TRAINING FOR THE TRANSLATION MARKET IN TURKEY: AN ANALYSIS OF CURRICULA AND STAKEHOLDERS

Volga Yilmaz Gumus

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DOCTORAL THESIS

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

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Supervised by Dr. Anthony Pym, Rovira i Virgili University, Spain, and

Dr. Aymil Doğan, Hacettepe University, Turkey

Department of English and German Studies

Intercultural Studies Group

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UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

Professor Anthony Pym
Intercultural Studies Group
URV. Avda. Catalunya 35
43002 Tarragona, Spain
http://isg.urv.es/

July 2, 2013

I hereby certify that the present study ***Training for the translation market in Turkey: An analysis of curricula and stakeholders***, presented by **Volga Yılmaz Gümü**ş for the award of the degree of Doctor, has been carried out under the supervision of myself at the Universitat Rovira i Virgili, with co-supervision by Dr Aymil Doğan at Hacettepe University in Turkey.

Professor Anthony Pym   President
Intercultural Studies Group   European Society for
Universitat Rovira i Virgili   Translation Studies
Tarragona, Spain

REPUPLIC OF TURKEY
HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY
Faculty of Letters
Department of Translation and Interpretation

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Assoc. Prof. Dr. Aymil Doğan

Department of Translation and Interpretation

Faculty of Letters

Hacettepe University

Ankara, Turkey

Hacettepe UniversityFaculty of Letters, Department of Translation and Interpretation TR-06800 Ankara Turkey.
Telephone:+903122978375 Fax:+903122992085

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Abstract

The present study examines the role of the translation market in translator-training and curriculum-design practices in Turkey from the perspective of various stakeholders, especially the graduates of undergraduate translator-training programs. The need to respond to market demands in curricular design and teaching practices has been one of the most frequently discussed issues in higher education, particularly for disciplines that have a vocational aspect. Translation, being one of those disciplines, is the object of a plethora of theoretical discussions on the place of market demands in translator training, with specific foci on professionalization, use of technology, and translation theory and practice. The results of this study are discussed with particular reference to these most commonly referred topics in the literature related to training and the market.

In the literature, there are two approaches to teaching professional skills in translator-training programs: preparing students for the market in view of what the market *actually* expects from a professional (see for example Aula.int 2005; Kiraly 2000, 2005; Li 2000, 2002, 2007; Mackenzie 2004; Olvera-Lobo et al. 2007, 2008, 2009), and furnishing students with *transferable* skills that allow them to adapt to changing market demands (see Mossop 2003; Pym 2003; Bernardini 2004; Kearns 2006). This study is not based on hypotheses that take sides in this issue, and does not set out to measure any possible gap between translator training and market demands. Instead, it attempts to describe what is happening in translator-training programs. Given that *graduates* are familiar both with practices in translator-training institutions and with the translation market (considering that they are professionally employed in that market), the study first resorts to their viewpoints, presuming that they are the ones closest to the actual problems. In this respect, this study makes use of surveys and interviews to investigate the perceptions that translation graduates have of their education and professional needs. The study first reports on the results of questionnaire surveys completed by 125 graduates. Through maximum variation and criteria sampling, twelve graduates were then selected for in-depth interviews. The initial findings obtained from the graduates were supported with interview findings from other stakeholders, including the administrators of translator-training programs, an employer, and a founding member of translation students' union.

This study is expected to have major implications for translator-training and curriculum-design practices, particularly in the Turkish context. The results suggest that almost all stakeholders not only defend the need for greater interaction between training and the market, but also seek the inclusion of elements that prepare students for the market in the translation curricula. However, there seems to be a need to adopt a more systematic approach to deal with the market factor in training practices. Furthermore, it is desirable to integrate – rather than handle individually – the elements that prepare trainees for the market, including translation technologies and professional work procedures and ethics. This requires all trainers in a program to become familiar with what awaits trainees when they enter the market.

Keywords

Translator training, translation market, undergraduate translation programs, translator-training curriculum, market demands, professionalization

List of Abbreviations

CAT	Computer-assisted Translation
CBT	Competence-based Training
CEN	European Committee for Standards
EC DGT	European Commission Directorate-General for Translation
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
EMT	European Master's in Translation
EQF	European Qualifications Framework
EU	European Union
GPA	Grade Point Average
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
ICTI	Interinstitutional Committee for Translation and Interpretation
IT	Information Technologies
LYS	Lisans Yerleştirme Sınavları (Exams for Placement to Undergraduate Programs)
MT	Machine Translation
OPTIMALE	Optimising Professional Translator Training in a Multilingual Europe
ÖSYS	Öğrenci Seçme ve Yerleştirme Sistemi (Student Selection and Placement System of Turkey)
PACTE	Procés d'Adquisició de la Competència Traductora i Avaluació (Process of Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation)
PATT	Professional Approach to Translator Training
SL	Source Language
ST	Source Text
TÜÇEB	Türkiye Çeviri Öğrencileri Birliği (Turkish Union of Translation Students)
TL	Target Language
TM	Translation Memory
TS	Translation Studies
TT	Target Text
YGS	Yükseköğretime Geçiş Sınavı (Transition to Higher Education Exam)

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Preliminary remarks

The number of translator- and interpreter-training programs in higher education institutions has increased dramatically in Turkey in the late 1990s and early 2000s. The 2013 ÖSYS (Student Selection and Placement System) Guidebook of Higher Education Programs lists 23 universities offering four-year undergraduate studies in translation and interpreting, in addition to many associate and graduate degree programs. However, the Translation Studies literature in Turkey provides few empirical studies about the views held by stakeholders such as students, trainers, professionals and employers, with regard to the needs, offerings and quality of translator training. Thus, the general aim of this study is to investigate the position of the translation market in translator-training and curriculum-design practices from the perspective of various stakeholders, especially the graduates of undergraduate translator-training programs. For this purpose, I conducted surveys and interviews with graduates that received undergraduate education in the translation and interpreting departments of two Turkish universities, i.e. Hacettepe and Bilkent universities. This study reports on the results and findings of the survey and interviews. The initial findings obtained from the graduates were supported with interview findings from other stakeholders, including the administrators of translation programs and an employer.

With the inception of the Bologna process in 1999 by 29 countries and with the involvement of 18 other countries in the process in 2000s, higher education has been undergoing changes, particularly with respect to the basic structure (i.e. division between Bachelor's and Master's degrees). The target of the Bologna process was to set up the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) in 2010. The Bologna process has induced universities in participating countries to renew their curricula in line with restructuring and quality-assurance guidelines. The Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (2005) cover *inter alia* approval, monitoring and periodic review of programs and awards, assessment of students, quality assurance of teaching staff, and learning resources and student support. Since Turkey has been a full member of the Bologna process since 2001, the Higher Education Council of Turkey

asked universities and individual programs to develop strategic plans and establish academic assessment and quality improvement boards for internal quality assurance, in line with these standards and guidelines. Throughout this process, the Turkish higher education institutions have redefined their strategic plans, program outcomes, learning outcomes and the qualifications expected of graduates. Within this restructuring process, the higher education institutions have been reviewing and revising their curriculum content. I believe that the results of this study, concentrating mainly on market involvement in the training process and students' preparedness for the market, may contribute to curricular revision practices. The translation market has gone through significant changes in the Internet era in relation to professionalization, globalization and specialization, and trainers have to keep pace with these changes (Biel 2011: 163).

Maeve Olohan argues that "the analyses of the market, of employment trends, of translator profiles and of developments in standards for translation services are highly relevant for translator training because they can provide input for the translator training curriculum and syllabus" (2007: 54). The role of the market in curricular design and training practices in higher education has been at the core of discussions in education, specifically for disciplines that have a vocational aspect. Translator training, defined by Kearns (2008: 185) as a "typically vocational activity which is often based in, and in other ways contingent on, academic settings", has long involved considerations of vocational market demands. Kiraly, one of the translation scholars that have written extensively on the link between translator education and the translation market, argues that the providers and designers of programs need to take advantage of the market as a source of information:

> If we want our products and services to be accepted by the market, we must conduct survey research among market participants. If we want to investigate the efficacy of the Translator Education programs we offer, one of our main sources of information will be the translation services market. (Kiraly 2005: 1099)

Schäffner (2005: 237) draws attention to how translator-training programs are scrutinized for quality in the United Kingdom, and notes that the questions asked in the review processes are usually as follows: "Has the programme been designed for the needs of the professional world? And how do you know what the professional world requires?". These questions evidently establish a link between quality in translator training and the

professional world. The issue of providing students with professional skills in academic settings has long been discussed in academic teaching environments, and at times the professional and the academic have confronted one another, particularly with regard to the teaching of translation practice and theory in university training programs. González Davies (2004a: 79) also refers to this duality: "...an underlying question in our field and indeed in any other professionally oriented programme of university studies is: practice *versus* academe or practice *plus* academe?" (italics in original). Many of the writings on translator training deal with this question, and argue that theory should be integrated into training settings, together with practice, to enable students to "reflect on what they do, how they do it, and why they do it in one way rather than another" (Baker 1992: 1). Theory is also needed in training to add an "academic weight" to the curriculum and to contribute to the preparation of students for translation careers (Shuttleworth 2001: 505), to cooperate with practice so as to help translators solve particularly terminological problems in non-literary translation (Thelen 2005: 46-47), and to generalize and systematize problems in practice (Lederer 2007: 33).

A survey of the literature on translator training (see Chapter 2 below) has led us to carry out an empirical study on translator training, involving the market factor, with particular focus on professionalization, use of technology, and theory and practice in training, which are the most commonly referred topics in discussions related to training and the market. The results of this study are expected to contribute to the design and revision of translator-training curricula. As Calvo (2011: 15) puts it, curriculum models "can be the product of sound academic research, methods and analysis (e.g. using TAPs, interviews of employers, surveys answered by translators or professional associations, or other sorts of observational, empirical or reflective techniques)".

The descriptions of undergraduate translator-training programs show that they have been established to train competent translators and interpreters for the translation and interpreting market, furnished with various skills that are required if the graduate is to be employed in the market. Some of the program descriptions, received from the websites of respective programs, are as follows:

> The aim behind the establishment of the Department of Translation and Interpretation is to *educate qualified translators and interpreters who could translate and interpret in various areas* such as medicine, social sciences,

international relations, law, economics and literature within a scientific framework. (Hacettepe University, emphasis added)

The Department of Translation and Interpretation seeks to raise professionals who are knowledgeable, eager to research and learn, multicultural, interested in current issues and cultural relations, *aware of the expectations and conditions of the market, and who could utilize their knowledge and experience in translation and interpretation through scientific methods with the aid of cutting-edge technology.* (Atılım University, emphasis added)

The aim of the four-year B.A. program is to teach students the theories and techniques of translation and interpreting, and to provide them with the necessary cultural background and skills *for a career in translation and conference interpreting.* (Boğaziçi University, emphasis added)

Our vision is to provide high-quality education in Translation Studies based on modern technologies; train our students in terminology studies, lexicography, technical translation, computer-assisted translation, multilingual project management, localization, literary translation and translation criticism; *satisfy the (current and future) needs of the real sect*or; become a world-acclaimed translation (studies) center, adopting the principle of excellence in all fields. (Yıldız Technical University, emphasis added)

We aim to provide our students with *the knowledge and skills they will need after graduation*, making it possible for them to draw upon theoretical models as they become effective practitioners of translation. (Okan University, emphasis added)

Although some research projects, including the present one, show that a substantial number of graduates are not employed as translators after completing their study and that some students choose this program for secondary purposes such as foreign-language improvement, the main aim of the programs is officially to train translators to be employed in the market. In this vein, it is natural that we discuss and attempt to provide empirical data on what the market needs from translators and on the role of training programs in meeting these needs.

Keeping in mind the discussions related to the position of the market in training, the place of professional issues in training, and practice and theory in training, I conducted a survey and did interviews among the graduates of translator-training programs, as this group of stakeholders is familiar with both training and market practices (in cases where they are employed professionally on the market after graduation). The survey seeks to identify two main aspects: 1) any possible weaknesses in translator-training programs in preparing trainees for the market, and 2) the link between training and the market, i.e. forms, frequency and benefits of interaction between the two. Then I interviewed the administrators of training programs, an employer and a founding representative of the translation students union to look for answers to the same questions from their perspective and to receive their opinions on certain statements by the graduates. Rather than prescribe what should be done in translator training and how it should be done, this study attempts to describe what has actually been done in translator training and how it has been done, and sets out to discuss these practices with respect to market needs, with specific focus on teaching technology, teaching professional skills and any possible dichotomy between translation theory and practice. My belief is that, before carrying out micro-level research on the *process* of learning or the *products* of translation graduates, there is a need to describe the translator training in the Turkish context from a macro perspective with reference to the perceptions of various stakeholders.

Only the undergraduate translator-training programs are included in this study, and throughout the whole study the concept of training refers to training at this level. Translator training at the undergraduate level has a longer history in Turkey than Master's and associate-degree programs. Thus, they may be considered the main workforce providers for the market.

I should also note that this study focuses exclusively on *translator* training. It does not involve interpreter training, although departments of translation and interpreting or departments of translation and interpreting studies in Turkey confer a degree in both translation and interpreting at the undergraduate level. There are two main reasons why the study excludes interpreter training. First, some departments offer different programs for translation and interpreting in the final one or two years of study (e.g. at Bilkent, Boğaziçi and Hacettepe universities). Students who wish to specialize in interpreting are required to achieve a certain grade point average (GPA) and pass an aptitude test before

they are selected to study interpreting. Thus, even though the programs award a single diploma, the curricular contents offered to prospective translators and prospective interpreters may be different from each other. Second, given that Interpreting Studies has become a subfield of Translation Studies in its own right, studies related to interpreter competence (e.g. Moser-Mercer 2008, Kaczmarek 2010), the interpreting profession and interpreters' roles (e.g. Doğan 2003, Angelelli 2004, Pöchhacker 2009, Zwischenberger 2009), and interpreter training (e.g. Takeda 2010, Sandrelli and de Manuel Jerez 2007, Sawyer 2004) have generally been carried out separately. Given the recent tendency to specialization within the translation market itself, it would be unreasonable to deal with translation and interpreting together, with undifferentiated professional skills and market expectations. Thus, the present study does not involve interpreter training or the interpreting market; it attempts to explore only the position of the translation market.

The Translation Studies literature has included ample research on translator training, particularly since the early 1990s (see for example the collective volumes edited by Dollerup and Loddegaard 1991; Dollerup and Lindegaard 1993; Dollerup and Appel 1995; Fleischmann, Kutz, and Schmitt 1997; Hung 2002; Maia, Haller, and Ulrych 2002; Baer and Koby 2003; Malmkjær 2004; Tennent 2005; Kearns 2006; Kearns 2008; Bogucki 2010; Hubscher-Davidson and Borodo 2012; Kiraly, Hansen-Schirra, and Maksymski 2013). The ultimate aim of this research is to contribute the translator-training literature with empirical data and qualitative discussions from the Turkish context. In the longer term, the present study is expected to enable comparative studies between countries with respect to translator-training practices.

1.2. Structure of the study

The structure of the study is designed as follows:

Chapter 1, the present chapter, gives an introduction to the topic, summarizing the place and significance of market factor in translator training and underpinning the major themes dealt with in the study. The chapter further provides an outline of the thesis as well as research objectives and questions.

Chapter 2 provides a survey of the existing literature on the relationship between translator training and the translation market, and discusses the role of the market in

training. The chapter presents the literature on empirical and non-empirical studies in two separate parts. It also gives an overview of translator-training research in Turkey.

Chapter 3 offers a glance at the basics of translator training in Turkey in order to describe the context where graduates, the main subjects of this study, have received training. A very brief history of university translator training is followed by information on the universities that offer translation degrees at various levels in the Turkish context. Admission to undergraduate programs in translation departments is explained briefly with reference to entry to the higher education system. The chapter then provides an overview of course contents in undergraduate translator-training programs, and brief information on the background of translator trainers. At the end of this chapter, information on entry into the translation market, certification of translators, standards on translation, and translators' associations is presented.

Chapter 4 provides a historical overview of the curricula used in the two programs since their establishment. The chapter mainly focuses on the major revisions on the curriculum and seeks the possible causes behind these revisions and alterations.

Chapter 5 describes the methodology of this study, where qualitative and quantitative methods are used. The chapter first defines the design of the survey of graduates, which provided qualitative data as well as quantitative data. The chapter then explains the processes of interviews with both graduates (twelve graduates, six from Hacettepe University and six from Bilkent University) and other stakeholders, i.e. the qualitative data-collecting tools employed in the study. The chapter also presents how the data collected were analyzed.

Chapter 6 reports on and discusses the results of the qualitative and quantitative analysis of survey results. After presenting demographic data about the respondents, the survey especially identifies the graduates' perceptions of any gaps between what is offered in training and what is demanded in the market as well as the forms, frequencies and desirability of interaction between training and the market.

Chapter 7 presents and discusses the results of interviews with graduates, in categories defined with respect to curricular components that play a significant role in the training of translators: theory and practice, technology, professionalization, language and terminology, and cultural issues.

Chapter 8 is dedicated to the results of interviews with the representatives of other stakeholders that play a role in translator training. In this respect, the administrators of training programs provided information on the functioning of programs in addition to curriculum design and revision processes. The employers expressed their expectations of graduates and their potential role in translator-training processes. A representative of the student union commented on their involvement and role in translator training.

An overall discussion of research findings is provided in Chapter 9. In this chapter, the findings of all research phases are correlated to provide an answer to research questions of the study. The chapter also defines limitations of the study, and makes suggestions for further studies on the link between translator training and the translator training, and market involvement in training.

1.3. Research questions

The study seeks answers to the following questions:

1. Which curricular components are more important for professional work in the translation market?
2. Which forms of interaction between translation training and the translation market are more effective in preparing trainees to the market?
3. Are there any differences between a state and a foundation university with regard to curriculum?
4. Are there any differences between a state and a foundation university with regard to interaction with the market?
5. What are the reasons behind the changes made on the curricula of translator-training programs in recent years?

1.4. Research objectives

The objectives of this study are:

1. to find out which curricular components in translator-training programs graduates perceive as being important for professional work (survey and interviews with graduates),

2. to discuss curricular components in translator-training programs with specific reference to teaching technology, professional issues, and theory and practice (survey and interviews with graduates),

3. to find out how graduates define the degree and forms of interaction between translator training and the translation market (survey and interviews with graduates),

4. to find out if any curricular differences in undergraduate translator-training programs are contingent on whether the university is a state or foundation university (survey of graduates, comparison between the graduates of a state and a foundation university),

5. to find out if any differences in interaction with the market are contingent on whether the university is a state or foundation university (survey of graduates, comparison between the graduates of a state and a foundation university),

6. to explain the reasons behind any changes made on the curricula of the two translator-training programs included in this study (comparison of former and existing curricula).

1.5. Definitions

For the purposes of this study, the following definitions are adopted:

Translator training is the four-year study at the undergraduate level provided in state or foundation universities, and does not cover the interpreting component of the study, even though the programs provide a single diploma for both translation and interpreting. For the purpose of this study, translator "training" is preferred to translator or translation "education" in order to emphasize the *vocational* aspect.

Translator-training programs and *translation programs* refer to the university programs that offer four-year undergraduate studies in translation within the frame of a curriculum and that grant an undergraduate degree to the trainees that successfully complete the program.

Translation market or *the market* refers to the social structure in which various stakeholders act to provide and buy translation services, including the services in both public and private sectors.

Translation profession or *the profession*, not including the interpreting profession in this context, refers to the occupation held by people providing translation services with a view to making their living from this activity and achieving a certain degree of social status in the community where they live. For the purpose of this study, the distinction between "profession" and "occupation" (as discussed in Katan 2009a and 2009b) is not taken into consideration.

Translation curriculum or *the curriculum* is in this case the aggregate of courses offered in a four-year translator-training program at university level.

Translation graduates or *the graduates* are people holding an undergraduate degree from translation and interpreting departments of Hacettepe and Bilkent universities in Turkey.

Chapter 2. Literature Review: Translator Training and the Translation Market

The Translation Studies literature includes empirical and non-empirical studies that attempt to identify the distance between training institutions and the professional translation market. Anderman and Rogers' (2000: 69) brief and simple description of Translation Studies as a discipline "which has more of a vocational angle than many other language-based disciplines" may help clarify the reason behind the attempts to bring training settings closer to the professional world. Accordingly, the research that brings together two components of Translation Studies, i.e. the translation profession and translator training, is relevant to the present study. This chapter presents the previous studies in two parts, i.e. empirical studies and non-empirical studies that concentrate on the relationship between training and profession. The chapter then offers a glance at translator-training research in Turkey.

2.1. Empirical studies

Empirical studies dealing with the relationship between translator training and market demands are still scarce in Translation Studies although the interest in this relationship has been growing (see for example Pym 1998; Li 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2002, 2006, 2007; Durban et al. 2003; Ulrych 2005; Aula.int 2005; Katan 2009a, 2009b).

Li is one of the few translation scholars who have been involved in studying empirically the relations of training programs with various stakeholders, i.e. professionals, students and administrators of translation services. One of the studies by Li (2000) attempts to shed light on the needs of professionals employed in the translation and interpreting market in Hong Kong and their perceptions of translator training. Li (2000: 128) draws attention to his impression that translation programs are not oriented by learners' needs, but by the experiences and beliefs of teaching staff in the institution. The data for his study were collected through a questionnaire administered to 42 professionals, and in-depth semi-structured interviews with 12 of the questionnaire respondents. Selecting the participants for the interview, the researcher used Patton's maximum variation sampling in order to achieve "maximum variation in participants'

age, sex, translation and interpreting experience, working context, and educational backgrounds" (Li 2000: 132). It is noteworthy that "English Language and Literature" and "Chinese Language and Literature" were judged the "most helpful" courses in translator-training programs, *above* the courses specifically on translation. Furthermore, the respondents mentioned English and Chinese competence and translation skills as the best-prepared areas, and subject-matter knowledge and interpretation as the least prepared areas. The professionals also draw attention to the gap between the school curriculum and the professional market. They define three main challenges at work: the choice of the right style for translation, interpreting practice, and time constraints with translation and interpreting tasks were the major challenges that professionals mentioned they had *not* been prepared for adequately at university. The respondents mentioned interpreting as a challenge because they perceived it as being more difficult than written translation in general and because of stage fright. Further, the social changes brought about by Hong Kong's return to China caused changes in the tasks of translators, leading to an increase in translation into B language and non-standard translations such as summary translation or abridged translation. The most relevant results were obtained through professionals' answers to the questions about translator training and the professional world. According to the results, 47.6% of the professionals believed that the training they received only "somewhat reflected" the real needs of professional translators, and 38.1% of them said their training "adequately reflected" professional reality (Li 2000: 136). The examples they gave about the disparity between training and the professional world were based on "context versus teamwork, time constraint versus translation procedures, complete translation versus selective translation" (Li 2000: 137). Li concludes that translation teachers and researchers should be cognizant of real translation practices rather than "shutting [themselves] in [their] ivory tower", and that "translation programs must be responsive to social needs" (Li 2000: 147). The term "social needs" here refers to professional or market needs rather than to pragmatic targets such as being beneficial to the whole society.

In a further study, Li (2002) emphasizes the importance of needs assessment with respect to the learners. This study adopted the techniques of focus-group discussions, questionnaire survey and in-depth interviews to collect both qualitative and quantitative data from 70 undergraduate students in the Department of Translation at the Chinese University of Hong Kong. Over half of the students (55.7%) that participated in Li's

survey chose to study translation due to their interest in Chinese and English, and one quarter chose it to enhance their language competence. Only 17.2% of the students preferred this department because they aspired to become translators or interpreters. Among the relevant findings was that the majority of the respondents believe language training should be a component of translator training and that they should study language either before translator training or together with translator training (Li 2002: 517-518). Another significant conclusion from the survey was that more than half of the respondents wanted to familiarize themselves with translation practice more than with translation theory during their training (Li 2002: 518). Believing that the training process must reflect market needs, the students touched upon the changing characteristics of the market, the need to invite professionals to training settings, and the need for more up-to-date teaching materials (Li 2002: 522). The first two recommendations of the students to improve the program were to offer more practical courses and more language courses (Li 2002: 523). The students' emphasis on language learning and their willingness to have more practical courses are remarkable conclusions of Li's study.

Li (2006) also worked on translation assessment. He notes that there is little emphasis on testing and assessment, despite the increasing research on teaching methods and materials. He administered a questionnaire to translation teachers (95 respondents) and conducted semi-structured interviews with 12 of these respondents. The main finding concerning the training-industry discrepancy is that teachers are inclined to use multiple-choice questions[1] in assessing knowledge of both translation theory (21.1%) and translation practice, particularly translations of sentences (30.5%) (Li 2006: 79), "which discourage students from gaining hands-on experience in translation practice" (Li 2006: 86). He suggests that "[i]n designing translation tasks, attention should also be given to development of students' analytic and problem-solving abilities, which are essential to successful and competent translators", and that "more non-literary texts should be included in translation tests since [the] graduates will be primarily translating pragmatic texts at work" (Li 2006: 86).

A later study by Li presents the results of a questionnaire survey and follow-up interviews among administrators of translation services (2007). The main considerations

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[1] Li does not mention the class sizes at undergraduate level in Hong Kong and whether this could be a factor that leads teachers to multiple-choice tests.

of administrators in recruiting new staff were translation skills, translation experience and English competence. Asked about the challenges for new recruits, the administrators mentioned, in the order given, lack of field knowledge, insufficient mastery of specialized terminologies, inadequate translation skills, low translation speed, and little professional confidence (Li 2007: 111). The administrators were requested to assess translation programs as well. Li (2007: 112-113) found that 66.7% of the administrators were satisfied, 3% very much satisfied, 3% extremely satisfied with the graduates, whereas 27.3% of them said that they were not satisfied. The administrators mentioned good translation skills and command of mother tongue and English as strengths of the graduates, and poor English competence and vocabulary and terminology-related problems as weaknesses (Li 2007: 113-114). When they were asked about the areas to be strengthened in translator training, competence in English was again at the top of the list, followed by specialized translation skills and skills for finding references (Li 2007: 115). Only 21% of the respondents mentioned "meeting market needs and changes" as an area to be strengthened. However, Li (2007: 116) reports that the administrators stressed this necessity in interviews.

