1 The 'Art' Pole of the Cline

The 'art' pole embraces texts created to delight, which are also called fiction, imaginative literature, artistic literature, or creative writing. These texts are imagination-based, entertainment-aimed, multi-purposeful, and characterized by non-specified context (situation). Artistic texts are essentially different from ordinary language use by being 'non-paraphrasable': "[i]n literary art there is typically adopted a convention that no single purpose shall be specified for the text. Perhaps only this convention separates literature from advertising, parables, and propaganda" (Toolan, 1990, p. 41).

Besides, imagination-based literature has a property which is sometimes called 'sovereignty' (Carter & Nash, 1983), sometimes 'dual status' (Bronzwaer, 1970): in fiction, uniquely, while individual texts can be identified as a token of culturally enshrined types in many respects, they retain the license of counting as unique types in their own right – now token of a generic type, now unique type without tokens. In other words, the context in a literary text can be viewed as bi-scopal: any specific stylistic device may be related both to co-textual norms and to extra-textual norms or expectations. The authority of the internal norms or standards is certainly one of the striking properties of literary texts, setting them apart from all other kinds of text, where any particular text is treated as a token to be evaluated in the (external) context of text types.

Fiction, with its global strategy to entertain and to win over the reader, can employ any grammatical mood and tense in any combination. Besides, the sequence of events can be presented in any succession as is distinguished by 'plot' and 'story', with plot being "... an artful disposition of the incidents which make up a story" (Selden

et. al, 1997, p. 35). All these traits make teaching translation of such texts, as well as creative writing in general, extremely difficult since people tend to learn to do arts “by instinct or experience rather than by learning facts or rules” (Collins COBUILD Dictionary).

3.1.2 The 'Craft' Pole of the Cline

The 'craft' pole is the abode of texts aimed to instruct or to move to action. These texts are fact-based, information-aimed, argumentative, single-purposed, and placed in specified context (situation). Argumentative prose (based on the use of rhetoric to bring the point to the reader) and instruction prose (defined by the described activity) obey certain laws of persuasion, working under clearly described circumstances, when mostly 'story' sequence, or the real sequence of events, is allowed, and the indicative mood and indefinite tenses are primarily used. As Emma Wagner elucidates, “... when we leave the realm of literature, and enter the non-fiction zone, I think translators have a different role ... [and] occupy a supranational space in which language matters very little as long as it doesn't inhibit communication” (Chesterman & Wagner, 2002, p. 22).

While translation of fiction is more an art than a craft, the non-fiction pole of the cline, the core of the 'vulgarized' typology, allows further formal categorization. Raymond Chapman (1973) rightfully asserts that the notion of 'legal language', 'medical language', 'religious language', etc., is an abstraction composed from a large number of *paroles* in which certain linguistic features recur with high enough frequency to be significant. Each of these 'languages', he believes, is unquestionably part of a certain *langue*, showing enough common features to be intelligible in a general pattern, if not in every detail, to most users of the *langue*. For instance, conjunctive phrases in English legal documents of the type 'the last will and testament'; or few imperatives and a high proportion of complex

sentences in academic lectures; or the use of simple present for a proximate future in news bulletins, e.g., ‘at the end of this bulletin we talk to a correspondent’; etc. Chapman’s proposition is as follows:

Instead of talking about ‘legal language’ and so on, it is better to call these distinctive usages styles. The notion of ‘legal style’ or ‘religious style’ is, like all other attempts to categorize language, made possible by the performance of users (1973, p. 10).

Accepting Chapman’s idea of singling out various ‘styles’ of nonfiction, and recalling that other overloaded terms, like ‘genres’ (Williams and Chesterman, 2002, p. 9ff) have been used, I would like to propose the term *corporate texts* to designate a particular field of texts for special purposes based on facts, characterized by a certain *parole* and recurrent features.

I find it useful to separate ‘corporal’ texts from other types of non-fiction for practical instruction in translation.

Art	Craft
fiction, non facts	nonfiction, facts (corporate texts)

Scheme 9. Cline Text Typology (CTT): Corporate Texts on the Craft Pole.

From the standpoint of the position of a text on the cline, a corporate text can, depending on the personal style of the author, be located closer to either of the poles which might silence former fruitless debates as to which part of Reiss’ triangle a certain text is to be referred to. Both fiction and non-fiction texts can employ, to a varying degree, the available grammatical means and literary tropes, with, for instance, a clear emphasis on terminology in corporate texts and on free choice of words in fiction.

The Cline Text Typology (CTT) might be instrumental in both planning curricula according to the current market demands, and, at a lower level, in choosing texts for translation classes. The skills of translating various corporate texts can be mastered provided they are taught as a chosen set of recurrent features within their corporate subtypes on the nonfiction pole (legal, medical, etc.).

What might be of a particular practical importance is 'checklists' of the recurrent stylistic, terminological and rhetorical features in each and every corporate text type, complete with examples of typical texts.