Milton reports on two surveys he conducted in Brazil in 1999 and 2001 concerning the relationship between translators and academia. Milton (2004: 169) hypothesized that "Translation Studies as an academic area exists as an almost separate domain from that of professional translation in Brazil" and "that there is minimal contact between these areas". Milton administered the first survey to the students in three university programs (two undergraduate and one postgraduate) and also to the members of a translation group on the Internet (30 translators). One of the most remarkable results of this survey is that over half of the undergraduate students said they studied translation to improve their language skills rather than to be trained as professional translators (Milton 2004: 171; also in 2000: 70). It is also a little surprising that many translators enter the profession from other professions, particularly from technical fields. Further, Milton notes that translators see academia as being very distant from the real translation world, and thus employers generally ignore degrees in translation when employing translators (Milton 2004: 172). This conclusion supports Li (2007: 110), who found that only 20% of the administrators surveyed consider educational background when recruiting translators. However, Chan (2008: 170), interviewing eight employers, found that 75% of the interviewees preferred an academic degree to translator certification when the applicant

holds only one of them and all other qualifications are the same. In his case, the academic degree was a university degree in English.

Milton's second survey, in 2001, was sent to Internet translation groups and was returned by 34 translators. According to the results of this survey, Milton defines two groups of translators. The full-time professionals in the first group mostly have a degree in a technical area. They reported having had on-the-job training under the supervision of a senior translator or through self-teaching, with minimal contact with the university and with no future intention to take academic courses or attend academic conferences. They were in touch with other professionals through memberships of professional associations or Internet groups. The second group consisted of teachers and postgraduate students working part-time on translation. Many in this group had already taken university courses and had been engaged in academic commitments. This group had positive reflections on the university, and emphasized that the university provided a link between theory and practice and that the theoretical background might be helpful for practice. However, some members criticized the lack of contact between university and industry.

Within the framework of total quality management principles, Doğan (2001) administered questionnaires composed of open-ended questions to 60 graduates, 52 of whom had finished the program in English Translation and Interpreting at Hacettepe University and eight from the program in German Translation and Interpreting at Istanbul University, Turkey. The questionnaires gathered data about the graduates' expectations of their education and profession, and facts about their learning and working environments. For the purpose of the study, the responses of the participants were ranked by their frequency so that they could be used as data collection criteria for further studies (Doğan 2001: 77). The data analysis does not provide any figures or percentages. The most relevant results of this study concern how the graduates perceive the advantages and shortcomings of their education with respect to their professional life and their recommendations for improving undergraduate studies in translation. The graduates were asked which of the skills and knowledge acquired during their education were useful. Their answers were as follows without any frequency ranking: the diploma, as a very significant way of gaining acceptance and providing proof of one's knowledge and competence all over the world; developing knowledge and skills about terminology and fluent language use; adopting a more conscious approach to the text, identifying the right

method of translation and gaining speed in these tasks; learning ways of coping with a task without detailed knowledge; explaining and defending translation choices in view of theoretical knowledge; learning translation in scientific terms and becoming familiar with the practice of translation; developing the level of communicating and thinking; finding ways to access information and terminology; and self-discipline. When asked about the shortcomings of their undergraduate education, they mentioned the following points: "the content of courses does not overlap with what the market requires"; "there is no opportunity for a practicum"; "there is no bridge between theory and practice"; "I am not able to convince people about the principles that we learned. Unqualified people look for what they are used to"; "we did not learn how to protect our rights"; "we lack listening-comprehension skills". Their recommendations for improving training practices were as follows: "theory and practice should be linked with each other, "there should be more place for practice, and theory should be more functional"; "we need to learn how to protect our rights"; "there should be instructors in the department whose native language is our B language"; "there is a need for practicums"; "translation and interpreting should be taught as two separate disciplines"; "students should be furnished with the skills required by the market; students should be familiar with authentic texts encountered in the market"; "there should be specialized courses in the curriculum"; "students need to learn how to carry out research"; "computer literacy and second foreign language should be a must; students need to be able to improve their Turkish grammar and vocabulary"; "a professional union should be established"; "students need to be familiar with interpreting in earlier years of their study"; "students need to be informed about their employment opportunities"; "students' attention needs to be drawn to the challenges they may possibly encounter in the market"; and "the curriculum should be designed in cooperation with the translation market". At the end of this study, Doğan (2001: 89) suggests collecting further statistical data from a larger group of graduates as well as other stakeholders for detailed work on quality management, which would help revise the current training institutions and programs.

Eruz (2003) conducted a survey and interviews with the graduates of the Department of German Translation and Interpreting at Istanbul University. She reached 85% of the 92 students who graduated in 2002. Eruz found that graduates work as executive assistants, merchandisers, sales managers, sales coordinators, public relations officers, teachers, civil servants, and faculty members in various fields, in addition to

freelance or in-house translators, and translation company owners. The distribution of these job profiles is not given in figures or percentages. Eruz (2003: 117) adds that most of the graduates do not belong to a single job profile. The Department of Translation and Interpreting at Istanbul University held a meeting with their graduates in 2002, in which the graduates described themselves as a sort of text-producing experts (Eruz 2003: 119). This corroborates Ulrych's premise that "from a professional perspective, activities such as written composition into [sic] L1 and into [sic] L2, summary writing, reading comprehension and text analysis are all an integral part of the act of translation" (2005: 9).

A workforce research paper published by the National Centre for Languages in the United Kingdom provides considerable data about the workforce in translation and interpreting, gathered through questionnaires among individual translators and interpreters, translation agencies and companies, and course providers (Schellekens 2004). The results of the research have some implications for training. Over 40% of the agencies reported that new recruits were in need of further training while the others believed they were ready for job. Some agencies indicated the need to familiarize new recruits with in-house procedures, whereas one agency found them "too academically or literature focused for commercial translation needs" (Schellekens 2004: 20-21). Out of the 22 course-providing institutions, 13 reported having received no "formal input" from employers in course provision, and the others' link with the profession was mostly in the form of professionals teaching in the institution (Schellekens 2004: 39). With regard to strengthening the link with employers, the course providers suggested having employer representatives in academic and examination boards, setting up stakeholder groups, asking employers to contact with universities and assuring permanent relations with employers through workplace agreements, internships and so on (Schellekens 2004: 39).

Ulrych conducted a survey among 41 higher-education institutions in Europe and North America to investigate the current practices in translator training and "to glean whether the various institutions were aware of these changing attitudes and whether their courses envisaged a blend of educational and vocational ingredients in order better to meet real-life criteria" (2005: 5). Following basic questions about the structure of programs, the questionnaire looked for information on whether they incorporated both academic and professional criteria in their course content. Of all the institutions surveyed,

96% answered that they did indeed do so. Their professional criteria included choice of texts to translate (85%), criteria for translating texts (85%), type of activity, namely technical writing (57%), editing (66%) and localization (38%), and use of translation aids (76%) (Ulrych 2005: 10). The institutions were also asked how they presented the source text and how students submitted the final product. They present source texts with a description of the purpose of the exercise (68%), mention of the intended client (63%) and in their original format or layout (63%). In the majority of the institutions, the translations are submitted to instructors in electronic form. Ulrych (2005: 11) comments that this form of text submission not only adds a professional aspect to training but also fosters students' sense of responsibility and satisfaction.

Ulrych (2005: 21) emphasizes the changing modes of translation, namely the extension of translation proper, and its implications for the translator profile. Today, the definition of translation is extended to encompass activities such as technical writing, editing, localization and screen translation, which go beyond mere transfer of source text into target text. Ulrych emphasizes "flexibility" as a keyword for translator training programs to prepare students for their future profession. Ulrych goes on to argue that

[a]n important component of translators' competence is the acquisition of the metacognitive skills that will enable them to go on developing their competence and monitoring their performance throughout their professional careers. […] The task of translator education is, in short, not to shape a finished product but rather to provide graduate translators with the enabling (Fawcett 1987: 37) and transferable skills that will place them in a position to deal confidently with any text, on any subject, within any situation at any time and to be able to discuss their performance with fellow translators and clients. (2005: 22-23)

The Aula.int team at Granada University has been working on a professional approach to translator training. Their aim is explained in a more detailed way in section 2.2 below. The focus of their 2008 study is on student satisfaction in tele- and teamworking in virtual classrooms. Students were asked to fill out questionnaires before and after taking part in a translation project on a collaborative work platform (Olvera-Lobo et al. 2008: 110). According to the post-course questionnaire results, students think their general computer proficiency had improved, familiarization with teleworking increased, a positive attitude to teleworking in translation processes was enhanced, and

students reported higher satisfaction with teamwork (Olvera-Lobo et al. 2008: 114-120). The 2009 paper with the same focus explains that "the PATT model combines elements of roleplay, team-based task learning, simulation and case study in an innovative e-learning environment that functions via a collaborative platform" (Olvera-Lobo et al. 2009: 166), which are all used in a socio-constructivist approach to teaching.

A study by Katan, the results of which were published in two journals in 2009, is concerned with both training and professional aspects of translation. Katan (2009a: 113) defines two main objects of his study, the first of which is directly relevant to the present research: "to investigate to what extent the academic theories and beliefs are reflected in the workplace, and the extent to which the 'new impetus' or indeed any impetus from Translation Studies has made an impact on the profession" and to investigate "to what extent translators actually have the autonomy to intervene, to mediate or tackle conflict". The study is based on the analysis of data from an online survey filled out by around 1000 professional translators and interpreters, translation and interpreting lecturers, and translation and interpreting students worldwide. The most pertinent findings of Katan's study with regard to this research may be summarized as follows:

The respondents were asked to rate the importance of a variety of subjects in a general translation/interpreting program on a five-point scale (Katan 2009a: 142-147). The five most important modules were defined as translation and interpreting practice, translation and interpreting strategies, translation and interpreting electronic tools, subject knowledge and contrastive grammar/linguistics, all of which, in Katan's words, focus on "finding the right word" (Katan 2009a: 144). According to the survey results, "scholarly interests" such as translation and interpreting profession, intercultural theory, translation and interpreting theory and translation and interpreting ethics are of secondary importance. As to the responses of university-trained translators (those holding an undergraduate, Master's or PhD degree in translation), the majority of the respondents gave 10 credits (essential) to translation and interpreting practice, translation and interpreting strategies and electronic tools, a result which is compatible with the general tendency. They defined electronic tools, intercultural theory/practice, the translation and interpreting profession, contrastive grammar/linguistics and translation and interpreting ethics as important. For the component of 'translation theory', "most agreement is for a relatively lowly 'useful' 3rd place" (Katan 2009a: 146). These results may show that

academic theories and beliefs are not reflected strongly in the workplace and that professionals fail to see a strong link between theory and practice. Although over 50% of the respondents to this survey had university training in translation and interpreting, only 33 respondents mentioned that translation is a profession because "it requires specific training/education" (Katan 2009a: 124). As to the status of the translation/interpreting profession (Katan 2009a: 125-126), the majority of the respondents (59%) defined translation as a middle-status profession and only 10% as a high- and 31% as a low-status profession. On the other hand, 43% defined interpreting as a high-status profession and only 9% as a low-status profession. With regard to autonomy/control over their work, the results are as follows: "Over 50% of the professionals believe that they are the specialists who alone can *manage* the final product, while up to 90% believe that they effectively have at least *technical* control over the task to be done" (Katan 2009a: 135, italics in original).

In a second paper, Katan defines the focus of the survey as "translator and interpreter perception of their working land, their mindset or *Weltanshauung*, and the impact of Translation Studies and university training on that world" (Katan 2009b: 188). Katan filters the responses according to the respondents' length of work experience to see if they were affected by the academization of translator and interpreter training. He hypothesized that "if the 'academization of translator and interpreter training' were going to have an impact, it would be most evident among the younger university-trained translators who will have benefited from wider exposure to this relatively new phenomenon" (2009b: 204). However, he finds that the responses are mostly similar for each module taught in training programs, with the exception that the group with experience of over 21 years shows a stronger preference for subject-specific knowledge. This shows that "we can see no perceivable increase in the appreciation of the fruits of academia over time" (Katan 2009b: 204).

Rico (2010) provides an overview of changes in translator and interpreter training throughout the Bologna process, with special reference to the Spanish context and the case of the Universidad Europea de Madrid. The Spanish White Paper for Translation and Interpreting Programs (2004), based on the input from representatives of translation and interpreting programs and a few professional associations in the country, recommends a curriculum where core contents correspond to 60% of the curriculum (in terms of credit

load) and the remaining 40% is offered in the form of elective courses (Rico 2010: 96). The distribution of core contents, as recommended in the paper, is as follows:

> modules on translation from and into language B and C (24%) […]; foreign language and culture modules (16%); instrumental modules on documentation techniques, terminology management and translation technology (6%); course units on the students' native language and culture (5%); translation theory modules (3%); interdisciplinary course units relating to professional ethics and professional development (3%); and an introduction to interpreting techniques, note-taking, liaison and community interpreting (3%). (Rico 2010: 96)

In the Department of Translation and Applied Languages at the Universidad Europea de Madrid (UEM), a working group was established to reform the curriculum. It carried out a consultation process involving "(i) a survey of European translator training programs; (ii) a survey of UEM's alumni; (iii) input from professional associations; and (iv) views expressed by an external panel of specialists" (Rico 2010: 97). The views expressed in the external panel are particularly relevant to this study. According to the panel members, the translation industry requires translators who are able to work in a team and use computer-assisted tools effectively, and are equipped with professional competences such as

> accountability, effective communication skills, maturity, proactivity, curiosity, interest in current affairs, commitment to quality assurance, capacity to meet deadlines, awareness of market conditions, ability to network effectively with professional contacts and capacity to manage projects. (Rico 2010: 98)

The working group's survey of the literature draws attention to the changing characteristics of the market, and thus merging of the translation profession with other jobs such as editing and web publishing and higher demands from translators, mainly with regard to the use of technology. The group subsequently specifies generic and specific competences and embeds them into course contents.

Lafeber (2012) surveyed over 300 in-house translators and revisers working at intergovernmental organizations. She used two questionnaires to find out first the importance of different skills and knowledge types (the impact questionnaire) and then

which skills and knowledge types are lacking in newly recruited translators (the recruits questionnaire), using a list of 40 skills and knowledge types. According to the results of the first questionnaire, completeness of the TT, clear communication of the ST message, knowledge of SL, coherence of the TT and TL spelling rules rank the first five among most important skills (Lafeber 2012: 99). With regard to the use of technology, in the list with 40 items, "working with a translation memory" ranks 33rd, while "handling more than basic Word functions" is 36th and "working with Excel and/or PowerPoint" is 40th (Lafeber 2012: 99). In Lafeber's survey, using technology is among the skills most often mentioned as not being expected prior to recruitment as "most organizations have their own custom-designed document search and terminology tools" (Lafeber 2012: 102). Maintaining quality even under time pressure, adhering to in-house styles and mining reference materials for phrasing – all mainly related to professionalization – have a mean rating of 4.5. On the other hand, the results of the second survey show that new recruits are less apt to produce translations that flow smoothly, work out the meaning of obscure passages, write elegantly, capture nuances of ST and adhere to in-house style conventions (mean rating between 3.70 and 3.45) (Lafeber 2012: 107). Lafeber (2012: 134) concludes that "translators at IGOs need far more than language skills: they also need research, computer, analytical and interpersonal skills, as well as extensive general knowledge and, possibly, specialized subject knowledge".

OPTIMALE (Optimising Professional Translator Training in a Multilingual Europe) is a network of translator-training institutions involving 70 partners from 32 European countries, which aims to "build on and feed into" the efforts of the European Master's in Translation. One of the aims of the project has been to identify market and societal needs and professional requirements relevant to translator training. In an online survey of employers, 680 responses were received from across Europe (OPTIMALE 2012: 15). The top ten competences considered as essential or important by the employers were as follows: produce 100% quality (97%), identify client requirements (94%), define and/or apply quality procedures (92%), translate materials in one or more highly specialized domains (89%), experience in the field of professional translation (88%), awareness of professional ethics and standards (86%), define resources required (85%), produce estimates (78%), a university degree in translation or related fields (77%), consolidate client relationships (76%), and use translation memory systems (76%) (OPTIMALE 2012: 16). Considering these priorities, OPTIMALE (2012: 16-17)

concludes that the employers' main concern is quality, which may be grouped as the quality of the translators they employ, the quality of the work produced and the quality of customer relations. Pym, Grin, Sfreddo and Chan (2012: 91) adopt a cautious approach to OPTIMALE's findings, arguing that "it is hard to imagine a translation company willing to admit that it would accept reduced accuracy in favour of high speed or a cheap price". My interview with a company owner also showed that quality cannot be the main concern in every situation (see section 8.2.1.1.5).

Table 2.1 provides an overview of the above-cited empirical studies with various stakeholders of translator training:

Table 2.1. Overview of empirical studies with various stakeholders

Study	Country	Sample Group	Sample Size	Response Rate*
Li 2000	Hong Kong	translation professionals	42	64.6%
Li 2002	Hong Kong	undergraduate translation students	70	--
Li 2006	Mainland China	translation teachers	95	55.9%
Li 2007	Hong Kong	administrators of translation services	33	51.6%
Milton 2001	Brazil	translation students, translation professionals	30 professionals + translation students at 3 universities	--
Milton 2004	Brazil	translation professionals	34	--
Doğan 2001	Turkey	translation graduates	60	--
Eruz 2003	Turkey	translation graduates	about 75	85%
Schellekens 2004	UK	translators and interpreters, translation agencies and companies, course providing institutions	305 28 22	31%
Ulrych 2005	Europe and North America	higher education institutions	41	63%
Katan 2009a, 2009b	worldwide	translators, translation teachers, translation students	about 1000	--
Lafeber 2012	worldwide (intergovernmental organizations)	translators and revisers	300	--
OPTIMALE 2012	Europe	employers	684	--

* Media such as translators' groups or social networks have made it difficult to estimate to how many members the surveys reach and hence to calculate the response rate.

2.2. Non-empirical studies

The Translation Studies literature also presents many non-empirical discussions of the position of market demands in training contexts and the translation competence expected from graduates. Although acknowledging that training cannot ignore the demands of market, Pym (1998) argues that the market cannot be a major determinant on training practices. For him, the training should equip students with communication skills they require to adapt to *changing* demands of the market and even to changing professions. His definition of a minimalist translation competence seems to support this stance as well. Pym's discussion of translation competence (2003), beginning with Wilss, who was engaged with this term in the early 1980s, and reaching definitions of competence in the early 2000s, shows the chronological journey of definitions. The definitions of competence, first bound by linguistic considerations (e.g. language knowledge, text processing, transfer and so on), extend to multicomponential definitions that included professional skills as well as many others. Opposed to these abundant lingual and multicomponential definitions of competence, Pym (2003) suggests a minimalist translation competence. For him, translating involves "[t]he ability to generate a series of more than one viable target text (TT1, TT2 … TTn)" and "[t]he ability to select one viable TT from this series, quickly and with justified confidence" (Pym 2003: 489). Pym focuses on the purely translational part of the practice, without disagreeing that linguistic and commercial concerns are also components of training needs.

Pym (2002) further draws attention to the place of local knowledge in training institutions. If we copy "best practices" from industrial standards or from renowned institutions in the world, there is always a risk of ignoring many local conditions. Among the local interests Pym (2002: 23-25) mentions are students' demands (e.g. the translation market is not large enough to provide employment to all graduates, and thus students require some other skills to be employed in other relevant markets), teachers' demands (e.g. offering courses in a second foreign language according to the language proficiency of teachers available in the institution), university administrations, national and regional governments (e.g. offering programs not to meet the demands of labor market but to meet "the internal demands of the education system" and to strengthen local languages), and other university departments and disciplines (e.g. dialogue with modern-language departments that have been losing students with the increase in the number of translator-

training programs). Pym therefore suggests that such non-market factors should also be taken into consideration in designing programs, in addition to market segments that trainers and graduates have to deal with.

In his well-known *A Social Constructivist Approach to Translator Education* (2000), Kiraly elaborates on the incorporation of a constructivist approach to translation teaching procedures. Kiraly (2000: 13) first makes a distinction between "translation competence" and "translator competence", the former referring to the skills required to render a source text into a target language and the latter referring to the skills required in the macro-context, as explained below. From the perspective of Kiraly's consideration of translation as a social act, translator competence involves interaction and communication (cooperation) processes with commissioners, other stakeholders in the act, and information resources, rather than just the mere process of translating.

The distinction between translator competence and translation competence is as follows:

> Becoming a professional translator clearly entails more than learning specific skills that allow one to produce an acceptable target text in one language on the basis of a text written in another. That is what I would call '**translation** competence'. Acquiring '**translator** competence', on the other hand, in addition involves joining a number of new communities such as the educated users of several languages, those conversant in specialized technical fields, and proficient users of traditional tools and new technologies for professional interlingual communication purposes. (Kiraly 2000: 13, bold in original)

Kiraly further details his definition of translator competence:

> Translator competence does not primarily refer to knowing *the* correct translation for words, sentences or even texts. It does entail being able to use tools and information to create communicatively successful texts that are accepted as good translations within the community concerned. Perhaps most importantly, it means how to work co-operatively within the various overlapping communities of translators and subject matter experts to accomplish work cooperatively; to appropriate knowledge, norms and conventions; and to contribute to the evolving

conversation that constitutes those communities. (Kiraly 2000: 12-13, italic in original)

Another major basis of constructivism is the shift from transmission to transformation. In translation education, the transmissionist approach corresponds to the traditional teaching, where students translate a text at home and read their translations sentence by sentence in the classroom and finally the instructor gives the correct translation of the text. Whereas the transmissionist view regards the student "as a passive listener and a consumer of knowledge", the transformation perspective suggests creating a learning environment where each individual, as a whole person, constructs their own knowledge through collaborative work and social interaction integrated into "authentic, real work activity" (Kiraly 2000: 22-23). Defining translators as problem-solvers, Kiraly (2000: 28-29) draws attention to micro- and macro-situations in the translation process. Translators have to cope with "the myriad of unforeseen moments" in micro-situations, i.e. while working on the translation of a text. In the macro-context, translators are required to establish relationships with the target reader, client and the text itself, during which they usually assume a problem-solving role.

"Professional competence" is a key factor in Kiraly's social constructivist approach. He brings in another distinction here, dividing professional competence into two sub-competencies: "expertise" and "professionalism". This distinction is interrelated with his definitions of translation and translator competence. In his own words:

Expertise I would describe as the competence to accomplish translation tasks to the satisfaction of clients and in accordance with the norms and conventions of the profession with respect to producing a translated text per se. Expertise would include not only the effective utilization and creation of strategies for dealing with specific translation problems [...], but also the ability to use appropriate computer-based tools, to format text appropriately, to do terminological research in manner that meets clients' needs for consistency and accuracy, as well as, for example, the ability to research a new subject matter adequately in order to translate a text in a manner acceptable to the client.

Professionalism, on the other hand, would characterize the translator's ability to work within the social and ethical constraints of translation situations in a manner that is consistent with the norms of the profession. (Kiraly 2000: 30-31)

In similar terms, Kiraly refers to the need for a smooth transfer from training institutions to the market:

I believe that the term "professional empowerment" can serve to depict a viable global objective of a modern translator education program that is designed to produce the kind of graduates that other professional translators would welcome as colleagues. By professional empowerment, I mean that graduates can be expected to have acquired enough self-reliance, authentic experience, and expertise to enable them to leave our institutions and make the final transition smoothly to full membership in the community of translation practice. (Kiraly 2003: 18)

Kiraly (2003: 12-13) also draws attention to the changes in the translation profession and argues that the adoption of a social constructivist approach instead of the traditional teacher-centered view is a compelling result of the changes in the profession. These changes are due to technological advancements, the need for speed in translation work, the elimination of spatial restrictions, various modes of text production, and so on:

Today, most translation scholars would agree that acts of translation involve an intricate interplay of social, cognitive and cultural as well as linguistic processes. Many of us now believe that the translator's basic tools include intuition, creativity, multi-cultural experience, and the awareness of his or her own mental problem-solving strategies, along with collaborative skills for negotiating with clients, coordinating and participating as a team member in large-scale projects, and seeking out expert assistance as necessary. In short, both the study and the practice of translation have evolved from being well structured and narrowly defined domains (involving knowledge that many constructivists would agree can perhaps best be taught in a transmissionist mode), to being "ill-structured domains" encompassing an enormous range of skills and knowledge. (Kiraly 2003: 13-14)

In a more recent study, Kiraly (2005: 1102) draws attention to project-based learning, where "students achieve a semi-professional level of autonomy and expertise through authentic experience", i.e. through translation projects for real clients. This is expected to be more motivational than working with teacher-selected texts, as learners are required to deal with problems they will encounter in future professional life and will thus develop self-confidence as they observe their progress on the basis of professional criteria (Kiraly 2005: 1102). Further, students will be dealing with many real-world factors such as "time pressure, professional responsibility and self-assessment" rather than merely focusing on equivalent text production (Kiraly 2005: 1103).

Colina (2003: 38) is another researcher who has shown interest in the *social* dimension of the translator and holds that this aspect of translation should find a place in translator training. She highlights the need to develop translators' self-concept "to integrate the cognitive/psychological and social worlds of the translator". The activities that she suggests to boost the self-concept are

> exposure to the translation community in authentic contexts, for example, through professional e-mail lists, conference attendance, and subscription to professional publications; discussions of professional issues in the classroom; exposure to various kinds of feedback, in addition to the teacher's (for example, professionals working as consultants/visitors to the class, peer assessment); and opportunities for authentic communicative translation tasks... (Colina 2003: 29)

Wagner (2002) provides ideas about market-training interaction in her paper on contacts between universities and the EU translation services. To bridge the gap between academia and market, she suggests establishing direct formal contacts with graduates to follow up their post-graduation process and to invite them to provide feedback to former trainers. Wagner (2002: 401-403) says that trainers should give up debates based on assumptions and instead make observations in professional settings. Further, noting that novice professionals do not complain about the lack of training in computer applications or translation tools, she defines the common gaps in training as

> how to write in the target language (their mother tongue), how to recognize and reproduce different registers and defend their choices, how to ask the right

questions and defend their right to ask, how to interact with clients (need for 'people skills' as well as text skills). (Wagner 2002: 404).

In the early 2000s, the PACTE group in Spain defined a model of translation competence that comprises five sub-competences (bilingual, extra-linguistic, knowledge about translation, instrumental and strategic), in addition to psycho-physiological components (PACTE 2003: 58-60). This model is the basis for all future work done by the PACTE group (see for example PACTE 2005, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011a and 2011b). The group defines the bilingual sub-competence, which refers to the knowledge required to communicate in two languages and comprises pragmatic, socio-linguistic, textual, grammatical and lexical knowledge; and the instrumental sub-competence, which refers to the knowledge required to use documentation sources as well as information and communication technologies, as predominantly procedural knowledge. On the other hand, the extra-linguistic sub-competence as well as the knowledge-about-translation sub-competence, are defined as predominantly declarative knowledge. In their context, extra-linguistic sub-competence includes "(1) bicultural knowledge (about the source and target cultures; (2) encyclopaedic knowledge (about the world in general); (3) subject knowledge (in special areas)" (PACTE 2003: 59). Knowledge-about-translation sub-competence includes:

> (1) knowledge about how translation functions: types of translation units, processes required, methods and procedures used (strategies and techniques), and types of problems; (2) knowledge related to professional translation practice: knowledge of the work market (different types of briefs, clients and audiences, etc.). (PACTE 2003: 59)

The strategic sub-competence is of particular importance as it is defined as the "procedural knowledge to guarantee the efficiency of the translation process and to solve problems encountered" (PACTE 2008: 106). The functions of this sub-competence are:

> (1) to plan the process and carry out the translation project (choice of the most adequate method); (2) to evaluate the process and the partial results obtained in relation to the final purpose; (3) to activate the different sub-competencies and

compensate for deficiencies in them; (4) to identify translation problems and apply procedures to solve them. (PACTE 2008: 59)

Finally, psycho-physiological components are "cognitive and behavioural (memory, attention span, perseverance, critical mind, etc.) and psychomotor mechanisms" (PACTE 2005: 610). PACTE (2005: 611) asserts that "given that any bilingual person has knowledge of two languages and may have extra-linguistic knowledge, we consider that the sub-competencies specific to TC [translation competence] are the strategic, the instrumental and knowledge about translation".

In 2000 the Intercultural Studies Group at Rovira i Virgili University in Tarragona, Spain, organized the online symposium *Innovation and E-Learning in Translator Training*. The first part of the symposium was dedicated to innovation in translator and interpreter training and brought together the views of translator-training practitioners with different backgrounds. The replies of Roberto Mayoral from the University of Granada, Spain, and Daniel Gouadec from the University of Rennes, France, to a set of stimulus questions provide some data about practices in the context of these two countries and answers to some of questions to be handled in this study. Brian Mossop at the Canadian Government's Translation Bureau represents the profession in this discussion.

Mayoral places emphasis on changing market expectations, whereas Gouadec draws attention to the fragmented structure of the market. The changing market has been discussed in the new millennium with respect to new skills expected from translators. For Mayoral (2003: 4-5), the professional world expects from translators at least basic localization skills, adaptation to the conditions of teletranslation, flexibility about working into the foreign language, field specialization, and teamwork with other professionals as well as other translators. Gouadec (2003: 12) argues that training programs train for three markets – the global publishing and editing market, the translation service, and the market for freelancers – and for various niches (by domain, type of translation, type of document and type of technical aids) formed by markets. He concludes that "what should be avoided is the training of students to become translators on the non-market: namely, the jungle of small jobs, with an infinite variety of subjects" (Gouadec 2003: 12).

At this point, Mossop's point of view, in answering the same questions, differs from Gouadec's. Mossop (2003a: 20) is against a translation school whose function is "to

train students for specific existing slots in the language industry"; he defines their function as giving students "certain general abilities that they will then be able to apply to whatever slots may exist 5, 10, 15 or 25 years from now". Mossop's approach to translator training is comparable with Pym's minimalist definition of competence (2003) and Kearns' transferable skills (2006), as explained in this section. Mossop (2003a: 20-21) also disagrees with ideas favoring skills in localization and advanced information technology. For him, these skills can be required at workplaces after graduation. Students should be furnished with the skills that require a long time to learn, e.g. text interpretation, translating in view of audience needs, research skills, and so on. It can be inferred that Mossop attributes intellectual functions rather than technical functions to translator education, arguing that "university-based translation schools must uphold the traditional distinction between education and training" (Mossop 2003a: 20).

A round table on translator training and the professional world was held at the FIT conference in Vancouver, British Columbia in 2002. The transcription of this meeting was published in the online *Translation Journal* in 2003. The panel brought together five professionals from different segments of the market, some of whom also teach in academic settings: Brian Mossop, from the Canadian Government's Translation Bureau; Ros Schwartz, a literary translator; Tim Martin, a translator and reviser at the European Commission in Luxembourg; Chris Durban, a freelance translator specialized in finance; and Courtney Searls-Ridge, a translator and bureau owner.

Mossop (2003b) again does not agree with the complaints about translator training schools and finds it unrealistic to train translators who are already able to translate well in their workplace. For Mossop (2003b), "translation schools are inherently limited in what they can do to prepare students for the workplace and that we should not make exaggerated demands on them". He suggests practicums and professional development workshops to develop the professional competence of translators. However, separating the practicum components from a translation curriculum, Mossop focuses on training in the translation classroom. The curriculum is a holistic structure with its in-class and extramural practices. Therefore, it can be inferred that Mossop also defends the incorporation of professional competence into the curriculum, although his suggestion varies from those of others who favor authentic commissions in translation classrooms. Mossop's second proposition, once again overlapping with Pym's approach to

competence (1998) and Kearns's skill transferability (2006), is that because of the changing nature of translation markets, students should not be prepared only for the current market. They should acquire the skills they need to cope with future expectations of the market.

Schwartz's three propositions (2003) are compatible with Kiraly's definition of translation as a social act. She firstly concentrates on translation as an economic activity and on the market factor. The market is composed of players with whom translators need to work. Thus, new translators are required to be familiar with the operation of the market. Although Schwartz considers the publishing market from the perspective of a literary translator, her description applies to the non-literary market as well. Second, she defines translation as a matter of subjective choices. Translators need to take responsibility for their choices and accept that they may have to defend their choices. This approach also attributes a social role to the translator, who has to justify their decisions and accept that there are people who may disagree with their decisions. Third, Schwartz suggests a setting where trainers and trainees share their working methods to carry out a translation task for which there is no single ideal way of proceeding. For Schwartz, only discussing individual methods will help trainees to find their own way.

Martin (2003) draws attention to "the need for closer integration between the world of universities and professional translation", and puts forward four suggestions to achieve this integration: teacher/translator swaps, research collaboration, short-term placements of recent graduates, and input from academics, particularly in quality assurance and quality control. His suggestions differ from the ones made so far in that they not only attempt to bring the professional world into the academic setting but also to take academics to the professional world. Academics are required to step into the professional world to do collaborative research with professionals so that their research will not just serve for the progress of science, but can have more practically oriented implications. In addition, the techniques they develop for the assessment of students' translation tasks can find a wider area of use if employed for quality control in the professional setting. Another point that Martin touches upon is attitudes toward the profession. According to Martin, universities can contribute to the prestige of the profession through holding various events, and translators themselves are required to develop positive attitudes about their status.

Durban (2003) takes up three demands of the market from translators: subject-matter knowledge, writing skills, and willingness to ask questions. Her final proposition urges translators to interact with clients to eliminate any ambiguity in the source text and to discuss problems throughout the translation process.

Searls-Ridge (2003) believes that graduates lack good writing skills in the target language, and leave translation programs without enough knowledge about the market. She offers four solutions to these problems: a practicum before graduation, participation in professional organizations earlier when they are still a student, opening vocational certificate programs, and beginning to develop translation skills earlier, even at high school. The propositions of these five professionals suggest that translation requires a mode of competence that goes beyond mere theoretical knowledge and practical experience. It entails some communicative and social skills for a translator to be able to meet market demands more effectively.

Introducing a relatively radical point of view of translation pedagogy, Bernardini (2004) is against teaching skills or competences to translation students at undergraduate level. Bernardini (2004: 18) criticizes the generally accepted view, also mentioned in the translator recruitment policy of the European Commission, that translators mainly need "area knowledge, computer skills, and language knowledge" in professional life. At this point, the author makes a distinction between education and training, which forms the basis of her discussion. In her own words, "[l]earning through training is a cumulative process, in which the learner is required to put together as large an inventory of pieces of knowledge as possible in the field in which she is being trained" (Bernardini 2004: 19), whereas

> the core aim of education is to favour the growth of the individual, developing her cognitive capacities, and those attitudes and predispositions that will put her in a position to cope with the most varying (professional) situations. Learning in an educational framework is viewed as a generative rather than cumulative process, whose aim is to develop the ability to employ available knowledge to solve new problems, and to gain new knowledge as the need arises. In other words, the ability to use finite resources indefinitely is a result of education, not training. (Bernardini 2004: 19-20)

She suggests that this distinction is a key factor in defining the functions of undergraduate and postgraduate translation teaching. For Bernardini (2004: 20-21), the priorities of an education program should be awareness (the ability to comprehend that translation is not a mere process of transcoding but a process of cultural mediation), reflectiveness (the capacity to produce and use strategies of translation in not only text production process but also other profession-related issues) and resourcefulness (the ability to use finite resources effectively and to find new resources when required). Thus, she defends a process of education that "focus[es] on capacities to be fostered rather than competencies to be gained" (Bernardini 2004: 21). In view of this definition, translation pedagogy is not achievable through short-term objectives and courses, but a long-term process. In this context, undergraduate courses can provide the time and effort required to educate translators. Shorter postgraduate studies can furnish students with professional skills, since students at that stage have a sound background in translation (Bernardini 2004: 27).

Bernardini also touches upon the role of technology in this education process, and labels technology as a means rather than an end. Further, she objects to the use of what she calls "replication activities", the activities that attempt to create a real-life professional setting in classroom (Bernardini 2004: 23), which can result in failure because learners do not have the age and experience of professionals. For Bernardini, replication activities are a part of training rather than education. However, she does not disagree with using authentic texts in translation classroom, as suggested by Kiraly and motivated by the social constructivist approach.

In her study on the translator's roles as a professional, Mackenzie (2004) adopts an approach that conflicts with Bernardini's. Mackenzie refers to the differentiation in roles and mentions that a translator has to assume "such professional roles as those of the terminologist, the information specialist, the project co-ordinator, the account manager, the reviser and the quality manager in addition to that of the translator" (2004: 32). Although translation service providers separate the roles, students need to be familiar with all these roles when they are being prepared for the translation market. For Mackenzie (2004: 32-33), the competencies required by the translator's roles are interpersonal skills (because translation requires teamwork), information technology (IT) skills (word processing skills, competence in using translation memory tools, terminology software and the Internet), marketing ability and management skills (e.g. time management,

resource management, client management and so on). Arguing that these skills cannot be taught in an undergraduate program, Mackenzie suggests that students should be at least offered an introduction to these skills. Because it is difficult to create authentic situations, simulated situations can be helpful to develop such professional skills of students.

Mackenzie (2004: 34-36) divides the translation process into four stages, each of which requires professional skills in addition to linguistic and cultural skills: target text specification and planning, text research, text production, and text evaluation. For example, in the planning stage, professionals require management skills (i.e. time management, resource management and the ability to evaluate their competence) to decide whether they are able to translate a certain type of text. In the text research process, to solve any problem, they have to know where to look for the information required and whom to consult, and they require IT skills to document and systematize the information they collect. Text production entails various research skills, particularly with respect to the management and use of parallel texts and translation memory tools. Text evaluation not only involves revision of a translated text but also client management process. The translator needs to be able to justify their decisions to the client and to evaluate any feedback from the client. In consideration of all these points, Mackenzie (2004: 36) suggests that translator trainers need to be familiar with the translation market for which they are training translators and to create simulated and, if possible, authentic situations in which students can cope with the challenges of the professional world.

A study by the Aula.int team (2005) at the University of Granada gives an outline of the professional approach that the team adopts in their translation course. Due to the impact of information and communications technology, the translation market gained a "global, decentralised, specialised, dynamic, virtual, and demanding" characteristic, which resulted changes in the nature of translators' tasks (e.g. localization), the skills expected by translators, the working environments of translators, their methods of finding clients, their relationships with their clients, the daily volume of translation and so on (Aula.int 2005: 133-135). The Aula.int team employs a professional approach to translation teaching in view of these market demands. The team explains that "the main goal of the Professional Approach to Translator Training is to introduce translation students to the professional market and help them get acquainted with working conditions in the real labour market by means of a simulated translation agency" (Aula.int 2005:

138). In the course, students are divided into groups of five members, and each group fulfills a specific translation task in their translation brief. The students in a group perform one of the roles among documentalist, terminologist, translator, reviser and typesetter, or project manager. For every new task, the group members exchange their roles, and thus they all familiarize with each stage of a professional translation process. This learning process also encourages students to use multimedia to cope with each translation task and manage their task through a collaborative process.

In their 2007 paper, the Aula.int team defines the objectives of their professional approach to translator training (PATT) as follows:

1. To familiarize students with the methods of work typical of translation agencies by recreating the production line of the professional workplace. Students carry out the tasks of information scientists, terminologists, revisers, editors and typesetters. They even take on the responsibility of project supervisor, a role that is not normally included in teaching contexts but which is more and more important in the workplace.

2. To develop teleworking in teams, self-instruction and interdisciplinarity.

3. To provide a work setting with the tools needed by teachers and researchers to incorporate ICT in the classroom and reproduce the environment of the professional work context. Our approach allows us to obtain first hand information on the impact of ICT on university teaching.

4. To promote coordination between subject matter areas in the university teaching of translation. (Olvera Lobo et al. 2007: 521)

Arguing that classrooms are artificial settings, González Davies (2004b: 18 and 2005: 71) makes some proposals, compatible with the social constructivist approach, to bring classrooms closer to the professional world:

1. Adapt classroom organisation by transforming the classroom into a discussion forum and hands-on workshop.

2. Establish contact with the outside world by means of projects that involve professional translators, bilinguals with an aptitude for translation and professionals from the different fields of specialisation (corresponding to the texts to be translated).

3. Design syllabuses with specific aims that have been thought about beforehand, and sequence the material accordingly.

4. Favor an adequate learning environment which will enhance students' potential and respect different learning styles as much as possible.

5. Include as many real life situations as possible so that the students have the chance "to live", however slightly, in the professional world.

Discussing the effectiveness of authentic commissions such as those assigned by Aula.int for teaching translation, Schopp (2006: 171-180) touches upon some important considerations about the relationship between training and the profession. For Schopp, the central question concerns the different definitions of "translation" in universities:

(1) the systematic substitution of elements from two language systems (*language translation or linguistic translation*); (2) the intercultural communicative action per se; (3) the production of the verbal form of the text in the target language (often practiced as a second job by the teacher); (4) the complex, professional process within standard operating practices of a profession, where a tool of communication is commissioned for (primarily public) intercultural communication. (Schopp 2006: 171, italics in original)

Schopp bases his discussion upon the final definition above. This approach, accepting translation as a complex professional process, explains the importance of regarding translation as a holistic process beginning with initial communication with the client and ending with delivery of the commissioned material to the client. The perceptions of academics and professionals about the definition of translation can indicate whether there is a difference in their expectations from translator training.

Although acknowledging that "the learning of every profession" should furnish trainees with knowledge and skills required to perform that profession, Schopp (2006: 173) disagrees that authentic commissions in translator training – in the sense that makes students meet clients in the market – always prove to be functional. For him, because these translation tasks are usually carried out in traditional ways, the product, low in quality, "strengthens prejudices and false impressions among students, clients and addressees" (Schopp 2006: 179). Therefore, rather than authentic commissions, he favors realistic commissions carried out in translation workshops created in the training

environment (Schopp 2006: 178-179). In this sense, Schopp (2006: 173) opposes the social constructivist approach of Kiraly, who favors the use of authentic translation tasks to be completed through collaborative efforts in learning environments, but suggests developing professional competence through translation workshops.

In his PhD dissertation *Curriculum Renewal in Translator Training: Vocational challenges in academic environments with reference to needs and situation analysis and skills transferability from the contemporary experience of Polish translator training culture*, Kearns (2006) presents a discussion that finds its roots in Translation Studies, curriculum theory and education studies. Kearns defends a translator-training approach that incorporates vocational tendencies into academic settings. However, rather than vocational skills he favors transferable skills. He distinguishes between vocational and transferable skills, stressing that "[s]uch [transferable] skills differ from traditional 'vocational' skills in that, while vocational skills prepare the student for a specific job, transferable skills prepare him or her for mobility between a number of different jobs" (Kearns 2006: 194). As opposed to the general inclination in Translation Studies to provide a list or framework of translation competences or skills, Kearns (2006: 196) attempts to instigate a discussion of transferable skills which, he asserts, "enable mobility between jobs and job sectors, rather than preparing graduates for one particular job". However, he does not actually name any of these transferable skills.

In his more recent study, Kearns (2008) opposes the academic vs. vocational dichotomy. There are two seemingly opposite aims of academic education: the cultivation of the mind as imposed by academic rationalism, and the vocational impulse (Kearns 2008: 187). Since the current tendency is to eliminate the distinction between polytechnics, specifically for vocational education, and traditional universities, and to offer vocational education within universities, the universities are required to make students gain professional skills as well as satisfy their intellectual needs. Touching on academic rationalism, Kearns refers to the criticisms made by such scholars as Kelly and Kiraly of "excessively non-vocational curriculum" in academic environments, arguing that

> it is not academic rationalism which this criticism is actually addressing, but rather the perversion of the academic tradition resulting from a failure to keep abreast of changing needs and situations in society. It is appropriate to criticise

transmissionist teaching practices as Kelly and Kiraly do, but such methodologies are not themselves intrinsic to the university tradition. (Kearns 2006: 205)

Asking to what extent the university is a vocational center or should be market-driven, Katan (2007: 118-119) suggests that "the translation profession should be seen as an integral part, but not the whole, of the translation universe" and that "a university course should not be market-driven, but must be market aware". For Katan (2007: 119-120), as academics are not full-time translation professionals, it is not easy for them to be fully aware of the market, and as technology evolves at a very rapid pace, translation courses are always likely to fail to keep pace with the development of technology used in the market. Change is the key concept here. The discussion in Katan (2007: 121-126) leads us to the premise that trainees are in need of procedural knowledge that allows them to keep up with changing needs of the market, particularly in terms of technology, rather than declarative knowledge that familiarizes them with the buttons required to use technology.

Hurtado Albir (2007: 164) defines the three challenges faced by today's higher education and hence translator training: 1) adapting teaching to an internationally "comparable and recognizable" model that responds to the needs arising from academic and professional mobility, 2) adapting teaching to a model that is closer to "the demands of society and the job market", and finally 3) adapting teaching to new pedagogical models deriving from new social challenges. In this vein, she refers to the competence-based training that offers "an integrated model for teaching, learning and assessment" and "reconciles earlier approaches such as cooperative learning, problem-based learning and task-based learning" (2007: 165). The competence-based training makes a distinction between general competences and specific, i.e. discipline-related, competences. With regard to this distinction, Hurtado Albir (2007: 177-178) proposes six categories of specific competences for translator training: methodological and strategic competences that "apply the methodological principles and strategies necessary to work through the translation process appropriately"; contrastive competences that "differentiate between the two languages, monitoring interference when it comes to solving translation problems"; extralinguistic competences that "mobilize encyclopaedic, bicultural and thematic knowledge to solve translation problems"; occupational competences required to "operate in the translation job market appropriately"; instrumental competences needed

to "handle documentary sources and an array of tools to solve translation problems"; and textual competences required to "solve translation problems in different genres using the appropriate strategies". Hurtado Albir suggests taking these competences into consideration when defining learning objectives of courses directly involved in training translators.

Gabr (2007) offers a "total quality management" approach to translator-training processes, i.e. program design, development and implementation, where the focus is on the customer. In this approach, there is an interchangeable relationship between training programs and employers of translators. On the one hand, translation programs may be regarded as service suppliers and employers as customers of this service. On the other, as translation programs cannot be isolated from market needs, employers may supply information to training institutions and in this case these institutions are customers seeking information (Gabr 2007: 69). At this point, Gabr notes that ongoing communication and cooperation between actors is very important. Employers should play a role in defining program objectives, while translation programs guided by market needs offer effective solutions to market problems (Gabr 2007: 69).

Tan complains that translation education is excessively focused on teaching translation techniques to learners and disregards "the education of students as creative, intelligent and competent human beings equipped with well-rounded translation competence more than with a narrow set of techniques" (2008: 594-594). Skills-oriented translation teaching is a universal problem (Tan 2008: 594). Tan (2008: 594) suggests that a university translation program should educate students in "an all-around manner" that covers the development of expertise on translation and a more general ability to meet any challenges, including unpredictable ones, in translation. To achieve this, Tan (2008: 597) offers the "Whole-person Translator Education Inverted-Pyramid", adapted from the Food Guide Pyramid of the US nutrition department, where competence in translation is minimal at the base and moves upwards during education from undergraduate to graduate levels. The most important point adapted from the Food Guide Pyramid is a well-balanced diet, which corresponds to "a well-balanced distribution of what is taught" in a whole-person education approach (Tan 2008: 597). This refers to a balance between theory and practice, balance among text materials used in translation practice and balance in the type of theoretical knowledge.

Tan (2008: 599) goes on with the evaluation of translation sub-competences from the perspective of the whole-person approach, and suggests that not various competences but the whole person translate, shifting the focus from materials and skills to persons. He ends up with Kiraly's translator competence, but arguing that his definition of competence goes beyond Kiraly's: "Competence that comprises all the fundamental sub-competences one possesses in order for one to be qualified as a translator/translation specialist", and these sub-competences are "competence in cognition; competence in the relevant language-pairs; competence in the tools/technologies used to assist translation; and competence in transfer" (Tan 2008: 599). Illustrated on a pyramid with two facets (one for translator competence and other for language learning), each competence develops with the growth of individuals in terms of intelligence and competence (Tan 2008: 601).

Donovan (2010: 99) defines two facets of the effects training can have on the profession:

- ensuring that students, during the course of the training programme, become truly professional and worthy to represent their chosen profession;
- but also, ensuring that these students, once they graduate, are able to defend professional values, explain working and training requirements to clients and authorities and to uphold those values themselves (professional advocacy).

These considerations should be "interwoven in the design and organization of courses" because what students gain during their training will certainly influence their future professional life and perspective of the profession (Donovan 2010: 99).

In 2011 the *Symposium on the Translator Profile*, held by the European Commission's Directorate-General for Translation (DGT), addressed some questions regarding the translation profession, including "Which skills are essential for translators to adapt to the new scenarios, and which can we expect to be required in the future? What do employers expect from translators? What do they expect from universities and training institutions?" (2011). The three main conclusions of the symposium focus on teamwork and collaboration required in translation profession, the need for translators to be willing to use new technologies and perform new tasks in the market, and the need for more

cooperation and synergy between training institutions and the industry. The three workshops in the symposium had references to training. The first workshop, "Perspective for translation professions", distinguished between the skills that translators have always needed, i.e. TL writing skills, communication skills (to talk to clients and colleagues), marketing skills, IT literacy, research skills, ethics, how to work in a home office and thematic knowledge, and the skills or some other points that will become more important in the future, i.e. translation technology skills, learning to learn about new types of tools, MT, terminology, new translation tasks (e.g. post-editing and pre-editing), increased specialization, social networking skills, priority languages as Chinese, English and German, editing English target texts written by non-natives, technical drafting in English and continuing professional development through private companies rather than universities. The second workshop, "Institutional Translator Training", drew attention to the difference in perceptions between the private sector (believing that "university education is not enough") and the public sector (which does not have "enough awareness about quality in national institutions"). In this part, the recommendation for universities is to offer "broad competences including general knowledge, client awareness, cost awareness, communication skills (body language), interpersonal and social skills" and to "include IT tools but keep focused on translation training basics". The recommendations for employers include offering traineeship opportunities for students and promoting translators' "flexibility and adaptability to changing working conditions". The third workshop, "Professionalization and employability", highlighted the need for lifelong learning and suggested enhancing the visibility of training programs in the eyes of employers through external evaluation of curricula and external assessment of translations.

Related to the DGT, the European Master's in Translation (EMT) is worth mentioning here. The EMT was instigated by the DGT with a view to meeting the need for qualified translators not only in the Commission and other EU institutions but also in the general translation market. The EMT expert group defined a "translator competence profile", which consists of skills, each of which is referred to as a competence, and their components (2009). The competence profile consists of the following skill areas: translation service provision competence (with its interpersonal and product dimensions), language competence, intercultural competence (with sociolinguistic and textual dimensions), information mining competence, thematic competence, and technological

competence. The DGT is a major employer of translators, employing according to 2011 data 2312 staff, 1390 of whom are translators, and translating 2.11 million pages in a year, of which 72% were outsourced to external contractors. Thus, the translator profile suggested by the EMT might be seen as the culmination of long-term rapprochement between industry and the academy.

In addition to all the above considerations, Drugan and Megone (2011: 183) show interest in the ethical aspect of the translation profession, arguing that future translators should be trained in ethics because they will be employed "in a climate of lowered trade barriers, increasing competition among translators, globalized business practices, crowdsourcing and growing public debates on ethical consumerism". The authors suggest that case studies should be used in training programs in order to integrate teaching ethics into the curriculum, not as a distinct module but as an area that is complementary to ongoing activities. The case studies used in their research involved "real-world ethical dilemmas and decision-making", including charging for translation, translation ownership, refusing a work, confidentiality, and specific translation choices. The authors conclude that

> if learners, through grounded engagement in developing good ethical judgement, understand that they are being encouraged to develop tools and ways of thinking that will serve them in their later practice of translation or research in the field, they are better equipped to call on these independently when they might be useful. (Drugan and Megone 2011: 208)

Commenting on the same issue, Baker and Maier (2011: 1) argue that "the responsibility of translators and interpreters extends beyond clients to include the wider community to which they belong", drawing attention to the need to respond to societal needs in addition to market needs in translator training. Baker and Maier (2011: 3) point out the increased emphasis on accountability which, they believe, "led to increased visibility, and hence greater pressure on the profession". This brings about the need to address the issue of accountability together with ethics in the curriculum. What they suggest for addressing ethics in training practices are pedagogical tools such as classroom debates, critical essays, role plays, simulated translation tasks, and student diaries (Baker and Maier 2011: 5-6).

In the same respect, Gill and Guzmán challenge the tendency in translator training to associate the *real world* only with the market. From their perspective,

> [r]eal-life translation practices involve human and linguistic flow and movement, issues of migration, displacement, deterritorialization, and the asymmetries of transcultural mediation in symbolic and material ways. These issues must have a place in the translation zone of the classroom. (Gill and Guzmán 2011: 97)

2.3. Translator-training research in Turkey

The interest in translator training as an academic subfield has been growing in the Turkish context, although the empirical research is still not satisfactory. Meetings and conferences that bring together representatives of training institutions have been held, e.g. the meeting on Translation Education and the Translation World held at Istanbul University on December 18-19, 2008, the workshop of Practices and Orientations in Translation Education at Boğaziçi University on January 26, 2010, the meeting on Translation Education in Turkey and the Bologna Process at Hacettepe University on May 28, 2010, and the meeting of the Translation Education Platform at Boğaziçi University on December 6, 2010. Moreover, students are becoming stakeholders in translator training through the initiative of the Turkish Union of Translation Students. However, despite the focus on translator training and the increasing number of translator-training programs, there is still a dearth of empirical research on training in general and the interaction between training and the market. Academics and professionals come together to discuss whether there is need for so many training programs, making suggestions on what can be done to improve the quality of training as well as translations in the market, and emphasizing the need for further interaction between academic institutions and the translation sector.