4 Concluding remarks

In this paper, some of my graphic 'vulgarizations' of 'haute couture' ideas have been considered: an overview of the field as the Map-Matrix Model (MMM), its 'popular' version – the 'W Model' (WM), Research Progress Structure (RPS) crowned by Argument Structure Rectangle (ASR), 'triangulation' approach to text analysis based on involvement of formal research methods of the Token Equivalence Method (TEM) type, and a practice-oriented Cline Text Typology (CTT) with emphasis on various 'corporate' text types.

All these 'prêt-à-porter' adaptations have one goal in common: to make translation theory and students of translation meet halfway, since "[m]essages from the ivory tower tend not to penetrate as far as the wordface" (Chesterman & Wagner, 2002, p. 1). A lecturer's dilemma – to present theory in all its variegated 'ivory tower' complexity or to 'vulgarize' it – is reduced here to the second alternative, inevitable under the present-day educational conditions.

I would like to conclude my survey paper by reinforcing my teacher's voice with an authoritative opinion from Emma Wagner, a translator and translation manager at the European Commission in Luxemburg:

“[p]erhaps what we need...is a different kind of theory, that we could help create: practice-oriented theory – a theory rooted in best practice, directed at improved practice, and attentive to practitioners throughout the profession” (ibid., p. 133). Until the ‘practice-oriented’ or ‘prêt-à-porter’ theory remains a dream, ‘vulgarization’ of the available ‘haute couture’ elaborations might be viewed as a viable alternative.

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Academic profiles

Leena Aarikka-Stenroos is a researcher and lecturer in Marketing. Her research has focused on professional services, creating relations and networks in business markets, and references, referrals and reputation. She earned her M. A. in Finnish language at Turku University and her M. Sc. in Marketing at Turku School of Economics. She has a wide teaching experience in Finnish language and Marketing, since she has been teaching the Finnish language at Turku University/Centre for Translating and Interpreting 1995–2001 and 2003, the Finnish language at Turku School of Economics 2001–2003 and Marketing at Turku School of Economics 2004–2008. She will be defending her doctoral thesis on creating new business relations in professional service services in 2010. Her articles and conference papers have been published in international academic conferences and books related to inter-organizational business research and marketing communication.

Dr. Erik Angelone is currently Assistant Professor of Translation Studies (German) at the Institute for Applied Linguistics, Kent State University, USA. His recent research in empirical translation studies explores cognitive processes and translation behavior, issues of expertise, process-oriented translator training and corpus-based applications. Over the course of his career, he has taught undergraduate and graduate courses on translation theory, German-English general language and technical translation, website translation and intercultural communication. He earned his B.A. in German and his M.A. in Intercultural Communication from the University of Maryland Baltimore County, and his Ph.D. in Translation Studies (Applied Linguistics) from the University of Heidelberg.

Maria Brander de la Iglesia has lectured full-time at the University of Salamanca since 2006. She holds a degree in Translation and Interpreting, and as a two-year research-based M.Phil. (D.E.A.) in Interpreting Studies from the University of Granada (2005). She has taught interpreting in various schools, including Heriot-Watt University, the University of Granada and the European University of Madrid, as well as language and translation-related subjects at the University of Franche-Comté in France. She is currently pursuing a PhD by thesis in Interpreting Studies at the University of Salamanca. Her subjects of interest are interpreting teaching and learning, the impact of new technologies and collaborative learning environments in the training of interpreters, ethics in interpreter studies and volunteer and humanitarian communities of interpreters. María is a volunteer interpreter with Babels and a member of the research group GRETI (Interpreting and the Challenges of Globalisation) of the University of Granada.

María-Dolores Olvera-Lobo and **Juncal Gutiérrez-Artacho** are members of a research group (AulaInt) at the University of Granada, Spain. Our research focuses on the development of an innovative e-learning model in the teaching of undergraduate students of Translation. María-Dolores Olvera-Lobo is a specialist in documentation. She is also the co-ordinator of AulaInt and other research groups. Juncal Gutiérrez-Artacho is a postgraduate student of the University of Granada and is part of AulaInt.

Dr Marta Arumí Ribas holds a degree in Translation from the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB), a PhD in Interpreting from the Universitat Pompeu Fabra (UPF), a Master's Degree in Conference Interpreting from the Universidad de La Laguna (ULL) and a Master's Degree in Teaching Conference Interpreting from the École de Traduction et Interprétation of the Université de Genève. She lectures at the UAB, where she coordinates a Masters Degree in

Conference Interpreting. Her main lines of research are the teaching of consecutive interpreting, self-regulation processes in the classroom and community interpreting. She participates in various funded research projects and groups. She has been working as a free-lance conference interpreter for more than ten years.

Ljuba Tarvi defended her PhD thesis, *Comparative Translation Assessment: Quantifying Quality* at Helsinki University in 2004. Before the defense, she worked as a language teacher and translator; afterwards, she lectured in translation studies at Tallinn University. Besides translation studies, her interests include the problems of style in literary texts of bilingual writers (Vladimir Nabokov).