One of the meetings was held by the Directorate of Translation Coordination[2] of the Ministry for EU Affairs in June 2012 to bring together the representatives of universities and related associations in order to discuss the needs and problems

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[2] The Directorate of Translation Coordination is a unit within the Ministry for EU Affairs established in 2011 in order to coordinate the efforts to translate the EU *acquis* into Turkish and to create a database of the EU terminology.

concerning translation.[3] Some key points raised in this meeting were directly related to the present study. These may be summarized as follows:

- There is a need for a new higher-education policy in translator training, which assigns different roles to translator-training programs in different universities, e.g. in the form of programs specialized in either translation or interpreting, or specialized in a specific B language, rather than opening translator-training programs with similar curricula across the country (Altay and Ateşman 2012: 3). Furthermore, translator training should be shifted from undergraduate programs to Master's programs. This policy should further allow universities to recruit foreign academics easily and to specify their student quota.

- The training programs mostly focus on individual work. Yet translating in the private sector, particularly localization, entails teamwork skills and awareness of being a part of a larger project (Çallı 2012: 11).

- The Turkish Translators Association has been working on a project to offer a training to the graduates foreign-language departments, including translation and interpreting graduates, and to grant a certificate at the end of the training (Erbil 2012: 13). The purpose of this training would be to provide translators with work procedures and service-provision skills.

- Although thousands of students have received a diploma in translation and interpreting since 1980s, the translation sector lacks legislation that defines the roles and rights of translators, and the cooperation of all stakeholders is required to draw up such legislation (Eruz 2012: 22). The three requirements for a profession are as follows: 1) education and certification, 2) professional standards and ethical rules, and 3) professional organizations (Kaya 2012: 44). Currently, because of the lack of standards and rules regulating the translation profession, anyone can establish a translation company and work

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[3] The proceedings of the Translation Platform are available online (in Turkish) at http://www.abgs.gov.tr/files/ceb/Ceviri_Platformu_Resimleri/platform_bildirileri.pdf. Accessed May 2013.

as a translator in Turkey[4], which reduces the quality and reliability of translations (Parlak 2012: 71).

— The stakeholders in the translation sector are the translator-training institutions, the decision-making authorities such as the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Finance or Turkish Standards Institution, the professional organizations, and the market, including translators, translation companies and technology developers and producers as well as clients (Kartal 2012: 41). The cooperation and interaction between these stakeholders and between professional associations is of particular importance for the national and international representation of the translation profession and for the development of the profession.

— The main problems in translator training are as follows (Öner 2012: 61-62): 1) Because of the increasing number of translator-training programs, teachers with no experience in the field of translation have been teaching translation; 2) There is a weak link between training and the real-world practices, particularly with respect to the use of technology; 3) Students generally receive training in text-production processes. There is need for a more holistic approach covering every stage of translation. However, curriculum modifications are not enough to solve these problems. Course providers must be encouraged to internalize the requirements of translators. In many cases, academic staff who know a foreign language very well or who hold a diploma from a foreign-language related department are expected to teach translation (Tosun 2012: 87-88).

— Translation departments – students and trainers – tend to reduce translator training to language learning. Believing that knowing a foreign language is the only skill required to be a translator, most students concentrate their efforts solely on language boosting (Tosun 2012: 85).

— Some translation students start working in the market during their study to develop their translation skills. However, because these students do not receive any feedback on their products, the contribution of this experience

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[4] This is the same all over the world, except Slovakia, where translators need to be "professionally qualified as a translator" with a degree in translation or in related languages, in accordance with the Trades Licensing Act No. 455/1991, amended in 2007 (Pym, Grin, Sfreddo and Chan 2012: 20).

to their professional development is debatable (Dizdar 2012: 91). Translation companies are aware of the qualifications that a translator needs in the globalizing world. However, they usually avoid offering in-service training to their employees as this requires extra time. Thus, training at the university must provide graduates with knowledge and skills concerning the translation sector (Dizdar 2012: 92).

2.4. Summary of the literature on translator training

All researchers writing on translator training subscribe to the view that preparing students for professional life is a major objective of training programs; however, their viewpoints vary on the degree and definition of the professional set of skills that students need to acquire during their academic training. There are two main tendencies in this respect:

- preparing students for the market in view of what the market *actually* expects from a professional (see for example Aula.int 2005; Kiraly 2000, 2005; Li 2000, 2002, 2007; Mackenzie 2004; Olvera-Lobo et al. 2007, 2008, 2009); and

- furnishing students with *transferable* skills that allow them to adapt to changing market demands (see Mossop 2003; Pym 2003; Bernardini 2004; Kearns 2006).

The theoretical discussions basically present these two approaches to translator training. Discussing in detail what Kiraly and Pym defend with respect to university translator training, Kearns (2006: 206) refers to these two approaches as the Kiraly vs. Pym camps on translation competence:

Pym's minimal definition *does not in and of itself* necessitate the teaching of 'translator competence' skills. Certainly Pym insists on their being present, but this is *Pym's* insistence rather than a fact necessitated by his minimalist competence itself. Kiraly's dichotomy, on the other hand, in spite of all its own minimal simplicity, is multi-componential and neglects to prioritise (or indeed analyse) the 'core' translation competence as Pym's notion does. Reconciling the two may seem a challenge, but we would suggest that the importance of broadening our

conception of the competence(s) which a trainee translator must acquire is one which Kiraly states explicitly (in his eighth challenge) and which Pym, through the combined effect of his pedagogical sophistication and eagerness to minimalise, merely assumes. (Kearns 2006: 75, italics in original)

The two camps present dissenting opinions on the definition of translation competence and hence the outcomes that translation students acquire before graduating. The scholars that tend to define translation competence in terms of professional reality assert that a translation student should graduate with word-processing skills and basic localization skills, the ability to work in a team, to translate into L2, to manage a project, to establish effective relations with clients and so on. The defenders of this camp may also be inclined to favor the use of authentic or simulated tasks in translation courses, arguing that future translators need hands-on experience before they are employed in the market. Their particular focus is on teaching technology and workplace procedures to prospective translators:

> For example, translator trainees may well need to know how to insert an equation into a text, how to present the date in German, and the standard abbreviations for a telephone number in France. […] And they need to know how to produce these formats in a range of software applications that goes from the standard word processor to specialized software for the creation and management of webpages, as well as desktop publishing software such as QuarkXpress™, PageMaker™ or FrameMaker™. (Olvera-Lobo 2007: 518)

Kiraly, as one of the vehement defenders of authentic and simulated tasks in translation classes, holds that students may be trained ready to act in the market almost professionally:

> Having completed projects under real-world conditions, the students […] tend to perform at a very high level of proficiency and adapt quickly and willingly to a constructive approach to learning. This the [sic] is heart of the *empowerment* approach: by providing students with opportunities to work authentically on the real-world translation market, by encouraging them to construct personally viable meanings and skills in collaboration with peers and outside professionals, and by

> explicitly serving as their assistants, guides and facilitators in this highly individualized process, we can empower our students as autonomous semi-professionals, ready to move out onto the market upon graduation and assume the expert roles that will be expected of them. (Kiraly 2005: 1109)

Kelly summarizes the same perspective with specific emphasis on "future":

> universities should cater in their curricular design not only for the present, but for future social and market needs. This clearly requires profound knowledge of the present and trends for future, close contact with market, and forward-looking staff responsible for the design process. (Kelly 2010: 89)

On the other hand, the second camp argues that the world of translation and hence the skills that translators require have been changing rapidly. Thus, prospective translators should be equipped with the major skills that take a long time to learn, as Mossop suggests:

> So what are the general abilities to be taught at school? They are the abilities which take a long time to learn: text interpretation, composition of a coherent, readable and audience-tailored draft translation, research and checking, correcting. But nowadays one constantly hears that what students really need are skills in document management, software localization, desktop publishing and the like. I say nonsense. If you cannot translate with pencil and paper, then you can't translate with the latest information technology. (Mossop 2003a: 20-21)

Mossop further advocates the need to maintain the distinction between education and training, and to leave practical training to the market:

> I think university-based translation schools must uphold the traditional distinction between education and training. They must resist the insistent demands of industry for graduates ready to produce top-notch translations in this or that specialized field at high speed using the latest computer tools. The place for training is the practicum and the professional development workshop. (Mossop 2003a: 20)

What is more, according to the second camp, students should be trained as flexible professionals so that they can adapt to the changing dynamics of the market:

> However, not only can universities not guarantee the 'production' of good translators, but to attempt to do so would be to deny the contemporary dynamics of the labour market, which increasingly is characterised by rapidly changing employment trends. The best way in which people can be trained to be flexible is to focus on the development of transferable and life-long learning skills which can be adapted to many tasks. (Kearns 2006: 50-51)

The empirical research on translator training nevertheless assumes that there is a gap between translator training and the translation market demands, and tries to measure it. As summarized in Table 2.2, empirical studies with various stakeholders have been conducted in recent years, with implications for translator training. These studies have produced various results, in some cases conflicting, concerning the items they found to be lacking in translator training with regard to market demands. Some studies have drawn attention to the lack of market involvement or disregard of market demands in the planning of training programs (see Li 2006, Milton 2001 and 2004, Doğan 2001, and Schellekens 2004). Particularly the findings of Doğan 2001 are important in that they provide a view of the Turkish context. From another perspective, Ulrych's study with tertiary translator-training institutions reveals that the majority of programs do consider professional criteria in designing courses. Furthermore, the administrators as well as senior translators and revisers in international organizations mostly refer to text-production skills when defining challenges for new recruits (Li 2007) and high-impact but often lacking skills among new recruits (Lafeber 2012). Katan's worldwide study with various stakeholders (2009) also reveals that text-production skills are among the most important that training programs are expected to provide students with. Unlike in most other studies, technology (e-tools) is listed among most important university modules by the respondents. The professional skill most commonly expected from translators is time management (Li 2000, Li 2007, and Lafeber 2012). Li's studies with professionals, students and administrators have all addressed the language- teaching function of translator-training programs, and have suggested that the programs are required to put more emphasis on teaching the foreign language especially.

Table 2.2. Main relevant findings of the empirical studies

Study	Stakeholders	Main findings
Li 2000	Professionals	<u>Least prepared areas</u>: subject-matter knowledge, interpretation <u>Challenges at work</u>: right style for translation, interpreting, time constraint, language competence
Li 2002	Students	Need for more practical courses and more language training in both the foreign language and the mother tongue
Li 2006	Teachers	Translation testing should be brought closer to the professional world.
Li 2007	Administrators	<u>Challenges for new recruits</u>: lack of necessary field knowledge, insufficient mastery of specialized terminology, inadequate translation skills, low translation speed, little professional confidence <u>Most important weaknesses of translators</u>: English competence, vocabulary/terminology, field knowledge* <u>Areas to be strengthened in training programs</u>: English, specialized translation, skills for finding references
Milton 2001	Translators, students	All university translation courses in Brazil originated from *Letras* courses, and few courses have practical contact with other areas. Employers of translators often totally ignore degrees in the area when employing translators.
Milton 2004	Translators	The lack of contact with the translation industry and market; the inflexibility of the university system, which makes it difficult to offer specific modular courses; the impossibility of accepting non-degree holders in specialized diploma course; and the lack of computer resources
Doğan 2001	Graduates	Gap between course contents and the market demands, lack of practicum opportunities, lack of link between theory and practice, lack of knowledge on how to protect their rights in the market
Schellekens 2004	Translators, companies, course providers	No involvement of employers in curriculum planning. New recruits are "too academically or literature focused for commercial translation needs".
Ulrych 2005	Higher education institutions	Training institutions incorporate professional criteria into their course contents, with respect to choice of text to translate, criteria for translating text, type of activity, namely technical writing, editing and localization, and use of translation aids.
Katan 2009a, 2009b	Translation professionals, teachers, students	Most important university modules are practice, strategies, e-tools, subject knowledge and grammar/linguistics. Non-trained translators give more importance to theory compared to university-trained translators.
Lafeber 2012	Translators, revisers	In addition to language skills and general or specialized knowledge, translators need "analytical, research, technological, interpersonal and time-management skills". <u>High-impact often-lacking skills</u>: working out the meaning of obscure passages, capturing nuances of ST, conveying the ST message clearly, ensuring the coherence of the TT, adhering to in-house style conventions, detecting inconsistencies, producing idiomatic translations, maintaining quality under time pressure, conveying the intended effect of the ST and so forth.
OPTIMALE 2012	Employers	<u>The most important competences expected from translators</u>: assuring quality in text production, identifying client requirements and experience in professional translation. These are followed by a degree in translation, effective client relations and use of translation memories.

* It is worthy of note here that the administrators of translation companies mentioned foreign-language competence among the top three strengths and top three weaknesses of translators they employ.

For the purpose of this study, I have selected neither of the two approaches found in theoretical discussions on translator training, nor have I formulated hypotheses that take sides in this issue. I do not attempt to measure any gap between translator training and market demands. Instead, I intend to describe empirically what is actually happening in the object of study. Given that *graduates* are familiar with both what is happening in translator-training institutions (owing to the training they received in a university context) and the translation market (provided they are professionally employed in the market), I start with them, presuming that they are the ones closest to the actual problems. In this respect, this study makes use of surveys and interviews to investigate the perceptions that translation graduates have of their education and professional needs. Based on the findings of graduate surveys, the study asks the opinions of other stakeholders, including the administrators of translator training programs, an employer, and one of the founding members of the translation students union.

Chapter 3. Translator Training in Turkey: An Overview

This part of the study provides contextual information about translator training in Turkey, allowing us to conceptualize the arguments of the study on stronger bases. An overview of the training setting in Turkey is an essential part of this study, since it sets out to describe translator-training practices in the Turkish context. A very brief history of training in academic settings is followed by institutional information on the programs, degrees and working languages in each institution. Subsequently, I describe the admission procedure to translator-training programs at universities and an overview of the course offerings. The training of trainers is explained with respect to Kelly's three areas of trainer competence: professional translation experience, knowledge of Translation Studies, and teaching skills. The final section describes the certification procedure for translators and an overview of the associations related to translators and translation in Turkey.

3.1. History, institutions and programs

Translator training in Turkish universities started in the first half of the 1980s, with the first university translation and interpreting programs being launched at Hacettepe University in Ankara (Doğan 1997: 144) and Boğaziçi University in Istanbul (Kuran Burçoğlu 1997: 138). Before the establishment of translator and interpreter-training programs in universities, translation and interpreting services were provided by graduates of foreign-language teaching, philology or linguistics departments, or any professionals who spoke a foreign language (Doğan 2003: 36-37). The abovementioned departments in universities were expected to train not only teachers or linguists, but also translators. However, Yazıcı notes that "the philological approach to translation has not sufficed to meet the increasing demand of the globalizing world" (2008: 65). In view of this demand, Hacettepe University opened the first department of translation and interpreting in Turkey in 1982-1983 (Doğan 2003: 38), which was then followed by new departments with various language pairs.

Thus, translator training in academic settings has a history of about three decades in Turkey. The 2013 Guidebook of the Student Selection and Placement Center for higher-education institutions in Turkey lists 23 universities that offer translator and interpreter training as a four-year undergraduate degree. Two more universities have a

department of translation and interpreting, but they did not admit new students for 2013-2014 academic year. Furthermore, there are universities that launched a department of translation and interpreting, but have not started admitting students to their undergraduate programs, e.g. Anadolu University, Niğde University and Kırklareli University.[5] In the last decade, particularly with the establishment of numerous foundation universities[6], the number of translation and interpreting departments has grown rapidly. Nevertheless, Kurultay (2008: 365) argues that the translation market and the situation of institutions are generally not taken into consideration when new translation and interpreting programs are established and student quotas are determined.

Across the world, various translator training forms have been applied in universities; some programs are affiliated to relevant departments in universities and thus undertake research in addition to training while others are launched to give only a vocational diploma that does not lead to postgraduate education (Kelly 2010: 87). In Turkey, translator and interpreter training at the undergraduate level has a longer history. However, the forms of translator training in universities have been diversifying, and some universities offer associate degrees[7], MAs and PhD programs as well (see Table 3.1).

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[5] In a personal communication, Dr. Aymil Doğan (August 2013) reported that the number of translation and interpreting departments that exist only by name, i.e. that were launched but do not admit students, has reached 51 in Turkish universities.

[6] Foundation universities, whose establishment was first permitted in the 1982 Constitution of Turkey, are subject to the constitutional provisions for higher education institutions founded by the state with regard to academic work, recruitment of academic members and security, excluding financial and administrative issues (Article 130). Established by foundations and not by the state, these higher education institutions must function without the purpose of gaining income, profit and rights (Article 27 of the Regulation on Foundation Higher Education Institutions). Thus, although they receive tuition fees from students, these institutions do not have the status of private universities. Bilkent, the first foundation university in Turkey, was established in 1984. The number of these universities has been increasing since 1995 (Küçükcan and Gür 2009: 133), reaching 65 by 2013.

[7] In the Turkish higher education system, an associate degree corresponds to level 5 of the EQF of 2008 and to the short cycle higher education according to the Dublin descriptors of 2004. The Higher Education Council of Turkey (2007: 29) states that the purpose of the associate degree is to enable students to acquire an occupation in a short period of time after vocational or non-vocational secondary education, and to augment diversity in human resources.

Table 3.1. Associate, BA, MA and PhD programs in translation and interpreting

Degrees Universities	Associate	BA	MA in		PhD
			Translation and Interpreting	Conference Interpreting	
State Universities					
Anadolu			x		
Ardahan	x				
Boğaziçi		x	x	x	x
Bülent Ecevit	x				
Dokuz Eylül		x	x		
Ege		x			
Giresun	x				
Hacettepe		x	x		
Istanbul		x	x		x
Kafkas		x			
Karabük	x				
Kırıkkale		x	x		
Marmara		x*			
Mersin		x	x		
Sakarya		x	x		x
Siirt	x				
Tunceli	x				
Trakya		x			
Yıldız Teknik		x	x		x
Foundation Universities					
Atılım		x	x		
Avrasya	x	x			
Avrupa (Voc. School)*	x				
Beykent		x			
Beykoz Logistics (Voc. School)*	x				
Bilkent		x		x	
Çağ	x				
Çankaya		x			
Doğuş			x**		x
Fatih	x*				
Haliç		x*			
Istanbul Arel	x	x			
Istanbul Aydın	x	x			
Istanbul Gelişim	x				
Istanbul Kavram (Voc. School)	x				
Izmir Economics		x			
Kapadokya (Voc. School)	x				
Nişantaşı	x				
Okan		x			
Plato (Voc. School)	x				
Yaşar		x			
Yeni Yüzyıl		x			
Yeditepe		x			

*The programs did not admit students in the 2013-2014 academic year.
**The university offers a Master's program in Translation Studies and another in Translation and Translation Technologies.

When students enter an undergraduate translation and interpreting program, they graduate as both a translator and an interpreter. Although some universities offer a specialized interpreting program in the final year to students that fulfill certain criteria (e.g. Bilkent, Boğaziçi, Hacettepe), they give the diploma of Translator and Interpreter to all their graduates, regardless of whether the student has specialized in interpreting. According to the 2013 Guidebook of the Student Selection and Placement Center, the student entry quotas of these undergraduate programs range from 20 to 80 per single language-pair program. For instance, in 2013 the places for translation students at Hacettepe University are 70 in the English program, 60 in the French program and 70 in the German program. Student numbers have been increasing due to quotas being raised by the Higher Education Council.

In most of these universities, the program is named Translation and Interpretation/Interpreting[8] (referred in Turkish with the words of Arabic origin, *Mütercim Tercümanlık*). In 2004 the Department of Translation and Interpreting at Boğaziçi University changed its name to the Department of Translation and Interpreting Studies.[9] Istanbul University combined its three translation and interpreting programs in English, French and German under the Department of Translation Studies in 2006. Currently, the programs at Boğaziçi and Yeditepe universities are named departments of Translation and Interpreting Studies, and the ones at Istanbul, Okan and Sakarya are named departments of Translation Studies.[10] The French Translation and Interpreting Program at Yıldız Technical University is affiliated with the Department of Western Languages and Literatures, and the German and French Translation and Interpreting

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[8] In a personal communication, Dr. Aymil Doğan (August 2013) mentioned that when translator- and interpreter-training programs were first launched in Turkey, the counterpart departments abroad were naming the programs Translation and Interpretation. Today, in academic writings, the term "interpreting" is preferred. However, the official name remained as "interpretation".

[9] Here, "Translation and Interpreting Studies" or "Translation Studies" corresponds to *Çeviribilim* in Turkish. *Çeviribilim* is a term that literally means "science of translation" and is used in a way to encompass both Translation Studies and Interpreting Studies. In English, "Translation Studies" refers to research done on translation and interpreting, but not to the studies done to become a translator. On the other hand, the term *Çeviribilim* in Turkish is used to cover both research and training.

[10] Again in a personal communication, Dr. Aymil Doğan (August 2012) from Hacettepe University drew attention to the fact that many schools in other countries still use Translation and Interpretation/Interpreting to name their programs, while the programs in Turkey has recently been inclined to use *Çeviribilim*, covering both Translation and Interpreting Studies. She suggested that this may bring about an equivalence problem in international education settings. That is why Hacettepe remained hesitant to change the name, even though it was one of the two universities that proposed *Çeviribilim*, with Boğaziçi, in the 1990s.

Programs at Mersin University are in a Department of Translation. All others are named departments of translation and interpreting.

The programs that offer an associate degree in translation are in a field known as Applied English and Translation and have a very recent history in the Turkish higher education system. Istanbul Aydın University additionally offers an associate degree program in Applied Spanish and Translation and in Applied Russian and English. Eight new associate degree programs in Applied English and Translation were introduced in the 2013-2014 academic year. The latest increase in associate degree programs brings about the need for a study comparable to the present one in order to identify which requirements these programs respond to on the translation market.

The working-language combinations in the undergraduate translator-training programs in Turkey are shown in Table 3.2. The data presented here are synthesized in Figure 3.1. This information is based on ÖSYS (Student Selection and Placement System) 2013 Guidebook of Higher Education Programs and Quotas.

Table 3.2. Language combinations in undergraduate translator-training programs

University	Working languages	University	Working languages
Atılım	Turkish-English	Istanbul	Turkish-English Turkish-French Turkish-German
Avrasya	Turkish-Russian	Izmir Economics	Turkish-English
Beykent	Turkish-English Turkish-Russian	Kafkas	Turkish-English-French
Bilkent	Turkish-English-French	Kırıkkale	Turkish-English Turkish-French Turkish-Arabic Turkish-Persian
Boğaziçi	Turkish-English	Marmara	Turkish-English * Turkish-French* Turkish-German*
Çankaya	Turkish-English	Mersin	Turkish-German
Dokuz Eylül	Turkish-English-German	Okan	Turkish-English Turkish-German* Turkish-Arabic Turkish-Chinese Turkish-Russian
Ege	Turkish-English Turkish-German	Sakarya	Turkish-German
Hacettepe	Turkish-English Turkish-French Turkish-German	Trakya	Turkish-English Turkish-German Turkish-Bulgarian
Haliç	Turkish-English*	Yaşar	Turkish-English
Istanbul Arel	Turkish-English	Yeditepe	Turkish-English
Istanbul Aydın	Turkish-English Turkish-Russian	Yeni Yüzyıl	Turkish-English
		Yıldız Technical	Turkish-French

*The programs did not admit students in the 2013-2014 academic year.

Figure 3.1 shows the relative frequency of each language in Turkish undergraduate translator-training programs.

Figure 3.1 Working languages in undergraduate translator-training programs (2013)
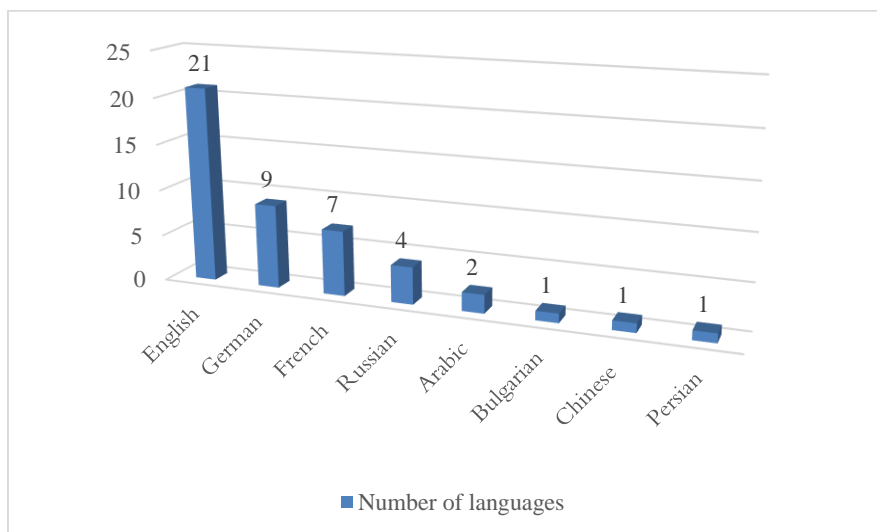
Students work with three languages in the English-French-Turkish program at Bilkent University, English-German-Turkish at Dokuz Eylül University, and English-French-Turkish at Kafkas University. In the other programs, students work with one language pair. Exceptionally, students that fulfill certain academic and language proficiency criteria have the right to be enrolled in two programs with two different language pairs, and receive a diploma of translation and interpreting in both language combinations (e.g. at Hacettepe University). The translator-training programs either encourage or require students to learn at least one more foreign language. In some cases, students improve themselves in the second or third foreign language, and work in the market using these languages. According to Kurultay (2008: 361), a large number of translation and interpreting departments work with a limited number of language pairs in Turkey. However, this tendency has been changing in recent years. Currently, the department at Okan University works with five language pairs, and there are some others working with three pairs.

Today, there has been a growing discussion on the increasing number of translator-training programs with reference to the relative needs in the job market and employment issues. Globalization leading to rise in communication promotes the lingua franca and also raises the need for translation (Pym 2006: 746-747). According to 2005 data, the

global translation industry grew rapidly in the last 20 years, and was expected to grow 5% to 7.5% per year between 2005 and 2010 (Boucau 2005). More recent data produce similar results. The global Language Service Providers (LSPs) market is growing at an annual rate of 7.41%, and is expected to reach US$38.96 billion in 2014, translation being the fastest growing area in this market; and most of the LSPs generate minimum 70% of their revenue from translation services (Government of Canada's Translation Bureau 2012: 12). In Turkey, the most conspicuous need seems to be with related to the EU-Turkey relations, where the EU *Acquis* of 120,000 pages needs to be translated (Hasdemir 2012). Considering the percentage for each country in the global translation market from Parker's (2008) calculations for 2011, and multiplying it by the estimate of 333,000 professional translators and interpreters, Pym, Grin, Sfreddo and Chan (2012: 37) calculate that the possible number of translators and interpreters in Turkey could be 3,463. Kurultay (2008: 366-367) suggests that the number of translators needed on the market may be smaller than the number of graduates, drawing attention to the increase in programs and in student quotas of programs as well as to great number of students in foreign language and literature departments also seeking job opportunities as translators. A rough calculation, as explained in section 5.1.1, shows that the four-year translator-training programs produced about 6,750 graduates over 30 years.

Yazıcı (2008) points out the link between number of translator-training programs and emphasis on the transfer of scientific knowledge. The reason behind opening a great number of new programs

> arises from the concern of transferring as much knowledge as possible so as not to lag behind times in sharing knowledge with others, and becoming a participant in generating original knowledge out of universally shared values by creating a contact zone between nations. The awareness of this mission will guide the departments of Translation Studies in Turkey on developing new strategies in specific field of translation. (Yazıcı 2008: 75)

3.2. Admission to translator-training programs

According to the current higher education placement system in Turkey, in order to study in a four-year translation and interpreting program students must take a two-step

nationwide university entrance examination after they successfully complete their secondary education. They are placed in the university programs they choose according to the score they receive in these two multiple-choice tests. In the first place, they take the Transition to Higher Education Exam (YGS), which tests their general knowledge of Turkish, social sciences, mathematics and natural sciences. Students that achieve a given level of success in this exam have the right to take the placement exam (LYS), held about two and a half months after the first stage. In the second stage, students wishing to study in a foreign-language department (linguistics, language teaching, philology, and translation and interpreting) are required to take a multiple-choice examination that tests only their knowledge of the foreign language. The foreign-language exam is offered only in English, French and German, and students wishing to study another language need to take the exam in one of these three languages. In view of their total score in this examination, students present a top-down list of the university programs where they want to study in and make their application to the Measurement, Selection and Placement Center (ÖSYM). The Center places students based on their score. After they are enrolled in a program, they take a language-proficiency examination in the language of the program, and only students with certain scores begin their translation and interpreting training. The unsuccessful ones attend foreign-language classes for a period of at least one semester, which can be extended to two years.

3.3. Course contents

The four-year curriculum of undergraduate translator-training programs offers a wide range of courses that improve language skills, present basic linguistic knowledge, teach translation and interpreting theory and practice, and provide knowledge of source and target cultures as well as specific knowledge in a wide range of domains. According to the ECTS, students are required to complete 240 credits successfully to obtain the undergraduate degree.

In the first two semesters of the programs, the credits are commonly dedicated to introductory translation courses as well as language and linguistics courses that aim to improve the language skills of students and equip them with pre-translation skills. Since bilingualism is one of the main components of translation competence models and students are required to start the program with a certain degree of language proficiency,

translator-training programs offer language courses to develop the writing, listening and speaking skills of trainees. One of the important points about language teaching in translation curricula is the focus on teaching the A language (the student's first or strongest language) for translation purposes. Whereas in the past Turkish-language courses specifically designed for translation hardly found a place in translator-training programs, today many undergraduate programs offer Turkish courses with names such as "Turkish for Translators" (Boğaziçi, Hacettepe, Izmir University of Economics, Yaşar), "Turkish Language and Literature for Translators" (Yeditepe), "Turkish Writing Skills", "Turkish Vocabulary" (Çankaya) and "English-Turkish Comparative Linguistics" (Yeni Yüzyıl). An analysis of the curricula of 17 translation departments in Turkey shows that 59% of the courses in the first two years are targeted at language competence, and the remaining courses are divided among theoretical and practical translation (22%), cultural courses (17%) and others (Akalın and Gündoğdu 2010: 87-89).

All programs offer domain-specific translation courses. In some programs the courses are merely named "Specialized Translation" or "Technical Translation" (e.g. at Yıldız Technical University) whereas others prefer domain-specific names such as "Translation of Texts on Social Sciences" or "Translation of Texts on Economics" (at Izmir University of Economics), or "Medical Translation" or "Translation of EU Texts" (at Hacettepe University). Because students are trained as both translators and interpreters, they take sight translation, consecutive interpreting and simultaneous interpreting courses in addition to the translation components of the program. Almost all programs involve translation theory components. The findings of Akalın and Gündoğdu (2010: 87-89) show that in the last two years of undergraduate translation programs, theoretical and practical translation courses outweigh the others: they account for 72%, of the total courses, whereas the proportion of language courses is 16%.

Besides all the above components, translator-training programs offer technical and non-technical electives, including second or third foreign language courses as well as a wide range of thematic courses such as literature, journalism, law, the European Union, international relations and economics.

In the recent past, information technology was involved in translation curricula only to make students acquire basic computer skills. Today, technology for translation has been incorporated into translation curricula. Most of the translator-training

departments offer information technology for translators, including translation memory tools, as an obligatory or elective course.

Chapter 4, describing the curricula of two translator-training programs from a historical perspective, provides further information about the content of undergraduate translator training in Turkey.

3.4. Translator trainers

The training of trainers, along with assessment, is one of the fields that have "lagged behind in the development of new approaches to translator and interpreter training" (Kelly and Martin 2009: 298). Kelly (2005: 151) defines three areas of competence or expertise to be a competent translator trainer: professional translation practice, Translation Studies as an academic discipline, and teaching skills. Most, if not all, translator trainers are equipped with the first area of competence, i.e. professional practice, supposing that the translation or interpreting activities they do besides their academic and teaching practices constitute professional experience. Lederer (2007: 17) also suggests that "[t]o teach translation, one has to be an expert practitioner; practice provides an understanding (not always a theory) of translation and its problems, as well as an understanding of what is expected from translators in the work market". In my minor dissertation (2008), out of 27 academics surveyed in Turkey, 25 mentioned that they had professional translation experience. As civil servants, university staff are normally not allowed to earn money from other activities. However, they can provide services in accordance with the terms and conditions set out by the executive board of each university, providing that their income from this service is recorded as revenue to the university budget (Article 37 of the Law no. 2547 on Higher Education). Thus, the legislation partly allows them to be engaged in professional activities and to cooperate with the market. There is nevertheless no research or survey of the Turkish context to show how frequently translation teachers are engaged in professional translation activities.

Kelly's second area of competence generally depends on whether the trainer has received training in translation. As mentioned above, because Translation Studies does not have a long history in Turkey as an academic discipline, most trainers received training in linguistics, literature or foreign-language teaching. Although most academics are engaged in translation activities, their first encounter with Translation Studies occurs

after they are recruited into a translator-training program. Young academics who hold an undergraduate degree in translation may continue their studies either in one of graduate translation programs or in a related field. The increasing number of translation conferences in Turkey and abroad, as well as Translation Studies resources (the growing literature in Translation Studies, including books, articles, online materials and so on), provides trainers with a wide range of opportunities to enhance their knowledge in Translation Studies. Further, the availability of many resources online makes it easier to access information. Exchange programs like Erasmus provide both teaching staff and research staff with the opportunity to observe and participate in teaching and academic activities in other countries.

The final area of competence, teaching skills, seems to be the most controversial one. Kelly (2005: 151; 2008: 105-106) names the first two areas prerequisites rather than the central competence, and defines five sub-competences required to develop teaching skills, namely the core competence: organizational, interpersonal, instructional, contextual or professional and instrumental. Because translator training has a recent history in Turkey, most course providers in translation programs hold degrees in literature, linguistics or foreign-language teaching (Eruz 2003: 100). As the number of PhD programs in translation and interpreting is limited[11], research assistants in universities – prospective translator trainers – have to do their PhD in other related disciplines. In Turkey, research assistants are not among the teaching staff of universities. Thus, in most cases, they do not teach until they receive a PhD degree. They are trained as future trainers through observing the teaching practices of other academic staff in the department where they work. Instructors not holding an academic degree need to learn to teach, mainly through observing. This is the best way to acquire teaching skills, according to Mayoral (2003: 5), who proposes "to study the way good teachers teach, and then enrich that with one's own innovations" because current translation pedagogy is not established enough to serve as a basis for a training program.

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[11] The only PhD program in translation was the one opened by Boğaziçi University in 1993 until the programs at Istanbul and Yıldız Technical universities were launched in 2007 and at Sakarya University in 2009.

3.5. Entry to the market, certification, standards

The market entry conditions and certification procedures in Turkey are described briefly in this chapter, particularly in order to show the challenges that translation students are faced with after graduation. These considerations are not direct components of training programs. They are nevertheless included in this chapter because they are expected to influence the training processes and are discussed in further chapters of the study with reference to their relation to translator training. Today in Turkey, the translation market employs not only the graduates of translator-training departments. The market is open to the graduates of foreign-language teaching, linguistics and foreign-language and literature departments or in some cases anyone speaking a foreign language. Kurultay (2008: 375) argues that the distinction between translator-training departments and other foreign-language departments will be futile if certain conditions and procedures are not set for entry into the market.

When explaining how translators and interpreters earn their credentials, Stejskal (2004: 6) makes a distinction between *accreditation* as "a process by which an entity grants public recognition to an organization such as a school, institute, college, program, facility, or company that has met predetermined standards" and *certification* as "a voluntary process by which an organization grants recognition to an individual who has met certain predetermined qualification standards". He mentions three possible means of certification: by a professional association, by a government, and by an academic institution.

In Turkey, the only certification system is for sworn translators. However, this system does not work in the same way as systems in other European countries (Eruz 2003: 65). In Turkey, translators are required to apply to a public notary to become a sworn translator, and submit proof that they have proficiency in the language combination for which they apply. Anyone who submits proof of language proficiency and takes an oath before a public notary can become a sworn translator. No official list of documents that serve as proof is provided. Although sworn translators sign under each translated text to take responsibility for their translation, the translation is invalid unless approved by the notary. The relevant articles of Law no. 1512 on Public Notaries read as follows:[12]

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[12] http://www.tnb.org.tr/GenelBilgiler/noterlikkanunu_tr.htm. Accessed May 2012.

Translation procedure

Article 103 –In the case of a text that is translated from one language to another or transliterated from one script to another, the notary adds an annotation below the text.

If the notary used a sworn translator, this annotation must include the personal details and address of the translator, and must be dated and signed by the notary[13].

The regulation in the Public Notary Law describes the process in a more detailed way:[14]

Translation procedures

Article 96 – Translation or transliteration of a document from one language to another and endorsement of this document by a public notary is known as the translation procedure.

The notary should ensure without any doubt that the translator knows said language or script accurately, seeing their diploma or other documents, or by other ways.

The notary makes the translator take an oath in accordance with the Legal Proceedings Law, as specified in the final paragraph of Article 75 of the Public Notary Law. This should be certified by a written report. The report includes the translator's given name, family name, date of birth, work address, home address, level of education, which language(s) they speak, which script(s) they know, how the notary assured that the translator knows said language or script, type of oath and date of the report. The report is signed by both notary and translator.

EN 15038:2006 European Quality Standard for Translation Service Providers, developed by the European Committee for Standards (CEN), includes "general rules for management, physical structure and personnel characteristics of work places giving translation services". It was translated into Turkish and adopted by the Turkish Standards Institution on April 9, 2009. All translation companies, all companies with in-house

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[13] The translation is my own.
[14] http://www.tnb.org.tr/HIZMETLER/YAZILAR/yonetmelik.htm. Accessed May 2012.

translation departments, and all freelance translators can seek certification. The use of European standards is voluntary. Translation companies in Turkey have started applying to the Turkish Standards Institution to be certified with a view to showing the quality of their services to clients. The adoption of this standard may play a guiding role both in training processes and in services provided in the market.

A recent development related to the translation industry is the National Occupational Standard[15] for translators introduced by the Vocational Qualifications Authority of Turkey. The process for receiving expert opinions from parties such as universities, the translator associations and the EU – DG Translation to improve the draft standard continued until July 6, 2012, and the standard was endorsed and published in the Official Gazette of January 29, 2013. The standard places the translation profession at level 6 according to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF), which requires

> advanced knowledge of a field of work or study, involving a critical understanding of theories and principles; advanced skills of mastery and innovation, required to solve complex and unpredictable problems in a specialized field of work or study; competence to manage complex technical or professional activities or projects, taking responsibility for decision-making in unpredictable work or study contexts and to take responsibility for managing professional development of individuals and groups. (EQF 2008: 3)

The standard consists of four parts, i.e. introduction, description of the profession (definition of the profession, place of the profession in international classification systems, regulations related to health, security and environment, legislation related to the profession, working environment and conditions and other requirements related to the profession), profile of the profession (duties, procedures and performance criteria, tools, instruments and equipment used, knowledge and skills, attitudes and behaviors), and measurement, evaluation and certification.

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[15] The Law no. 5544 on the Vocational Qualifications Authority defines National Occupational Standards as "[m]inimum norms adopted by the Authority, which prescribe the possession of necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviors required for the successful performance of a profession."

3.6. Translators' associations

Translator associations have quite a recent history in Turkey, excluding the association of conference interpreters, which was founded over 40 years ago. Since 2000, some associations have been launched to improve the professional standards of translation and elevate the status of translators. In 2013, Turkey had five associations for translators and interpreters, and three associations for translation companies. The number of translators' associations has been increasing. It was noted in the Translation Platform held in 2012 that these associations generally fail to collaborate with each other (Özaydın 2012: 64), that the present structure of these associations hampers closer communication and cooperation and the associations need to develop common strategies to enable global representation (Kartal 2012: 41), and that the associations need to be combined under a single roof in the form of a federation (Erbil 2012: 14).

The Association of Translation[16] (*Çeviri Derneği*), founded in 1999, is affiliated with the International Federation of Translators (FIT) and is an association representing the stakeholders of the translation and interpreting processes (i.e. translators, interpreters, proofreaders, company managers, publishers and academics). Membership of the association requires references from two members. The statute of the association says that professional translators, interpreters, proofreaders, academics working in the field of translation, translation company managers and everyone interested in translation can apply for membership. Article 2 of the statute defines its purposes as follows:

> Article 2 – The aim of the association is to improve and promote the translation profession, and develop and advance all aspects of the translation sector. The issues in which the association is interested are as follows:
>
> to highlight the scientific and social importance of translation; to raise public awareness and consciousness about translation and translators;
> to identify and update the rights and responsibilities of translators as well as the working conditions and ethical principles for the translation profession;

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[16] The English names of the associations are written out here as they appear either on the official websites of respective associations or on related international websites.

to ensure, promote, control and monitor that professional and ethical principles are adopted and practiced by all translators;

to contribute to the professional training of translators, and to provide the settings and means required for this;

to carry out research and development activities in the field of translation, and to support the studies conducted;

to promote, support and reward works and projects that develop the translation profession;

to exert efforts to improve the socio-economic status of translators;

to give advice and guidance to members with respect to labor, commercial and contract law;

to provide guidance to translation companies regarding working procedures and principles in order to improve their quality;

to provide guidance to translation companies and publishing houses for the regulation of legal conditions, working conditions and professional relations;

to exert efforts to establish a professional chamber that brings together all translators;

to cooperate with and become a member of international professional associations related to the translation profession;

to be engaged in activities that protect the rights of translators.[17]

The Turkish Translators Association (*Türkiye Çevirmenler Derneği,* TÜÇED), also a member of the International Federation of Translators (FIT), was established in 1992 to observe the rights and improve the status of translators.[18] Any natural or legal person that is engaged in translation can become a member of the association. Among the efforts of the association are to launch a professional chamber of translators and to ensure the adoption of a law regarding the translation profession.

The Turkish Association of Literary Translators (*Çevirmenler Meslek Birliği,* ÇEVBİR), a member of the European Council of Literary Translators' Associations (CEATL), is the product of an e-mail group whose initial aim was to discuss common

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[17] The translation is my own; for the original version of the statute see
http://www.ceviridernegi.org/tuzuk.html. Accessed May 2012.
[18] The websites of relevant associations are provided in footnotes.
http://www.tuced.org.tr/. Accessed May 2012.

problems faced by literary translators and to offer solutions to these problems. The Association, established in 2006, accepts as members translators who have translated at least one book or part of a book, and supports them to protect their rights. Some of the other aims of the Association are to improve the quality of translation in Turkey, to uphold certain ethical principles in the publishing sector and to cooperate with translator associations abroad.[19]

The Association of Translators and Interpreters (*Mütercim Tercümanlar Derneği*, MÜTED)[20] was founded in 2012 in order to promote the professional standards and protect professional rights of translators and interpreters.

The Conference Interpreters Association of Turkey (*Türkiye Konferans Tercümanları Derneği,* TKTD) was established as the Association of Conference Interpreters in 1969 and renamed as the United Association of Conference Interpreters in 1998. Today, the United Association of Conference Interpreters aims to "promote conference interpreting as a profession in Turkey and establish professional principles and rules in line with international practice".[21] Those who work as conference interpreters for a minimum of 150 days and receive references from at least three members of the association, as specified in the Regulation of the Board of Ethics, may apply for membership.

Additionally, there are three associations of translation companies. The Turkish Association of Translation Companies (*Tüm Çeviri İşletmeleri Derneği,* TÇİD/TUATC)[22], a member of the European Union of Associations of Translation Companies (EUATC), aims to improve and develop the translation sector as a whole, as well as to represent and protect the interests of the sector by implementing and sustaining a high standard of values and practices by providing the sharing of knowledge and experience between the professionals in the sector and to support individuals, corporations and organizations working for the same purpose.[23] The Association of Translation Companies (*Çeviri İşletmeleri Derneği*) is another institution that aims to bring together translation companies under one roof.[24] The latest one, the Association of

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[19] http://www.cevbir.org/. Accessed May 2012.
[20] http://www.mt.org.tr/. Accessed July 2013.
[21] http://tktd.org/wp/?page_id=69. Accessed May 2012.
[22] http://www.tcid.org.tr/. Accessed May 2012.
[23] http://www.tcid.org.tr/files/TUATC-bylaws.pdf. Accessed May 2012.
[24] http://www.cid.org.tr/. Accessed May 2012.

Translators and Translation Offices (*Çevirmenler ve Çeviri Büroları Derneği*, ÇEV-DER), was launched in 2012.[25]

Finally, a new initiative that students of translation and interpreting departments launched in 2010 is worth mentioning: the Turkish Union of Translation Students (*Türkiye Çeviri Öğrencileri Birliği,* TÜÇEB). The Union has been carrying out meetings and other activities with a view to handling the problems of translator training and the translation market from the perspective of students and facilitating exchange and cooperation among translation students.[26]

This chapter has briefly described translator training in Turkey with regard to institutions and programs, the diversity of degrees and language combinations, admission procedure to undergraduate programs, courses offered in undergraduate programs and trainers, and has then provided a brief account of certification procedures for the profession and translator associations.

With a brief history of translator training and a glance of the current situation in translator training in Turkey, this chapter has summarized university translator training in Turkey. This is with a view to presenting the context where the stakeholders surveyed and interviewed in this study have been involved as students, training providers and designers. The motive of integrating this relatively ample information into the study is to provide details of the context and to be able to discuss the relative success of these institutions in allowing qualified translators to enter the market.

The upsurge in the number of training programs has raised interest in translator training. Yet there is a dilemma related to translator training in Turkey. On the one hand, there has been focus on the growing need for translation and translators, with particular reference to the quality of translations on the market. On the other hand, there has been growing criticism of the increase in the number of translator-training programs in universities, with particular reference to the quality of translator training. If there is such a need for qualified translators on the market, the university programs are there to train them. However, when there are so many university programs to meet the need for qualified translators, these programs first require equipped facilities and qualified trainers. The criticisms of the increase in the number of training programs mainly center on the lack of qualified trainers. One of the aims of this study is to describe and discuss

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[25] http://www.cev-der.org/. Accessed May 2013.
[26] http://www.tuceb.com/. Accessed May 2012.

in detail what is offered in four-year university programs, which are growing in number, admitting increasingly greater numbers of students, diversifying the language pairs offered, updating course contents, and are expected to be interacting with the profession. They will be represented here by two training programs. The main criteria considered in the evaluation are the needs of the translation market.

Chapter 4. Historical Comparison of the Curricula

This part of the study presents a historical overview of the translator-training programs at Hacettepe and Bilkent universities, the cases in this study, in order to identify what has changed in translator training in terms of curricular content over time. The curricula of the two translator-training programs, used as a point of reference to discuss the quantitative and qualitative data collected through surveys and interviews, have provided an important resource of information in this study. In addition to systemizing an education or training program (in its narrow sense)[27], an overt, written curriculum is the only element that makes program content visible to outsiders. A taught curriculum (what is actually taught in the classroom) may not be always aligned with the written curriculum. In the present study, the written curricula of the two programs are compared with the perceptions of graduates about training, in order to seek any compatibilities and incompatibilities between the written and taught curricula.

The first part of the chapter provides a summary of the course categories used here for ease of comparison. The categories derived from an overview of the curricula were used for this purpose. The categories obtained were as follows: language, extra-linguistics, technology, professional work procedures and ethics, and translation practice and theory.

The second part presents an overview of revisions to the curricula of the programs from a historical perspective. I first went through the revisions to the curricula of the translator-training programs at Hacettepe and Bilkent universities in order to see what has changed since the establishment of programs and to look for the reasons behind these changes. I obtained, with the help of administrators of the programs, the courses offered in the programs since their launch as well as the course contents. I noted the major revisions made since the establishment of programs. The changes were interpreted to find out whether there was any shift of focus between various training components over time.

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[27] Wiles and Bondi (2011: 3-5) refer to the boundaries in various definitions of "curriculum", and explain that narrow definitions traditionally based on subject-area mastery have been quite different from broader statements defining curriculum as all of the experience students have in the school.

4.1. Categories of courses in the curricula

Going through the courses that have been taught in the two programs since their launch, I found out that the courses may be listed under five categories: language and linguistics, extra-linguistic knowledge, technology, professional work procedures, and translation practice and theory. These categories were derived from the programs themselves.

Courses on *language and linguistics* are mainly designed to improve the skills that translators require to communicate effectively in their working languages. The category covers communication skills such as speaking and writing as well as knowledge of linguistics required for text analysis and generation. Accordingly, for the purpose of this study, this category comprehends courses related to 1) communication skills, i.e. grammatical, lexical, speaking, writing, listening and reading skills in A and B, and where applicable, C languages, and 2) knowledge of linguistics as a scientific discipline.

The overview of curricula provides two types of courses that fall under the category of *extra-linguistic knowledge*: 1) field-specific and general world knowledge, and 2) knowledge about the culture of translators' working languages. The courses in the first item are offered in translation programs to ensure that students "acquir[e] sufficient basic knowledge to understand the major concepts in specialized texts, and to carry out in-depth documentary research for translation in a meaningful way" (Kelly 2005: 77). Kelly (2005: 74) states that it is possible, but not enough to acquire cultural competence through cultural information already available on the Internet and library resources. Direct contact is the alternative to descriptive knowledge of cultures. As a part of the European Higher Education Area, Turkish universities have mobility agreements with European universities. Both incoming and outgoing students provide a ground for cultural exchange. However, as this sort of exchange is still confined to a few students each semester, students need to acquire cultural knowledge in the traditional training setting.

The category of *technology* covers the courses that are designed to improve 1) students' general (effective use of the Internet, word processing, use of spreadsheets, etc.) and 2) translation-specific technology skills.

Knowledge of *professional work procedures and ethics*, which involves both procedural and declarative knowledge[28] of the translation profession, has been a part of translator training at universities. For the purpose of this study, this category is associated with curriculum components that aim to develop professional management skills and market-related knowledge of students. The "interpersonal dimension" of translation service provision in EMT (2009) gives a thorough description of the scope of professional work procedures and ethics:

- Being aware of the social role of the translator
- Knowing how to follow market requirements and job profiles (knowing how to remain aware of developments in demand)
- Knowing how to organise approaches to clients/potential clients (marketing)
- Knowing how to negotiate with the client (to define deadlines, tariffs/invoicing, working conditions, access to information, contract, rights, responsibilities, translation specifications, tender specifications, etc.)
- Knowing how to clarify the requirements, objectives and purposes of the client, recipients of the translation and other stakeholders
- Knowing how to plan and manage one's time, stress, work, budget and ongoing training (upgrading various competences)
- Knowing how to specify and calculate the services offered and their added value
- Knowing how to comply with instructions, deadlines, commitments, interpersonal competences, team organisation
- Knowing the standards applicable to the provision of a translation service
- Knowing how to comply with professional ethics
- Knowing how to work under pressure and with other Translation service provision experts, with a project head (capabilities for making contacts, for cooperation and collaboration), including in a multilingual situation
- Knowing how to work in a team, including a virtual team

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[28] The distinction between procedural (knowledge of how) and declarative knowledge (knowledge of what), suggested by Anderson (1983), has been used by PACTE to define the type of knowledge required to gain translation competence (see for example 2003).

– Knowing how to self-evaluate (questioning one's habits; being open to innovations; being concerned with quality; being ready to adapt to new situations/conditions) and take responsibility

The final set of components in the curriculum consists of *translation practice and theory*. As put by Nord, translators "should know the skills and abilities that are required in the profession (= practical knowledge), and they should know how to describe them using the concepts and terms of some kind of theory (= theoretical knowledge)" (2005a: 214). In the present study, general or specialized translation courses, allowing students to combine the knowledge and skills they acquire in other courses to produce a translated product, are put under this category. Students are expected to improve their translation skills by learning stages and strategies of translation, defining the translation solutions they encounter, solving these problems, justifying their solutions and choices and evaluating their translation products. Thus, translation theory allowing students to reflect on translation and to present a justification for their translation solutions is also dealt with under this category.

The categories derived from the programs may also be linked to competence models in translation. The categories are compatible with some of the translation competence models suggested in the 2000s, namely Neubert (2000), PACTE (2000 and 2003), Kelly (2005), EMT (2009) and Göpferich (2009), with regard to their main assumptions. The categories suggested in this study find one-to-one correspondents or combined/divided correspondents in competence models (see Table 5.1).[29]

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[29] In addition to the competence areas in Table 4.1, there is an additional component that is defined as the attitudinal competence by Kelly (2005), psycho-physical disposition by Göpferich (2009) and psycho-physiological component by PACTE (2003). This refers to a translator's self-concept, perseverance to solve translation problems, confidence, attention, motivation, intellectual curiosity and so on.

Table 4.1. Translation competence models compared

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

There is a close link between competences and curricula, although curriculum design is not completely dependent on competence acquisition. Translation competence models have already been used in curriculum design but curricula in principle do not always coincide with them:

the lack of curricular integration or skills transferability (as serious knowledge fragmentation problem), the questionably random and, at times, highly individualistic decisions regarding the contents to be taught and the criteria by which such contents are to be sequenced (if any such criteria exist), the predominance of theory over practice, and the low impacts and significance of curricula on real learnings are just some of the complaints one frequently encounters in diverse product-led educational settings and cultures. (Calvo 2011: 10).

However, in addition to curriculum content, there are many significant local and institutional factors (e.g. student profile and motivation, trainer profile and motivation, resources available and so on) that influence "real learnings" and the achievement of competences. Therefore, section 4.2 only provides an analysis of the *written and explicit* curriculum content in order to lay the groundwork for discussions of the graduates' reports on their training.

4.2. Historical overview of the curricula

The above categorization with five items is used here to describe the historical progress of the curricula used in the two institutions under study. Obviously, not every course is targeted at the development of a single area. For instance, all translation courses probably improve the language competence and extra-linguistic knowledge of students, as well as their translation skills. Nevertheless, reading the descriptions of each course, I tried to identify the dominant objective of each course. The current curricula were available on the websites of the departments, and the previous curricula were obtained through personal contact with the administrators. In the overview of the curricula, some references have been made to the interviews conducted with the program administrators in this study.

4.2.1. Bilkent University

The Department of Translation and Interpreting at Bilkent University opened in the academic year 1992-1993. A major change was made on the curriculum in 1997, and since then the same curriculum has been used in the program with minor changes brought mainly in 2009. A comparative list of the courses in the initial program, in the 1997 revision and in the current program (in 2012-2013 academic year) is provided below.

4.2.1.1. Language

Developing the foreign-language competence of students has been one of the primary concerns of the department, as was confirmed by the head of the department (see section 8.1.1.1). In the department, all students are required to master two foreign languages, which are English and French. However, students generally enter the department with a single foreign language, which is in most cases English, and learn French in the intensive French language program. When they start the translation program after completing the intensive language program in one or two years, not all students are sufficiently prepared, in terms of foreign language competence, to translate into and from French and in some cases into and from English. That is why the program puts great emphasis on language improvement, particularly in the first two years of study. Table 4.2 shows the language courses offered in the program since its launch.

Table 4.2. Comparison of A, B and C language courses in Bilkent's curricula

Semesters	Initial curriculum	1997 revision	Present curriculum
1	Contrastive Grammar and Lexis (T-E) Contrastive Grammar and Lexis (T-F) Texts and Composition in English I Texts and Composition in French I	Contrastive Grammar and Lexis (T-E) Contrastive Grammar and Lexis (T-F) Texts and Composition in English I Texts and Composition in French I	Contrastive Grammar (T-E) Contrastive Grammar (T-F) English and Composition I* Texts and Composition in French I
2	Texts and Composition in English II Texts and Composition in French II	Texts and Composition in English II Texts and Composition in French II Applied Linguistics	English and Composition II* Texts and Composition in French II Applied Linguistics
3	Language and Written Communication in English	Business Communications	Business Communications
4	Language and Written Communication in French	Documentation and Terminology	Group Communication and Discussion
5	Précis Writing in English Précis Writing in French	Précis Writing in English-French	Précis Writing in English-French
7		Turkish Diction Communication and Reporting**	Turkish Diction French in Corporate Communication***
Electives	Expression Techniques in Communication English for Public Relations Theory of Communication Linguistic Theories and Translation	Introduction to Personal Communication	Introduction to Personal Communication

* Course name changed in 2011.
** Added in 2003.
*** Added in 2010.

Contrastive Grammar and Lexis (English-Turkish) and Contrastive Grammar and Lexis (French-Turkish) as well as Texts and Composition in English I-II and Texts and Composition in French I-II have been offered in the department since the 1992 curriculum. Applied Linguistics, added to the curriculum in 1997, is still offered. Foreign-language courses are predominant in the first year.

The second year also involves courses to improve language competence. Language and Written Communication in English, and Language and Written Communication in French in the first curriculum were replaced by Business Communications in both languages. The latter course is still provided in the department. Documentation and Terminology, offered since 1992, was removed from the curriculum in 2009. The present program involves the course Group Communication and Discussion, where the emphasis

is on "verbal and non-verbal communication, active listening and responding techniques, problem solving and decision making".[30]

In the third year, students take Précis Writing in English and French, which has been a course in the curriculum since the beginning of the program. In this course, they learn the technique of précis-writing, working with specialized texts and recorded speeches. Introduction to Interpersonal Communication (in French) is offered as an elective.

In the final year, students take Turkish Diction, which is the sole course for the improvement of the mother tongue. They further had Communication and Reporting between 2003 and 2010. However, this course was replaced by French in Corporate Communication in 2010. In both courses, the main emphasis is on drafting documents required in business life. In addition to writing skills in general, the department has specifically focused on communication in business.

In the interview, the head of the department has noted that the majority of electives are provided in the French language so that students who are mostly learning French when they enter the university may have more opportunities to improve this language. In the first curriculum, the majority of the restricted electives[31] were targeted at the development of language and linguistic knowledge: Expression Techniques in Communication, English for Public Relations, Theory of Communication, and Linguistic Theories and Translation. However, with the revision in 1997, these courses were removed from the curriculum. In quantitative terms, the number of courses where the main concern is to improve students' foreign-language competence has remained almost the same over years, with a shift from pure language teaching to a certain degree of specialized language teaching in areas such as business.

4.2.1.2. Extra-linguistic knowledge

The curriculum incorporates courses designed to improve both the cultural competence and the domain-specific knowledge of students, which are both covered under the extra-linguistic area for the purpose of this study. Table 4.3 shows the cultural courses offered in the curricula used so far.

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[30] See http://catalog.bilkent.edu.tr/current/course/c89236.html. Accessed December 2012.

[31] "Restricted electives" are the courses that students are required to select from a pre-approved list of courses with substantial content related to the program.

Table 4.3. Comparison of cultural courses in Bilkent's curricula

Semesters	Initial curriculum	1997 revision	Present curriculum
3	Anglo-American Society and Culture I French Society and Culture I	Cultural Contexts I	English-American and French Culture I
4	Anglo-American Society and Culture II French Society and Culture II	Cultural Contexts II	English-American and French Culture II

Since the first curriculum in 1992, the department has offered courses on the cultures of the languages dealt with in the undergraduate program. In the initial curricula, these courses were provided as Anglo-American Society and Culture I and II, and French Society and Culture I and II. Then they were changed into Cultural Contexts I and II, again focusing on the relevant cultures of both languages. The present curriculum provides English-American and French Culture I and II in the second year of study. Thus, given the explicit curricular content, the program has been offering courses on target cultures.

The program also offers courses on domain-specific knowledge (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4. Comparison of field-specific courses in Bilkent's curricula

Semesters	Initial curriculum	1997 revision*	Present curriculum
6			Criticism and French Literature** Selected Topics from English Literature**
Electives	Journalism European Politics and the Common Market	Journalism Analysis of Scientific and Technical Texts Selected Topics from English Literature Introduction to Law Economics I Political Economy of the European Community Introduction to Social Psychology	Information Systems Security and Information Distortion Management Information Systems Economics I Language of Journalism Media Studies

* The electives listed here are only those offered in 1997-1998 academic year. The courses offered have increased in number and diversified over years.
** Added in 2003.

Probably because the Department of Translation and Interpretation is within the School of Applied Languages[32], together with the Department of Accounting and the Department of Banking and Finance, where the working languages are French and

[32] In the 2013-2014 academic year, the Department of Translation and Interpreting at Bilkent became affiliated with the Faculty of Humanities and Letters.

English, students have been offered a wide range of electives on financial issues such as Economics, Business Law, Business Functions and Decision-Making or Management Information Systems. In addition, they may choose courses on Journalism, Media Studies, Social Psychology, Law or Scientific and Technical Texts. The restricted electives offered in the program have changed and varied over time. In the first curriculum, the only domain-specific courses were Journalism and European Politics and the Common Market. Literature and literary translation is also an important component of the program. In 2003, Selected Topics from English Literature and Criticism and French Literature, which were previously electives, became obligatory courses; and in 2009 Specialized English-Turkish Translation IV was changed into Literary Translation. Thus, all the obligatory courses in the sixth semester are presently devoted to literature and literary translation. The weight of this component has increased over the years. There is need to discuss this increase in comparison with working areas of the translators surveyed in this study and their perceptions about what should be taught in translator-training programs (section 6.7.2).

4.2.1.3. Technology

The technology components offered in the Bilkent program are shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5. Comparison of technology courses in Bilkent's curricula

Semesters	Initial curriculum	1997 revision	Present curriculum
2	Computer Literacy	Computer Literacy I	Computer Literacy I
Electives	Translation and the New Technology	Computer Literacy II	Computer Literacy II Technology for Translators

An obligatory course on Computer Literacy has been offered since the launch of the program, where students acquire basic computer skills such as word processing, use of the Internet, basic communications, webpage building and the use of spreadsheets. Computer Literacy II has been offered as an elective since 2000. Unlike most universities where translation students take general computer courses offered to all university students, the program at Bilkent individually offers a computer course within the department, which is taken only by translation students. It is noteworthy that the first curriculum of the program also involved a course entitled Translation and the New Technology, as an elective. However, this course was then removed. In the academic year

2009-2010, Technology for Translators was incorporated into the curriculum, again as an elective. The six-ECTS credit course has quite a comprehensive scope, including "computer-assisted translation systems, use of online material and resources, translation project management and terminology compilation techniques".[33] When asked about the use of technological skills in courses, the department head remarked that technology has not been used directly in courses because not all students take the course on technology and because of the limited capacity of the computer laboratory.

4.2.1.4. Professional work procedures and ethics

The program does not have a specific course on professional work procedures. The most significant component where students learn about professional and market procedures is the work placement. The work placement in the form of summer practice has been a part of the curriculum since 1997. Details about this component are provided in the interview with the program head in section 8.1.1.2.

In their interviews, the graduates remarked that the trainers with professional experience provided information about market practices during the classes. Although this was restricted by the knowledge of trainers and the individual efforts of students, it may be assumed that the translation courses provide students with the opportunity to acquire knowledge about professional procedures.

4.2.1.5. Translation practice and theory

The fifth items in the curricula are translation practice and theory, which integrate all other components required to manage and complete a translation. Since the beginning of the program in 1992, there has been a distinction between the translation and interpreting sections in the final year of study. Thus, having received both translation and interpreting courses in the first three years, students have the chance to choose translation and further develop their translation skills in the fourth year. Table 4.6 presents the distribution of translation courses taught over four years of study.

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[33] http://catalog.bilkent.edu.tr/current/course/c89303.html. Accessed December 2012.

Table 4.6. Comparison of translation courses in Bilkent's curricula

Semesters	Initial curriculum	1997 revision	Present curriculum
1	Introduction to Translation	Introduction to Translation	Introduction to Translation
2	English-Turkish Translation French-Turkish Translation	English-French-Turkish Translation	English-French-Turkish Translation
3	Specialized English-Turkish-French Translation I	Specialized English-Turkish-French Translation I	Translation of Economic Texts (English-Turkish-French)
4	Specialized English-Turkish-French Translation II	Specialized English-Turkish-French Translation II	Translation of Political and Legal Texts (English-Turkish-French)
5	Specialized English-Turkish Translation III Specialized French-Turkish Translation III	Specialized English-Turkish Translation III Specialized French-Turkish Translation III	Technical Translation (English-Turkish) Technical Translation (French-Turkish)
6	Specialized English-Turkish Translation IV Specialized French-Turkish Translation IV English-French Translation Workshop I	Specialized English-Turkish Translation IV Specialized French-Turkish Translation IV	Literary Translation (English-Turkish) Literary Translation (French-Turkish)
7	Translation Workshop II	English-French Translation Workshop I Translation Workshop English-French-Turkish	English-French Translation Workshop I Translation Workshop for EU Texts and Documents I
8	Specialized Translation Project	English-French Translation Workshop II Specialized Translation Project	English-French Translation Workshop II Translation Workshop for EU Texts and Documents II
Electives			Audiovisual Media Translation

Introduction to Translation in the first semester and English-French-Turkish translation in the second semester are the first courses that acquaint students with translation practice. After these two introductory courses, students used to receive translation courses under names such as Specialized English-Turkish Translation I-IV, Specialized French-Turkish Translation I-IV, English-French Workshop I-II, and Specialized Translation Workshop. With the revision in 2009, the translation courses took domain-specific names: Translation of Economic Texts (English-Turkish-French), Translation of Politics and Legal Texts (English-Turkish-French), Technical Translation and Literary Translation. Furthermore, the Specialized Translation Project in the program was transformed into the Translation Workshop for EU Texts and Documentation in 2009-2010. The head of the department explained that the program has had a specific emphasis on Turkey's relations with the EU since its launch, although this is not stated

explicitly in the program description and mission statement. With the final revision, they intended to make this emphasis more visible in the curriculum. In addition, Audiovisual Media Translation is offered as an elective in the program.

The program at Bilkent University has never included any translation theory courses. The only courses that may be associated with translation theory are Translation Criticism, offered in the seventh semester since 1997, and Criticism and French Literature, offered in the sixth semester since 2002. Both courses are compulsory components of the program. In the interview, the program head emphasized insistently that the program has been offering practice-oriented training.

4.2.2. Hacettepe University

The Program in English in the Department of Translation and Interpreting at Hacettepe University opened in the academic year 1982-1983 and admitted its first students in the following academic year. The initial curriculum has been subject to two major revisions throughout the history of the department, first in 2002 and then in 2009, which produced the curriculum still used in the program in 2012. The department presently offers translator and interpreter training in three language combinations: English-Turkish, French-Turkish (since 1992) and German-Turkish (since 2007). The three programs have parallel curricula in the respective languages. Students of the three programs take together certain language-independent courses such as Contemporary Turkish Society, Information Technologies for Translators or Research Techniques. The department also has some programs to train translators with two foreign languages. Students that fulfill certain criteria may study in the dual diploma program with Strasbourg University, the double major program in two programs of the department and the diploma program in two languages, to be trained as translators working with two foreign languages offered in the department. For the purpose of this study, the regular Program in English Translation and Interpreting is taken into consideration, as the majority of students attend the regular program and as the English Program is one of the oldest translator-training programs launched in a higher education institution in Turkey. This section of the study presents a comparison of the initial curriculum of the Program in English Translation and Interpreting with the two major revisions made so far.

4.2.1.1. Language

In this program as well, there are two different types of components to develop the language-related skills of students. In the first group, there are courses that are designed to improve four language skills. All three curricula of the program involved courses targeted at reading, writing, listening and speaking skills in the B language, and in some cases in the A language. All these courses have been offered in the first two years of the program. Until the final curriculum revision in 2009, students did not receive any translation courses in the first year. Table 4.7 shows the courses designed to improve the A and B language skills of students in the first two years of study.

Table 4.7. Comparison of A and B language courses in Hacettepe's curricula

Semesters	Initial curriculum	2001 revision	2009 revision
1	English Writing Skill English Reading I	Professional Writing I English Speaking I	Turkish for Translators I Reading Skills Writing Skills English Speaking I
2	Turkish Writing Skill I English Speaking I	Professional Writing II English Speaking II	Turkish for Translators II English Speaking II
3	Turkish Writing Skill II English Speaking II		Listening Comprehension and Oral Expression
4	English Reading II Listening Comprehension	Listening Comprehension and Oral Expression	

As can be seen in Table 4.6, the number of courses that aim to develop language skills was reduced considerably in the 2001 revision. The courses to develop A language skills and reading skills in the B language were completely removed from the curriculum. Furthermore, the one-semester course on writing skills was replaced by the two-semester course on professional writing, the latter being a more specific course compared to the former. The 2009 revision has put more emphasis on language development compared to the previous one. The A language skills were again incorporated into the curriculum, with a more comprehensive scope, under the title Turkish for Translators. Reading was added again. Professional Writing was generalized back as Writing Skills. The B-language skills that received equal weight in all three curricula were speaking and listening.

In the second group, there are courses that are related to linguistics as a science. Even after declaring its independence as a field of study, Translation Studies has traditionally and naturally kept its links with linguistics. The link between the two

disciplines has also been reflected in translator training practices. Table 4.8 shows the linguistics-related courses offered in the Hacettepe program since its launch.

Table 4.8. Comparison of linguistic courses in Hacettepe's curricula

Semesters	Initial curriculum	2001 revision	2009 revision
1	Introduction to Linguistics I English Lexicology	Text Types I	Lexicology
2	Text Analysis Introduction to Linguistics II	Text Types II	
3	Structure of English	Discourse Analysis	Linguistics for Translators
4	Structure of Turkish		Discourse Analysis
5	Discourse Analysis English-Turkish Comparative Grammar		

Probably because of the stronger link between linguistics and Translation Studies, the initial curriculum designed in the early 1980s concentrated more on linguistics compared to the others. In 2001, the linguistics courses, save for Discourse Analysis, were eliminated from the curriculum, and more translation-related Text Types I and II were added. However, it is interesting that lexicology and linguistics, removed from the curriculum in 2001, were added back in 2009. In a personal communication, Dr. Ender Ateşman (November 2012), the deputy head of the department, explained that linguistics was added as a prerequisite for discourse analysis. Discourse Analysis is offered in the program because students are also trained as interpreters, and need basic knowledge on linguistics to comprehend discourse analysis.

4.2.1.2. Extra-linguistic knowledge

In this program as well there are two different types of components to enhance extra-linguistic knowledge of students. Table 4.9 provides an overview of cultural courses offered in the three curricula.

Table 4.9. Comparison of cultural courses in Hacettepe's curricula

Semesters	Initial curriculum	2001 revision	2009 revision
1	Western Culture and Civilization I		
2	Western Culture and Civilization II		Contemporary Turkish Society History of Civilization
3			History of British and American Culture
4			Contemporary British and American Society

The courses in this group are designed to improve knowledge of source and target cultures. The first curriculum involved a two-semester course on Western Culture and Civilization, where the aim was to provide information on the B-language culture. The revision in 2001 removed these courses and did not include any components devoted to the A or B language cultures. Apparently, the emphasis on culture augmented with the final revision in 2009. The present curriculum covers courses on the culture of both Turkey and the Anglo-American world, with a historical perspective.

Table 4.10 shows the second group of courses that are offered to improve the extra-linguistic knowledge of students.

Table 4.10. Comparison of field-specific courses in Hacettepe's curricula

Semesters	Initial curriculum	2001 revision	2009 revision
1		Current Issues I	Current Issues
2	General Economics	Current Issues II	
3	Language of Journalism Medical Terminology	Communication and Media Specialized Language Use I International Organizations	Contemporary Turkish Literature
4		Specialized Language Use II European Institutions and Organizations	
5	Contemporary Western Literature		
7		European Research and Community Law	European Research and Community Law
Electives			Popular Culture Medicine for Translators Law for Translators Science and Technology for Translators Literature for Translators Economics for translators

In the second group there are courses that aim to enhance knowledge of specific fields. The first curriculum of the program involved courses on economics, journalism, medicine and literature. With the revision in 2001, the focus of extra-linguistic knowledge shifted to the national and international agenda, and international institutions with specific emphasis on Europe and the EU. This was probably the result of the strengthening relationships with the EU in the early 2000s and a preparation for the translation of the Community legislation needed by the EU-funded projects of various public departments. In this curriculum, the Specialized Language Use courses were designed to provide

students with basic knowledge and terminology in fields such as law, economics, medicine and science and technology. The revision in 2009 offers specialized knowledge in a wider range of fields, mostly in the form of electives. In the present curriculum, all courses providing extra-linguistic knowledge, excluding Current Issues, literature and the EU Law, are offered as electives. Although there is no specialization at the undergraduate and even at the graduate level in Turkish translator-training institutions, such electives may allow students to concentrate more on a specific field in planning their future career. In the present curriculum, the emphasis on literature is more apparent (one obligatory course on Turkish Literature and Literature for Translators as an elective). The final curriculum furthermore involves domain-specific courses exclusively designed "for translators".

4.2.1.3. Technology

There was no technology-related component in the curriculum until the 2009 revision. In 2009, two obligatory courses were added to the curriculum: Information Technologies for Translators in the first semester, and Translation Tools in the fourth semester. Two more courses are offered as electives: Machine Translation and Localization.

4.2.1.4. Professional work procedures and ethics

The efforts in the department to bring training closer to the market are provided below in a more detailed way (section 8.1.2.3). The curriculum involves two components that are intended to develop students' professional skills. One of them is the work placement, as is the case at Bilkent University. The difference in the final curriculum, after the distinction between interpreting and translation in the final year of the study, is that students in the translation track of the program take Translation Practice, while those in the interpreting track take the Interpreting Practice. In the final year of their study, students are required to have internship in a private or public institution for a period of minimum 15 days and maximum three months, under the supervision of a trainer. After completing the training, they submit a file to the supervisor.

Professional Issues in Translation and Professional Issues in Interpreting, added to the program after the latest revision, are also designed to inform students about

professional work procedures and ethics. The syllabus[34] describes the course content as follows: modes of working in the translation profession (namely, freelancing, in-house translating, translating for the press, etc.); history of the translation profession; the translation market in Turkey and in the world; legislation concerning the translation profession (National Occupational Standard for Translators, Declaration of Translators); freelancing; TS EN 15038 Standard for Translation Service Providers; bidding for, contracting and invoicing a translation commission; limited and unlimited companies; book translation and publishing; copyright and translation; professional ethics and national and international translator associations. The program administrator mentioned that professionals and employers are frequently invited to this course to exchange information with students.

4.2.1.5. Translation practice and theory

The translation program at Hacettepe University offers two types of courses that are supposed to develop translation skills. These are the translation practice and translation theory courses. An overview of these courses in the three compared curricula is provided in Table 4.11.

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[34] The syllabus is available in Turkish at
http://www.atesman.info/files/MTB%20302%20Meslek%20Bilgisi.pdf. Accessed May 2013.

Table 4.11. Comparison of translation courses in Hacettepe's curricula

Semesters	Initial curriculum	2001 revision	2009 revision
1			
2			Introduction to Translation
3	Introduction to Translation		Translation
4	Translation of Scientific and Technical Texts Medical Translation	Introduction to Translation	
5	Translation of Social Science Texts	Translation of Journalism and Media Introduction to Technical Translation	Medical Translation Translation Theory
6	Literary Translation I Translation Theory	General Translation Translation Theory	Translation of Journalism Translation of Scientific and Technical Texts Literary Translation
7	Translation of Legal and Economic Texts Literary Translation II	Specialized Translation I	Visual and Film Translation Legal Translation
8	Translation Criticism Specialized Translation Translation Project	Specialized Translation II Translation Criticism	Translation of Economics Translation of EU Texts Translation Criticism
Electives			Translation of Popular Literature Women Studies and Translation Translation of Humor Translation of Children's Literature

To begin with theory, the program has always offered a course on translation theory and another one on translation criticism, with the same names throughout its history. For the department head's explanation about the rationale behind teaching theory, see section 8.1.2.2.

The translation practice started in the third semester in the first curriculum, in the fourth semester after the revision in 2001, and in the second semester after the revision in 2009. The first curriculum offered almost all translation courses with specified titles such as Translation of Scientific and Technical Texts, Medical Translation or Literary Translation. Literary translation was dealt with for two semesters. With the 2001 revision, translation courses with generic titles such as General Translation and Specialized Translation were added, and the content of these courses was specified in course descriptions. The number and the proportion of practical translation courses in the curriculum declined. However, there has been a tendency towards specialization in the latest revision. The translation courses have been diversified, each with a specified name

and content such as translation of journalism, economics, legal texts, scientific texts and so on. Furthermore, electives were added on popular themes in Translation Studies such as the translation of popular literature, children's literature and humor. Thus, with the latest revision of the curriculum, there has been greater emphasis on translation practice and diversification, without any change in the weight of translation theory.

4.3. Summary: What has changed? What has not changed?

Much has changed and much has remained the same since the start of university translator training in Turkey about thirty years ago. We see that the translation programs, which constitute the case studies in this research, seek to achieve the same goal, which is training translators with good language skills and translation skills in various fields:

> The aim behind the establishment of the Department of Translation and Interpretation is *to educate qualified translators and interpreters who can translate and interpret from/to English/Turkish or French/Turkish in various areas such as medicine, social sciences, international relations, law, economics and literature* within a scientific framework. (Hacettepe University, italics added)[35]

> The objective of the degree program in Translation and Interpretation (4-year) is *to train people to translate and interpret in Turkish, English, and French*. The curriculum aims to develop both oral and written translation skills *by focusing on current issues, national and international politics, legal issues, economic issues, literature, and technical issues* (such as those dealing with medicine and information technology). (Bilkent University, italics added)[36]

> Improving *language skills* (particularly foreign language skills) has been one of the main concerns of translator-training programs since their establishment. This is probably related to foreign-language teaching problems in secondary and primary education.[37] The

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[35] http://www.mtb.hacettepe.edu.tr/genel_en.php. Accessed May 2013.
[36] http://www.bilkent.edu.tr/~sal/trin/index.html. Accessed May 2013.
[37] These problems stem from either general problems in the Turkish education system such as failure in teacher training, large class sizes, lack of cooperation among relevant institutions and wrong educational policies (Demir 2005: 128-129), or problems specific to foreign-language teaching such as insufficient course hours, ambiguity of course objectives, limited use of audio-visual equipment and modern

administrators of programs have also stated that students are not well prepared in terms of language skills when they enter the program. Thus, the weight of courses designed to improve language skills has not changed significantly after the revisions. One of the language-related updates is the addition of Turkish language courses for translators into the curriculum of Hacettepe. This is significant in that, in Turkey and probably elsewhere, translator-training programs have commonly underestimated first language proficiency in their attempts to boost students' language skills. While *bilingual* competence is considered the basis of translation, "[e]nhancement of the mother tongue is just as important as, if not more than, that of the foreign language" (Li 2001b: 349), with courses particularly designed for translators.

In the interview, the head of the Bilkent program mentioned that they mostly preferred academics rather than professionals to teach translation, as the former are more aware about the language needs of students. In brief, mainly due to foreign-language teaching problems in primary and secondary education, developing the language skills of students is still one of the major goals of translator training.

The Hacettepe program had courses on linguistics in the first curriculum but removed the majority of these courses in the 2001 revision. This may be explained by the universal tendency to detach Translation Studies from Linguistics and to ignore the role of linguistics in Translation Studies. Yet, the latest revision, re-adds lexicology and linguistics courses.

With regard to *extra-linguistic knowledge*, in the recent programs we observe greater emphasis on target cultures and diversification of the themes offered. The Hacettepe program, having removed courses on culture in the 2001 revision, included courses on both target and source cultures in the 2009 revision. The Bilkent program has offered courses on target cultures since its establishment. As for field-specific knowledge, both programs offer courses on literature as obligatory components. The weight of literature has not changed over time. Hacettepe further includes a course on European Research and Community Law. However, International Institutions and Organizations and European Institutions and Organizations in the previous curricula were left out of the program in the latest revision. Other field-specific courses are offered as electives. Going over the curricula, we note that both programs include field-specific courses, independent

language-teaching methods, lack of full-fledged language classrooms in most schools and the unattractiveness of textbooks (Aküzel 2006: 58, 125-127).

of translation, mostly in the form of electives. In the previous program at Hacettepe, the number of field-specific courses was very low, which leads us to think that related knowledge was provided in specialized translation courses. At Bilkent, there has traditionally been a greater focus on economics and finance, probably because the department was in the School of Applied Languages until 2013-2014 academic year, where the other two programs were Banking and Finance, and Accounting.

The third area, *technology*, has been a recent component of training programs. Bilkent has offered general Computer Literacy since the launch of the program, and is now offering Technology for Translators as an elective. With the latest change, Hacettepe has added two obligatory courses on translation technologies and two electives on localization and machine translation.

Work placement has still been the most important curriculum component for familiarizing translation students with *professional work procedures and ethics*.

In order to develop *translation skills*, translation courses have been diversified in the latest revisions. Certain courses such as literary translation, translation for the EU, legal translation and translation of economic texts are offered as obligatory components of both programs. The weight of theory component has not changed over time in the programs: the Hacettepe program, believing that translator training cannot be without translation theory, has always involved a course on theory; the Bilkent program, believing that translators do not need theory to be employed in the market, has never offered a course on theory.

Concisely, the incorporation of translation technology, specialization in translation courses or diversification of translation courses (the transition from Specialized Translation to translation courses dedicated to each specific field) and diversification of electives (specifically designed for prospective translators) have been the most notable changes in the curricula of the programs. However, since the programs have not yet produced graduates that studied with the latest versions of the curricula, the graduate surveys and interviews in Chapters 6 and 7 necessarily provide data on the previous curricula.

Chapter 5. Methodology

This part provides information about the procedures followed to carry out the study. The method used in this study is a descriptive one based on survey and interview methods. Gathering both qualitative and quantitative data, I have adopted a mixed-method approach to seek answers to the research questions. The study design has three separate but related stages: the survey of graduates, the interviews with graduates, and the interviews with other stakeholders.

5.1. Survey of graduates

This part explains the population and sample, the data-collecting instrument, and the data-collecting and data analysis procedures, related to the first stage of the study, i.e. a survey designed to find out what the graduates of undergraduate translator-training programs say about how academic training prepared them for professional work on the translation market.

5.1.1. The population and respondents

The population of this study comprises all persons holding a four-year undergraduate degree in Translation and Interpreting from universities in Turkey. The population has been growing each year with new graduates, and the number of members added each year has been increasing due to the opening of new programs and enhanced quotas. For instance, according to the 2000 ÖSYS (Student Selection and Placement System) Guidebook of Higher Education Programs, six programs offering English-Turkish translation and interpreting education admitted about 200 students. By 2012, the number of programs had increased to 19, and the total number of new students that entered the programs in 2012 had increased to 658. The total quota for undergraduate translation programs in all languages was 1428 in 2012. Scanning the ÖSYS Guidebook of Higher Education Programs for the various years, we obtain a total number of about 7500 places offered in undergraduate translator-training programs in Turkey between 1982 (the year when university translator training started in Turkey) and 2012. According to 2004 OECD

data, the completion rate for tertiary education at undergraduate level is 88% in Turkey.[38] The OECD data show that university dropout rates are not very high in Turkey. Thus, the vast majority of incoming students complete their education. Considering the OECD data, it may be assumed that about 10% of these students leave their education incomplete, which provides us with a theoretical population of about 6,750 graduates for the period of three decades.

Given this relatively large population, I needed an accessible sample. I restricted the study to the graduates of two translator-training programs in Ankara: Hacettepe University and Bilkent University. These cases represent the two types of universities in Turkey, i.e. state and foundation universities. Hacettepe University, which has been training translators since 1982, was the first state university to establish a department of translation and interpreting, and Bilkent was the first foundation university to establish a department of translation and interpreting, in 1993 (Eruz 2003). The graduates of the programs at these universities are assumed to be employed both in the large private-sector translation market of Ankara and in many public institutions that are concentrated in Ankara, the capital of Turkey. The survey was sent to professionals holding an undergraduate degree from these universities because undergraduate translation and interpreting programs have been the main workforce providers in the Turkish context. The year of graduation was not taken into consideration when distributing the survey link. The total number of graduates from the two programs, i.e. the number of people in the accessible population, was about 1800 as of 2010 (the year when the survey was carried out).

5.1.2. Data-collecting instrument

The initial data-collecting instrument was an online questionnaire.[39] A total of 21 questions, some looking for demographic data, were constructed using a default template. The online template provided the opportunity to use a matrix of choices and rating scales, in addition to multiple-choice questions, open-ended questions, and text boxes for further comments. The language of the survey was English. The survey questions are available in Appendix 1.

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[38] See State Planning Organization 9th Development Plan (2007-2013) The Report of Ad Hoc Committee on Higher Education.
[39] The questionnaire was posted at http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/YHWKQ2H.

The survey form first asks for demographic data, including sex, age, and educational background. The subsequent questions seek to find out 1) the main roles of graduates (e.g. translator, interpreter, trainer, researcher, etc.) and if they do not work in the translation, interpreting and localization sectors, the reasons for this, 2) professional data, including years of experience in translation, interpreting or localization, specialization areas in translation, and any activities carried out to improve translation skills, 3) whether graduates believe that all professional translators should have a degree in translation or if translation is best learned on the job, 4) how frequently the given course components were dealt with in their training program, 5) how graduates rate the importance of course components with regard to their professional work, 6) their perceptions of how well their academic training prepared them for professional work, and 7) their perceptions of the frequency and forms of interaction between academic training and the translation market. For the last item, the ready-made list of the forms of interaction offered to the respondents was adapted from Kemble (2006).

A ready-made list of course components is used in this survey to see what has been included in translator-training programs and how important those components are in professional life, from the perspective of graduates. This list involves communication skills in the A language, communication skills in the B language, discourse analysis and pragmatics, intercultural communication/cultural issues, linguistics, professional work procedures and professional ethics, research techniques, specific field knowledge, terminology management, text analysis, translation criticism, translation history, translation practice, translation technology, and translation theory. The list does not claim to be exhaustive, but was obtained after an overview of the curricular components of undergraduate programs in translation and interpreting programs in Turkey. Although competences and competence-based training have been emphasized throughout the study, the survey includes a list of courses rather than competences so as to be clearer to respondents. Respondents are probably not familiar with the translation competence models and definitions suggested in Translation Studies. Thus, I used curriculum components to find out graduates' perceptions about the frequency and importance of what is taught in their training program.

5.1.3. Data-collecting procedure

The survey was available online from September to November 2010. Probability sampling, which requires that "each case in the population hav[e] an equal chance of being selected" (David and Sutton 2004: 150), was not possible since universities do not provide lists of graduates and their contact information. Thus, the following sources of information were used to contact the graduates:

1. Dr. Aymil Doğan and Research Assistant Alper Kumcu from the Department of Translation and Interpreting of Hacettepe University have been working to create a database of graduates of the department. They provided the e-mail addresses of the graduates whom they had already contacted. The list obtained from them included the contact information of about 150 graduates.

2. The Alumni Center of Bilkent University distributed the link of the survey to the graduates whose e-mail addresses were available. Further, the contact information of about 50 graduates was accessible from the database of the Alumni Center.[40]

3. Social Media: The link was posted on the walls of related alumni groups at facebook.com.

4. Snowballing: In snowballing, a nonprobability sampling technique, the researcher locates some members of the population, and then asks these members to locate other members of the population (Babbie 2004: 184). With this approach, the graduates who I contacted personally were asked to send the links to other graduates with whom they were in touch.

A total of 134 respondents filled out the questionnaire; however, nine respondents were excluded from the study, some because they did not reply to one or more of the questions that require an answer, and others because they were the graduates of other universities, who somehow filled out the questionnaire. This study thus comments on the answers of 125 subjects. The number of respondents that completed the whole survey is 89. The respondents were not required to answer every question because not all graduates work as translators currently. Given that the target population consisted of about 1800

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[40] The database is available at https://stars.bilkent.edu.tr/alumni/index.php?do=login.

members (the total number of the graduates of translator-training programs at Bilkent and Hacettepe universities), I was able to reach 6.9% of the population. It is not possible to estimate the response rate since it is not possible to know how many people the link reached through social media and snowballing.

5.1.4. Data analysis procedure

A plethora of data collected through the survey was organized and filtered for analysis purposes. The analysis of data collected through the survey was carried out in two stages:

The first part of the analysis uses descriptive statistics. Frequency tables are used to provide a general overview of responses to each question, and the rates of items listed in the questions regarding the frequency and importance of course components, and forms and frequency of interaction between training and the market.

Mainly two, in some cases three variables are taken into consideration for further analysis of data: university, graduation year, and sex. In order to compare the two universities and two groups of sexes, first the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to see if each group follows a normal distribution. As none of the relevant set of data showed normal distribution, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare two independent samples. The Mann-Whitney U test, which is a nonparametric alternative to the t-test, returns a value that allows us to determine whether the difference between the two groups is significant. As the variable of graduation year consists of three groups, the Kruskal-Wallis test, also a nonparametric test, was used to compare three independent sample groups. In both tests, the level of significance is defined as 0.05, as is customary in many studies in the social sciences (Levin, Fox and Forde 2010: 227). Thus, statistically significant levels are reported for p values less than or equal to 0.05 (i.e. $p \leq .05$). SPSS 18 was used to conduct these analyses.

The university variable may be of particular importance for this study. Any significant difference in responses between the two universities may derive from the fact that Hacettepe is a state university and Bilkent is a foundation university. The main difference between two types of universities is their financing. State universities (Hacettepe is one of the oldest state universities in Turkey) are mainly financed by the state and are expected to focus more on reflectiveness and awareness, as defined by Bernardini (2004: 20), in such a way that they are not governed by commercial purposes and that they have no great concern to attract students. On the other hand, foundation

universities partially need student fees to subsist, and are thus required to attract students to the university through more flexible study programs, job assurance, closer market interaction and so on. Therefore, the latter may be expected to have more market-oriented curricula with less concern for theoretical components.

Graduation year may be another variable that affected graduates' perceptions. The graduates were divided into three groups of five-year periods in order to follow any changes on perceptions over years. Turkey became a part of the EHEA in 2001. The Bologna process has not only resulted in structural changes in programs but is also expected to lead to curricular progress in line with its principles on

> the promotion of European co-operation in quality assurance with a view to developing comparable criteria and methodologies, and promotion of the necessary European dimensions in higher education, particularly with regards to curricular development, inter-institutional co-operation, mobility schemes and integrated programs of study, training and research. (Bologna Declaration 1999)

In this respect, I divided the respondents into three groups by their graduation year, assuming that the Bologna-related curricular modifications as well as recent developments in translator training may have brought training closer to the market. Accordingly, the first group consists of the respondents that graduated between 1996 and 2000, the second group between 2001 and 2005, and the last group between 2006 and 2010. It is expected that the more recent the degree, the closer it is to market needs.

5.2. Interviews with graduates

This section provides information about the in-depth interviews carried out with the graduates of the translator-training programs.

5.2.1. Data-collecting instrument

The data-collecting instrument was a semi-structured interview protocol that was constructed to gain deeper insight into the link between training and the market from the perspective of graduates, who are now actors on the market. A semi-structured interview, with loosely constructed questions, allows interviewees a certain level of freedom to talk

about what is interesting and important for them (Hesse-Biber and Leavy 2011: 128). Thus, while finding an answer to some specific questions, a researcher may also obtain some unexpected information that is relevant to the study. The interview consisted of four parts: 1) background information about the interviewee, 2) information about current work of the interviewee, 3) the interviewee's perceptions of translation as a profession, with reference to training, and 4) the interviewee's perceptions about the link between translator training and professional experience. The interview protocol is available in Appendix 4.

5.2.2. The interviewees

In the survey forms, 60 of the 125 respondents agreed to be interviewed and provided their contact information. I categorized these respondents according to their main role, i.e. in-house translators (those working as a translator in an institution or a translation company), freelance translators, and language teachers; I left out those whose main role is another profession, since the focus of the study is mainly on translator training provided in translation and interpreting programs. Language teachers were also interviewed, as they constitute about 25% of the respondents, which is a figure worthy of note, given that students are trained as translators and interpreters in the university programs involved in this study. I further categorized the respondents according to the university they graduated from. I finally obtained the numbers of interviewees indicated in Table 5.1, where two Hacettepe graduates mentioned both in-house translation and freelancing as their main role, and thus are included in both groups.

Table 5.1. Survey respondents eligible for interviewing

University Profession (main activity)	Hacettepe	Bilkent
In-house translator	22 respondents	4 respondents
Freelancer	10 respondents	2 respondents
Language teacher	6 respondents	2 respondents

In this study, maximum variation sampling, which is a type of purposive or purposeful sampling, was used to select the interviewees from above list of participants in order to acquire "(1) high-quality, detailed descriptions of each case, which are useful for documenting uniqueness, and (2) important shared patterns that cut across cases and derive their significance from having emerged out of heterogeneity" (Patton 2002: 235).

As a ready-made list of graduates that would allow equal representation was not available, I used purposive sampling, which is a type of non-probability sampling, in this qualitative part of the study. In qualitative research, purposive sampling allows researchers to select the most information-rich cases among potential interviewees. In purposive sampling, "the units are selected according to the researcher's own knowledge and opinion about which one they think will be appropriate to the topic are" (David and Sutton 2004: 152). Among an array of purposive sampling choices, maximum variation sampling best suits the study. In this study, maximum variation sampling, also known as heterogeneity sampling, enabled the representation of the three main roles defined by the graduates of translator-training programs and also the representation of the two universities from which the respondents were selected. The starting point in maximum variation sampling is "identifying diverse characteristics or criteria for constructing the sample" (Patton 2002: 235). My initial criteria are the main professional activities of the respondents and the institution they graduated from, as illustrated in Table 5.1. However, in order to select specific cases from each slot on the table, I had to identify further criteria, a process that integrated a sort of criteria sampling into this study. In order to gain maximum variation, I selected the most recent graduate and the least recent graduate from each box. According to Patton (2002: 244), there are no rules for sample size in qualitative research; the size depends on the purpose and requirements of the study as well as available time and resources. For the purpose of this study, twelve cases that represent the above-explained slots in Table 5.1 were selected to obtain in-depth and first-hand information about the conclusions derived from the quantitative phase of the study.

5.2.3. Data-collecting procedure

In some cases, there was more than one respondent fulfilling the above criteria. I sent an e-mail explaining the study and request to sixteen respondents on February 28, 2012. The letter sent to potential interviewees is available in Appendix 3. Only three addressees returned to the first e-mail, fortunately each from a different box on Table 5.1. Two weeks later, I sent a reminder e-mail to those that had not replied, and obtained three more interviewees. Finally, I phoned or sent personal e-mails to the remaining potential interviewees and provided them with more details about the study aims and the interview process. As a result of this process, I had one more interviewee. Then through personal

contacts or social media platforms such as LinkedIn, I found five more interviewees, who met exactly the requirements (in terms of main role, university of graduation and year of graduation) prescribed according to Table 5.1.

All interview data were collected online through both synchronous and asynchronous tools. O'Connor, Madge, Shaw, and Wellens (2008: 272) note that online research methods, including online interviews, have increasingly been used in social research for the purpose of data collecting. Internet-based interviewing offers two modes of data gathering, i.e. synchronous tools (using instant messaging or Internet telephone services) and asynchronous tools (using e-mail and discussion-board software) (O'Connor, Madge, Shaw, and Wellens 2008: 284). Both modes of interviewing were used in the present study. One of the synchronous interview tools was Skype. I conducted five interviews through Skype and recorded the interview with iFree Skype Recorder, a free tool for recording Skype calls. The other interviewees that did not agree to be interviewed through Skype replied to the questions through Google Talk (synchronous interview in written form – two interviewees) or e-mail correspondence (asynchronous interview – five interviewees). Particularly in the e-mail interviews, I went back to the participants once or more in order to clarify any vague points or obtain additional information. The names of the interviewees are not provided in this research report. They are numbered from one to twelve.

5.2.4. Data analysis procedure

The synchronous chat interviews and asynchronous e-mail interviews were in written form and in English. I transcribed the Skype interviews, three of which were in Turkish and two of which were in English. The interviewees were free to choose language of the interview. The transcribed Skype interviews were translated into English by myself.

For the purpose of the analysis, the textual data were divided into thematic segments in consideration of the main focuses of this study, as also discussed in the Literature Review and in the results of the preceding survey. In qualitative research, the themes are developed in three ways, which are theory driven, prior research driven and data driven (Boyatzis 1998: 29). In the present case, the themes were extracted from the raw data collected from the interviewees, i.e. they were data-driven. In this regard, two main issues are discussed with the interview data: 1) the connection between what is and what should be taught in translator-training programs (with particular emphasis on theory

and practice, technology, professional issues, language and culture), and 2) the forms and benefits of interaction between training and the market.

5.3. Interviews with other stakeholders

Graduates of translator-training programs were selected as the main target group of this study as they are involved in both training and the market (excluding the ones that are not employed in the translation sector). However, in order to evaluate the link between translator training and the market from the perspectives of other stakeholders and to discuss the graduates' responses with other relevant parties, I conducted further interviews. The interviewees in this stage were the administrators of the two translator-training programs, a translation company owner (i.e. employer of translators), and one of the founding members of the Turkish Union of Translation Students.

5.3.1. Administrators of translator-training programs

I interviewed the administrators of the two translator-training programs that constitute the case studies in this research, since they play a significant role in decision-making processes concerning the functioning of the program and curriculum design. I personally contacted the program heads, and made an interview request after explaining the purpose of this study. After arranging the dates of face-to-face interviews with the program heads, I sent them the interview protocol by e-mail.

The interview protocol for administrators consisted of four parts. The first part seeks background information related to education, translator-training experience, and professional translation experience. The second part is about the curriculum. The administrators were asked about the inception and process of curriculum revisions made so far. The questions in the third part are mostly based on the results of surveys and interviews with graduates. The four sections in this part are theory and practice, teaching translation, teaching technology, and teaching the profession. The administrators were asked these questions since they are also teaching in the program. The final part is concerned with the interaction between the program and the translation market.

The administrators were interviewed face-to-face in Ankara, one of them in October and the other in November 2012. The interviews were conducted in Turkish and were

audio-recorded, then transcribed and translated into English. As was the case in the interviews with the graduates, the interview data were categorized into thematic segments according to main considerations of the study. The segments used to examine the interview data are as follows: curriculum issues, teaching translation and interaction with the market. In a separate part, the results are presented with a comparative and integrated approach.

5.3.2. An employer

One translation company owner was interviewed about the recruitment of translators and interaction with training settings. I personally contacted the company owner and explained the purpose of study before arranging an appointment for the interview. The interview was conducted face-to-face in the office of the company in Ankara with the participation of the owner as well as two project managers.

The company owner was selected to represent employers of translators in line with purposive sampling, which "can be useful for situations where you need to reach a targeted sample quickly and where sampling for proportionality is not the primary concern" (Trochim 2006). In this case, a company with "known or demonstrable experience and expertise" in the translation market was chosen to discuss what graduates and administrators had said in previous interviews.

The protocol for employers consisted of four parts (Appendix 6). The first part was about educational background and professional experience, followed by a second part about the recruitment of translators. The employer was asked about the importance of a degree in translation, criteria and testing in recruiting translators. The third and fourth parts are respectively about perceptions of and expectations from translator training, and viewpoints on interaction with training institutions.

The interview was conducted in Turkish and was audio-recorded, transcribed and translated into English by myself. The recurring themes were again categorized in view of the focus of this study. The themes highlighted in this section were market expectations and translator qualifications, and interaction with training programs.

5.3.3. A founding member of the TÜÇEB

I finally interviewed through Skype Gökhan Fırat, one of the founders of the Turkish Union of Translation Students, who is now an actor on the market. He no longer represents translation students (since he graduated in 2011). Nevertheless, he provided us with information on training practices from the viewpoints of students as he was actively interested in training and market procedures during his study and still takes an active part in the activities of the TÜÇEB. The protocol of the interview with him is available in Appendix 7. The interview was in Turkish and was then translated into English to be interpreted.

5.4. Summary of the procedures followed

The three stages of the study may be outlined as follows:

Stage 1 involved an online questionnaire completed by the graduates of two translator-training programs:

− In the first place, data were collected from the graduates of translator-training programs, as they mostly have experience in both parties of this study (i.e. training and the market). Undergraduate translator-training programs were selected since they are the main workforce providers for the market.

− The graduates of two universities were selected, which are believed to have the capacity to represent the population. These were one state and one foundation university, both the oldest in each category.

− A questionnaire survey that has two main focuses was designed: 1) defining the curricular components that are useful and not useful in preparing trainees for professional life, and 2) defining the degree and forms of interaction between training institutions and the market.

− The departments of translation and interpreting in both universities were contacted to obtain the contact information of their graduates. As the departments were not able to provide complete lists of graduates, it was not possible to employ probability sampling to select the respondents.

– The link of the online survey was distributed through various methods, including personal contacts, social media and snowballing. The survey data were collected between September and November 2010.

– The data collected through surveys were tallied and tabulated.

– The data were analyzed using frequency tables, the Mann-Whitney U Test and the Kruskal-Wallis Test. The Mann-Whitney U Test, a nonparametric test, was used mainly to see whether there is a significant difference in perceptions by graduates according to university of graduation, and in some cases, by sex. The Kruskal-Wallis test, also a nonparametric test, was used to compare the perceptions of graduates by their graduation year, which was divided into five-year periods for the purpose of this study.

Stage 2 consisted of a set of interviews with graduates:

– Subsequently, in-depth interviews were conducted with twelve graduates between March and August 2012. The graduates selected for the interviews represented the three main professional activities of translation graduates, i.e. in-house translators, freelance translators, and language teachers.

– The interviewees were selected using maximum variation and criteria sampling, which are both purposive sampling methods.

– The interview protocol was designed in consideration of the survey results.

– Online interviews were conducted either synchronously or asynchronously.

– The interview data were recorded and transcribed, and translated into English where required.

– The interview data were divided into themes, according to common points mentioned by the interviewees and the main topics dealt with in this study.

Stage 3 consisted of interviews with other stakeholders in translator training:

– The administrators of the two translator-training programs, one translation company owner (i.e. an employer), and one of the founding members of the Turkish Union of Translation Students were interviewed.

– The semi-structured interviews consisted of questions concentrating on the main themes dealt with in this study. The interview data were recorded and transcribed, and translated into English where required.

- The data were then categorized into themes so that conclusions could be drawn in line with the research questions.

- The data were then categorized into themes so that conclusions could be drawn in line with the research questions.

Chapter 6. Questionnaire Survey of Graduates

This part of the study provides the results of the survey of graduates from the translation and interpreting programs at Hacettepe and Bilkent universities in Ankara, Turkey.

6.1. Profile of the respondents

Tables 6.1 and 6.2 present data on the sex and age of the respondents.

Table 6.1. Distribution of the respondents by sex

Sex	Number	Rate (%)
Women	105	84
Men	20	16
Total	125	100

A total of 125 respondents completed the survey. The number of women respondents (105, corresponding to 84% of the total respondents) outweighs the number of men respondents (20, or 16%).

Table 6.2. Distribution of the respondents by age

Age	Number	Rate (%)
20 to 30	98	78.4
31 to 40	27	21.6
41 to 50	0	0.0
Total	125	100

The survey yields the following results with regard to the age ranges of the respondents: 98 respondents (78.4%) are 21 to 30 years old, and the remaining 27 respondents (21.6%) are 31 to 40 years old.

Table 6.3 and Table 6.4 show from which university and in which year the graduates received their undergraduate degree in translation and interpreting. These data are of particular importance because university and graduation year have been taken as key variables in this research.

Table 6.3. Distribution of the respondents by university

Undergraduate degree received from	Number	Rate (%)
Hacettepe	89	71.2
Bilkent	36	28.8
Total	125	100

The graduation information shows that 89 respondents (71.2%) graduated from Hacettepe University and 36 respondents (28.8%) graduated from Bilkent University.

Table 6.4. Distribution of the respondents by graduation year

Undergraduate degree received in	Number	Rate (%)
1996 – 2000	14	11.2
2001 – 2005	39	31.2
2006 – 2010	72	57.6
Total	125	100

The respondents were divided into periods of five years by their graduation year. In the group, 72 respondents (57.6%) graduated between 2006 and 2010, 39 respondents (31.2%) between 1996 and 2005, and 14 respondents (11.2%) between 1996 and 2000. This group of respondents is expected to provide us with information on translator training extending over twenty years, considering that those graduated in 1996 started their training in the early 1990s. Five-year periods are used instead of the periods corresponding to the curriculum reform because the reforms were in different years in the two institutions and extended over years in the case of the Bilkent program. The most significant revisions in both institutions were made in 2009, and have not produced their graduates yet when this study was carried out. [41]

Table 6.5 provides the breakdown of the respondents by certain variables taken into consideration in data analysis.

Table 6.5. Breakdown of the respondents by variables (in numbers)

	Bilkent		Hacettepe		Total
Graduation year	W	M	W	M	
1996 – 2000	3	-	9	2	14
2001 – 2005	17	5	16	1	39
2006 – 2010	9	2	51	10	72
Total	29	7	76	13	125

[41] In a previous stage of this research, I considered hypothetically taking the Bologna-related reforms into account to divide the respondents by graduation year. Turkey became a part of the EHEA in 2001. The Bologna process has not only resulted in structural changes in programs but is also expected to lead to curricular progress in line with its principles. I divided the respondents into two groups by their graduation year, assuming that the Bologna-related curricular modifications may have caused changes in course components. Accordingly, the first group would consist of the respondents that graduated between 1996 and 2005, and the second group between 2006 and 2010. It was expected that the more recent the degree, the closer it is to market needs. However, the curriculum analysis of the two programs showed that the major revisions were made in 2009, not right after Turkey became a part of the Bologna process. That is why final stage of the study is based on five-year periods of graduation.

6.2. Professional profile of the respondents

The survey first aimed to define the main professional activities of graduates. The respondents were asked to choose their 1st role, and 2nd and 3rd roles where possible, from a ready-made list of professions (including translator, interpreter, editor, localization specialist, translation project manager, translator and/or interpreter trainer, translation and/or interpreting researcher and language teacher). The responses are shown in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6. Main professional activities of the respondents*

Professional activities	First	Second	Third	Response count
Translator:				
- In-house translator	82.6% (38)	15.2% (7)	2.2% (1)	46
- Translator in a translation company	61.5% (8)	30.8% (4)	7.7% (1)	13
- Freelancer	38.6% (27)	48.6% (34)	12.9% (9)	70
Interpreter	61.2% (30)	28.6% (14)	10.2% (5)	49
Language teacher	85.3% (29)	8.8% (3)	5.9% (2)	34
Editor	26.7% (4)	40.0% (6)	33.3% (5)	15
Translation and/or interpreting researcher	72.7% (8)	27.3% (3)	0.0% (0)	11
Translation project manager	20.0% (2)	40.0% (4)	40.0% (4)	10
Translator and/or interpreter trainer	57.1% (4)	14.3% (1)	28.6% (2)	7
Localization specialist	33.3% (2)	50.0% (3)	16.7% (1)	6

* as percentages of respondents in each activity

Table 6.6 provides a breakdown of the professional activities of respondents. However, the table may look different from the data interpreted below as the respondents were allowed to select more than one option as their first, second or third role. For instance, respondents could mention both language teaching and freelancing as their first role, or both interpreting and editing as their second role. Over half the respondents defined their first role as translator (71 translators), i.e. in-house translator, translator in a translation company, or freelancer. Thirty-nine respondents (31.2%) mentioned translation as their second or third role. Eight respondents (6.4%) defined their first role only as interpreting, and 21 respondents (16.8%) gave equal weight to translation and interpreting as the main role. Only nine translators (7.2%) are employed in a translation company. Given the large number of translation companies in Turkey and the increasing need for professionals in these companies, it is remarkable that less than 10% of the graduates among the respondents are employed as full-time translators for a translation company.

In addition, 34 graduates in the respondent group work as language teachers, which corresponds to 27.2% of the total graduates surveyed. Of the total respondents, 23% mentioned that language teaching was their first role. Seventeen respondents (13.6%) defined another profession as their main role, including editor, translator and interpreter trainer and researcher, marketing director or administrative assistant.

Table 6.6 shows that about half the respondents defined freelancing as their first or second role (61 graduates). Yet it is notable that freelancing appears as a second role rather than the first (48.6%). About 10% of the graduates mentioned freelancing as their main role, together with in-house translating, language teaching, interpreting or research. These rates are important given the fact that over half of the surveyed graduates earn money from freelance translating, regardless of whether their main profession is translation or not.

Tables 6.7 and 6.8 show the distribution of freelancing[42] across the two universities and the old and recent graduates, without regard to whether they mentioned it as the first, second or third role.

Table 6.7. Distribution of freelancers by university*

Freelancers graduated from	Number	Rate (%)
Hacettepe	49	55.05
Bilkent	21	58.33

* as percentage of the total number of respondents from the respective university

The rates of freelancing among the graduates of Hacettepe and Bilkent are very close to each other. Of the 89 graduates from Hacettepe, 55% are engaged in freelancing, and of 36 graduates from Bilkent, 58% are freelancers.

Table 6.8. Distribution of freelancers by graduation year*

Freelancers graduated in	Number	Rate (%)
1996 – 2000	7	50
2001 – 2005	19	48.71
2006 – 2010	44	61.11

* as percentage of the total number of respondents falling under the respective category of graduation year

With respect to graduation year, the rate of freelancers among the recent graduates (61%) is higher compared to the graduates in the earliest group (50%) and the mid-group

[42] Freelancing is defined, in this context, as the translation service that individuals provide for translation companies or individual clients in addition to or without a job on a regular salary basis.

(49%). The younger the graduates are, the more they tend to freelance. This would appear to be normal since freelancing is a way of entering the market. The details related to freelancing are discussed in section 6.7.1.2.

The graduates were also asked to state their reasons if they did not work in the translation, interpreting and localization sectors. The responses of 43 participants to this open-ended question fall into five categories: 1) work conditions (including mainly financial dissatisfaction, i.e. respondents believe that translators are underpaid, given factors such as heavy workload, irregularity of working hours, high stress and little respect for the profession), 2) preference for another job because they enjoy it more, 3) lack of job opportunities (two mentioned that it was hard to work as a translator in smaller cities, and others said they could not find work as a translator or interpreter), 4) graduate studies (some respondents are doing an MA or a PhD and find translating and interpreting too demanding to be combined with graduate studies) and 5) other reasons (i.e. no room to advance in their career, not feeling prepared for interpreting[43], translation is "boring", and the market is "challenging" because professionals without a translation degree are working for lower fees).

As for the years of experience, the results show that the majority of the respondents have been working in the translation sector for 1 to 5 years (72.4% of the 83 respondents that answered this question).

The distribution of their main areas of work, ranked as the 1st, 2nd and 3rd areas, is shown in Table 6.9.

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[43] Even though this research concerns only translation and the questions asked in the survey and in interviews covered only translation, I observed that the respondents and interviewees were inclined to answer many questions from the perspective of both translation and interpreting. This is probably because they received translation and interpreting courses together, and in many cases they are required to perform translation and interpreting together in professional life. However, as explained in section 1.1, there has been a tendency in the discipline to distinguish between translation and interpreting in terms of research, training and the profession.

Table 6.9. Main working areas of translators

Areas	Main	Secondary	Tertiary	Response count
Legal	39.5% (17)	41.9% (18)	18.6% (8)	43
Technical	50.0% (21)	38.1% (16)	11.9% (5)	42
Business	59.0% (23)	28.2% (11)	12.8% (5)	39
Academic	54.5% (18)	24.2% (8)	21.2% (7)	33
Medical	35.7% (10)	50.0% (14)	14.3% (4)	28
Marketing/advertising	31.8% (7)	31.8% (7)	36.4% (8)	22
Publishing	36.4% (8)	27.3% (6)	36.4% (8)	22
Immigration/public services	47.4% (9)	26.3% (5)	26.3% (5)	19
Literary	38.9% (7)	33.3% (6)	27.8% (5)	18
Tourism	35.3% (6)	29.4% (5)	35.3% (6)	17

Figure 6.1. Main working areas of translators
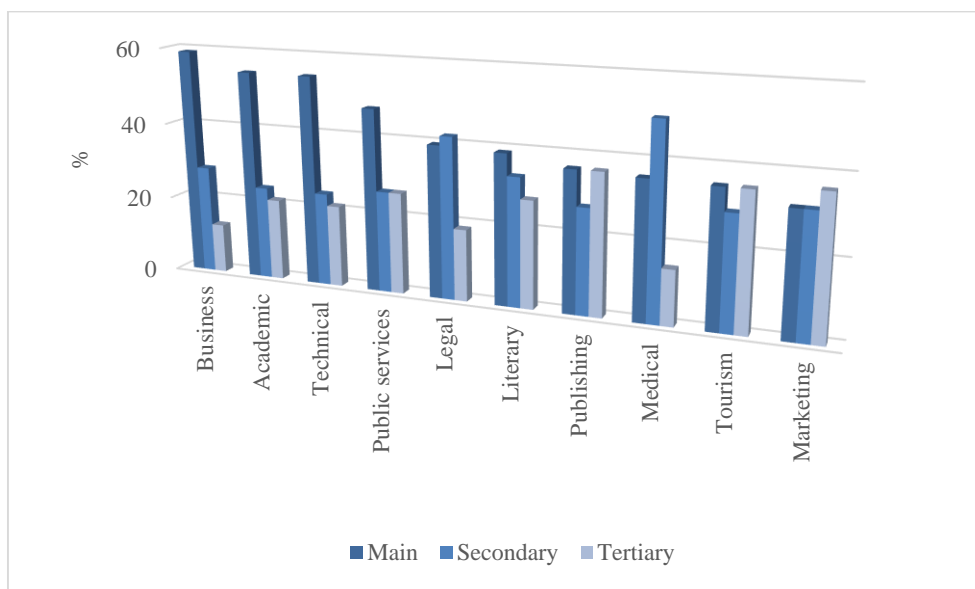
Eighty-two respondents answered this question. The replies show that almost half of the respondents mentioned legal and technical translation as their main, secondary, or tertiary working area. Further, 28% of the respondents mentioned business, 25.6% technical, 21.9% academic and 20.7% legal as their main area. In Katan's survey (2009b: 191), about 20% of the respondents (translators and interpreters) mentioned technical translation, over 15% mentioned business translation, and over 10% mentioned legal translation as their main area. In the survey, of the 82 respondents, 23 (28%) mentioned business translation, 21 (25.6%) mentioned technical translation, 18 (21.9%) mentioned the translation of academic texts, and 17 (20.7%) mentioned legal translation as their main area. These results seem to be consistent with the results of Katan's worldwide survey, except for the translation of academic texts, which was not included as an option in his list.

Seventy-eight respondents answered the question about what they do to improve their translation skills. Table 6.10 shows the responses to this question.

Table 6.10. Activities done to improve translation skills

Activities done	Response percent	Response count
Update skills through job activity, e.g. glossary work	80.8	63
Use online updating/training materials	55.1	43
Receive mentoring from senior translators	28.2	22
Attend courses run by educational/training institutions	10.3	8
Attend in-house training courses	6.4	5
Attend courses run by professional associations	3.8	3

According to the results, 80.8% of the respondents said they updated their skills through job activities such as glossary work, and 55.1% said they used online updating/training materials. Only eight respondents mentioned they attended courses run by educational/training institutions, and only three attended courses run by professional associations. This result may be interpreted as an indicator of the weak relationship between professionals, training institutions and professional associations.

6.3. On-the-job vs. formal training

In two separate questions, the participants were asked to what extent they agreed with the following statements: "All professional translators should have a degree in translation" and "Translation is best learned on the job". Eighty-nine respondents replied to both questions (see Table 6.11).

Table 6.11. On-the-job vs. formal training

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Indifferent	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
All professional translators should have a degree in translation.	47.2%	43.8%	4.5%	4.5%	0.0%
Translation is best learned on the job.	49.4%	43.8%	3.4%	3.4%	0.0%

About half the respondents (47.2%) *strongly* agreed that all professional translators should have a degree in translation, and half of the respondents (49.4%) *strongly* agreed that translation is best learned on the job. Further, 43.8% of the respondents *somewhat* agreed with both statements. Browsing the surveys, I notice that of the 89 respondents

who answered this question, 26 (29.21%) *somewhat* agreed with the first statement and *strongly* agreed with the second statement; and 23 respondents (25.84%) *strongly* agreed with the first statement and *somewhat* agreed with the second statement. The total number of members in these two groups corresponds to almost half the respondents. Further, 16.85% of the respondents *strongly* agreed with both statements, and 13.48% of the respondents *somewhat* agreed with both statements. Given this result, it may be inferred that the majority of the respondents agree on the importance of both on-the-job training and formal training, some with a slightly stronger emphasis on either formal training or on-the-job training. They do not see the two activities as being mutually exclusive. The interviews in Chapter 8, particularly with the practicing translators, provide further insight into this confrontation between on-the-job and formal training.

6.4. How well academic training prepares graduates for professional work

The respondents were asked how well their academic training prepared them for their professional work as translators. Eighty-nine participants replied to this question. The results are shown in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12. How well academic training prepared for professional work

How well academic training prepared for professional work	Response percent	Response count
Extremely well	12.4	11
Fairly well	51.7	46
Only basic preparation	34.8	31
Badly	1.1	1
Very badly	0.0	0
Total	100	89

Slightly over half of the respondents (51.7%) agreed that the academic training had prepared them fairly well and 12.4% said that the training prepared them *extremely well* for professional work, whereas one third of the respondents (34.8%) said that the academic training had provided *only basic preparation*. According to this result, the majority of the respondents (64.1%) have a positive opinion of their training, apparently rejecting the assumption that training practices fail to correspond to market needs. The number of respondents that claimed to have had *only basic preparation* is nevertheless still high (34.8%). The respondents made 13 comments on this question. The gaps between training and the market were in three main areas:

1. There is a need to learn more about the profession.

    Universities should really update their courses and techniques according to modern situation of the market and its needs. (Respondent 10, graduated in 2008, in-house translator)

    We could have been taught much about the business side of translation. The education was stuck [sic] with theoretical information, which was not easy to use in business life. (R35, graduated in 2008, in-house translator)

    I could have been made aware of procedures in professional translation field much more. I mean, I have been less prepared for real work environment by my academic training. (R53, graduated in 2009, translator in a translation company)

    It is true that they gave us woods and tried hard to teach us how to build a desk to work on. But no one was working on desks anymore. (R59, graduated in 2002, freelancer)

    I think we (I and my classmates) did not receive sufficient encouragement on the profession either to work or to study on. (R99, graduated in 2000, in-house translator)

These comments are from three recent graduates and two relatively older graduates, all employed as translators in the market. They draw attention to the need to familiarize trainees with professional issues and the market during the training.

2. Training programs do not teach technology to the extent required in the market.

    I think that we did not have all the necessary equipment such as a suitable laboratory or CAT tools. The most common thing in written translation is Microsoft Office but we did not even practice it. (R40, graduated in 2008, in-house translator)

> After one year of study abroad, I have seen that, the academic training I have received in Turkey is not really competent. The reasons: 1) mostly theory, little practice and not effective feedback, 2) students were not observed and guided enough, and 3) technology was rarely used. (R61, graduated in 2008, freelancer)

> I wish we could have learnt Trados at the university and practised it often so that we could translate faster and could get adapted to the translation market. (R125, graduated in 2005, language teacher and freelancer)

It is worth noting that two relatively recent graduates directly mention the need to teach technology, including computer-assisted translation (CAT) tools.[44] The place of technology in translator training is dealt with in a more detailed way in the discussion of survey results (6.7.5) and interview results (7.2.2).

3. Trainers are reluctant to use L2 in class.

> Instructors somehow avoided speaking the second language (namely English) in the class and we did not meet a single native speaker during our training. (R99, graduated in 2000, in-house translator)

> …almost no use of second language during the lectures… (R55, graduated in 2008, in-house translator)

Respondents to the questionnaire and interviewees mentioned that instructors teaching in translation programs avoid speaking the second language in classes. The respondents did not make a distinction between translation classes and other classes in this regard. Although the use of the second language by teachers has been widely discussed and researched in language classes (see, for example, EACA 2012 and European Commission 2012, for surveys of Europe), there seems to be no interest in second-language use *exclusively* in translation classes. The above-quoted opinions of graduates regarding this issue may be a point of departure to investigate to what extent

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[44] Computer-assisted or computer-aided translation, not to be confused with machine translation, is translation done with the use of specialized software providing assistance and solutions, including translation memory tools, terminology management software, and project management software.

translation teachers use the B language in translation classes, the reasons why they avoid speaking the B language (if they do) or any benefits and drawbacks of speaking the B language in classes.

Given the results of this question, it may be concluded that, according to more than half of respondents, there is no gap between training at university and market expectations in the Turkish context. However, the questions about the frequency of certain course components and their importance with regard to professional translation work may shed further light on this result.

The breakdown of replies to this question is provided below according to university (Table 6.13), graduation year (Table 6.15), sex (Table 6.17), and main professional activity of the respondents (6.19).

Table 6.13. How well academic training prepared for professional work: by university

How well academic training prepared for professional work	Hacettepe	Bilkent
Extremely well	9.3% (6)	20.0% (5)
Fairly well	51.5% (33)	52.0% (13)
Only basic preparation	37.5% (24)	28.0% (7)
Badly	1.5% (1)	-
Very badly	-	-
Total	100% (64)	100% (25)

Over half the graduates at both Hacettepe and Bilkent believe that they received *fairly good* training. The table also shows that Bilkent graduates have more positive perceptions of the training, given that 20% mentioned they were prepared extremely well, compared to about 10% among Hacettepe graduates, and 28% said it provided *only basic preparation*, compared to a greater number of Hacettepe graduates (37%).

Table 6.14 shows the distribution of means by university with regard to how well academic training prepared for professional work.

Table 6.14. How well academic training prepared for professional work: means by university

University	Number	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Bilkent	25	3.00	5.00	3.9200	.70238
Hacettepe	64	2.00	5.00	3.6875	.66368

On the five-point rating scale, the response choices were scored from 1 to 5, the *extremely well* option receiving the highest score. In this respect, the mean result for the graduates of Bilkent is 3.92 (with a standard deviation of 0.70) and for the graduates of

Hacettepe is 3.68 (with a standard deviation of 0.66). The means also confirm that Bilkent graduates believe they were prepared slightly better for the market.

Table 6.15. How well academic training prepared graduates for professional work: by graduation year

How well academic training prepared for professional work	1996-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Extremely well	11.1% (1)	23.0% (6)	7.4% (4)
Fairly well	44.4% (4)	46.1% (12)	55.5% (30)
Only basic preparation	33.3% (3)	30.7% (8)	37% (20)
Badly	11.1% (1)	-	-
Very badly	-	-	-
Total	100% (9)	100% (26)	100% (54)

In all three groups of respondents, approximately half of the graduates agreed that the training prepared them *fairly well* for professional work, with a higher rate among the most recent graduates (55% compared to 44% and 46%). The perception of being prepared *fairly well* increased over years, and surpassed 50% among recent graduates. Summing up the percentages on the positive side of the table – the responses of *extremely well* and *fairly well*, we see that the graduates' satisfaction with training increased in the first half of 2000s and declined in the second half of the decade. It is also worthy of note that the rate of respondents believing that the training provided *only basic preparation* is also the highest in the group of recent graduates. One third of the respondents in the group of oldest graduates (33%), slightly below one third of the respondents that graduated between 2001 and 2005 (31%), and over one-third of the respondents in the group of most recent graduates (37%) think that they received *only basic preparation* during their undergraduate study.

Table 6.16. How well academic training prepared for professional work: means by graduation year

Graduation year	Number	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
1996-2000	8	2.00	5.00	3.5000	.92582
2001-2005	26	3.00	5.00	3.9231	.74421
2006-2010	55	3.00	5.00	3.7091	.59854

The mean values in Table 6.16 indicate an increase in the group of 2001-2005 graduates, and then a decrease in the group of 2006-2010 graduates.

Table 6.17. How well academic training prepared graduates for professional work: by sex

How well academic training prepared for professional work	Women	Men
Extremely well	10.6% (8)	21.4% (3)
Fairly well	56.0% (42)	28.5% (4)
Only basic preparation	32.0% (24)	50.0% (7)
Badly	1.3% (1)	-
Very badly	-	-
Total	100% (75)	100% (14)

Table 6.17 demonstrates that a higher rate of women respondents believed that they were prepared *fairly well* for work, but that a lower rate of women graduates said that they were prepared *extremely well*.

Table 6.18. How well academic training prepared for professional work: means by sex

Sex	Number	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Women	75	2.00	5.00	3.7600	.65430
Men	14	3.00	5.00	3.7143	.82542

The mean values (Table 6.18) present only a slight difference between women (3.76) and men (3.71) with respect to their perceptions of how training prepared for professional life.

Table 6.19. How well academic training prepared graduates for professional work: by main professional activity

How well academic training prepared for professional work	Translators	Others
Extremely well	10.3% (6)	16.1% (5)
Fairly well	46.5% (27)	61.2% (19)
Only basic preparation	43.1% (25)	19.3% (6)
Badly	-	3.2% (1)
Very badly	-	-
Total	100% (58)	100% (31)

Of 89 participants that replied to this question, 58 reported that their first professional activity or one of their first professional activities was translating. In this group, the rates of translators arguing that academic training prepared them *fairly well* (46.5%) and that academic training provided *only basic training* (43.1%) are very close to each other. However, in the group of respondents that reported another profession as their main role, the majority (61.2%) stated that they were prepared *fairly well*, and only about one fifth reported to have received *only basic preparation*. It is worth of mentioning here that the rate of translators that evaluate training as *fairly well* is lower compared to

non-translators (46.5 to 61.2%), and that the number of those who claim to have had *only basic preparation* is higher compared to non-translators (43.1 to 19.3%).

Table 6.20. How well academic training prepared for professional work: means by main professional activity

Main professional activity	Number	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Translation	58	3.00	5.00	3.6897	.65446
Other	31	2.00	5.00	3.8710	.71842

Checking the means (Table 6.20), we note that the mean value of responses by the graduates whose main professional activity is not translation is higher than the mean of responses by translators. That is, translators active in the market gave relatively lower scores to the training than did the non-translators.

6.5. Perceptions about translation program components

The respondents were asked how often the curricular components were dealt with (taught or practiced) during their undergraduate study in translation. The response choices on a five-point scale ranged from *dealt with constantly* to *not dealt with* (see Table 6.21). The frequencies are coded in rank order to provide a hierarchical order. In this scale, the code for the highest frequency is 5 and for the lowest frequency is 1. Eighty-nine participants replied to this question.

Table 6.21. How often course components were dealt with in training

Course Components	Dealt with constantly	Dealt with frequently	Dealt with occasionally	Rarely dealt with	Not dealt with	Rating average
Translation practice	49.4%	21.3%	23.6%	4.5%	1.1%	4.13
Terminology management	42.7%	34.8%	13.5%	5.6%	3.4%	4.08
Specific field knowledge	39.3%	36.0%	16.9%	5.6%	2.2%	4.04
Text analysis	32.6%	38.2%	21.3%	5.6%	2.2%	3.93
Communication skills in B language	31.5%	29.2%	21.3%	16.9%	1.1%	3.73
Discourse analysis and pragmatics	19.1%	38.2%	31.5%	5.6%	5.6%	3.60
Translation criticism	13.5%	41.6%	36.0%	5.6%	3.4%	3.56
Translation theory	18.0%	41.6%	23.6%	12.4%	4.5%	3.56
Intercultural communication/cultural issues	14.6%	36.0%	29.2%	14.6%	5.6%	3.39
Communication skills in A language	29.2%	18.0%	19.1%	27.0%	6.7%	3.36
Knowledge of linguistics	13.5%	24.7%	25.8%	27.0%	9.0%	3.07
Professional work procedures and professional ethics	15.7%	22.5%	27.0%	22.5%	12.4%	3.07
Research techniques	7.9%	18.0%	41.6%	19.1%	13.5%	2.88
Translation history	4.5%	21.3%	34.8%	23.6%	15.7%	2.75
Translation technology	7.9%	11.2%	29.2%	31.5%	20.2%	2.55

According to the data from the respondents, the first five components dealt with *constantly* were translation practice (49.4%), terminology management (42.7%), specific field knowledge (39.3%), text analysis (32.6%) and communication skills in B language (31.5%). Further, the respondents mention that translation criticism (41.6%), translation theory (41.6%), text analysis (38.2%), discourse analysis and pragmatics (38.2%), and international communication and cultural issues (36%) were dealt with *frequently*. Given the rating average of each item, 5 being the highest score, the ranking of the first five most frequently dealt components are as follows: translation practice (4.13), terminology management (4.08), specific field knowledge (4.04), text analysis (3.93) and translation theory (3.56). These results are discussed in relation to expectations of the employers in section 8.2.

On the other hand, translation technology (51.2%), translation history (39.8%), knowledge of linguistics (36.4%), professional work procedures and professional ethics (35.2%) and communication skills in A language (34.1%) are the components that, according to the respondents, were *rarely* or *not dealt* with in the translation program. The rating averages in the negative side of the scheme are as follows: translation technology (2.55), translation history (2.75), research techniques (2.88), knowledge of linguistics (3.07), and professional work procedures and professional ethics (3.07). In this

list, translation technology and professional work procedures are of particular importance for this study, given that these two constitute the focal points of the study, as the components bringing training closer to the market.

Next, I wanted to see whether the opinions of respondents about the frequency of these course components differed significantly according to the university from which they graduated. First, I checked the data for normality with Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, which revealed that the data regarding none of the components listed in this question show normal distribution. Thus, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare the two groups of graduates from Hacettepe and Bilkent universities. The results of this test are provided on Table 6.22.

Table 6.22. Mann-Whitney U test result for university: how often course components were dealt with

Course components	Mann-Whitney U	Asymp. Sig.(2-tailed)	University	Mean values
Communication skills in A language	582.500	.041*	Hacettepe	41.60
			Bilkent	53.70
Communication skills in B language	487.000	.003*	Hacettepe	40.11
			Bilkent	57.52
Discourse analysis and pragmatics	565.000	.024*	Hacettepe	48.67
			Bilkent	35.60
Intercultural communication/cultural issues	652.000	.160	Hacettepe	42.69
			Bilkent	50.92
Knowledge of linguistics	586.000	.044*	Hacettepe	41.66
			Bilkent	53.56
Professional work procedures and professional ethics	675.000	.242	Hacettepe	46.95
			Bilkent	40.00
Research techniques	552.500	.018*	Hacettepe	41.13
			Bilkent	54.90
Specific field knowledge	716.000	.415	Hacettepe	46.31
			Bilkent	41.64
Terminology management	731.000	.500	Hacettepe	46.08
			Bilkent	42.24
Text analysis	627.500	.097	Hacettepe	47.70
			Bilkent	38.10
Translation criticism	649.500	.144	Hacettepe	47.35
			Bilkent	38.98
Translation history	415.500	.001*	Hacettepe	51.01
			Bilkent	29.62
Translation practice	703.000	.340	Hacettepe	43.48
			Bilkent	48.88
Translation technology	710.000	.395	Hacettepe	46.41
			Bilkent	41.40
Translation theory	391.500	.001*	Hacettepe	51.38
			Bilkent	28.66

The result is significant if p≤.05.

Table 6.22 shows that, for seven of the 15 items in this question, the responses of Hacettepe and Bilkent graduates differ significantly (marked with an asterisk*). These course components are communications skills in A language (p=.041), communication

skills in B language (p=.003), discourse analysis and pragmatics (p=.024), knowledge of linguistics (p=.044), research techniques (p=.018), translation history (p=.001) and translation theory (p=.001).

The data show that communication skills in A and B languages and research techniques are dealt with more frequently at Bilkent compared to Hacettepe, and discourse analysis, translation history and translation theory are dealt with more frequently at Hacettepe compared to Bilkent. The significance level is high for translation history and theory. Given that Bilkent is a private university, it may be expected to have a more practice-oriented curriculum, in which components that foster reflective capacity such as history and theory may be of secondary importance. In the same vein, research techniques, which refer to the documentation techniques used while translating, are dealt with more frequently at Bilkent because the university is expected to provide a more practice-oriented mode of training. Further, Bilkent graduates reported having had greater focus on linguistics, and less focus on pragmatics compared to Hacettepe graduates. This result seems contradictory for a university that is expected to have a practice-oriented curriculum. A detailed analysis of the curriculum of these universities in Chapter 6 and the interviews with the administrators of programs in section 8.1 may identify the reasons for these findings.

Table 6.23 shows the differences in perceptions of the frequency of curricular components according to the graduation year of respondents. It may be assumed that the emphasis may have shifted over years due to various factors, including shifts in Translation Studies, changes in translator-training approaches, and market expectations.

Table 6.23. Kruskal-Wallis test result for graduation year: how often course components were dealt with

Course components	Chi-Square	Asymp. Sig.	Graduation year	Mean values
Communication skills in A language	1.346	.510	1996-2000	41.78
			2001-2005	49.75
			2006-2010	43.25
Communication skills in B language	8.258	.016*	1996-2000	32.83
			2001-2005	56.08
			2006-2010	41.69
Discourse analysis and pragmatics	8.215	.016*	1996-2000	48.44
			2001-2005	33.38
			2006-2010	50.02
Intercultural communication/cultural issues	3.201	.202	1996-2000	38.89
			2001-2005	52.13
			2006-2010	42.58
Knowledge of linguistics	24.026	.000*	1996-2000	55.56
			2001-2005	62.90
			2006-2010	34.62
Professional work procedures and professional ethics	1.429	.489	1996-2000	35.56
			2001-2005	45.44
			2006-2010	46.36
Research techniques	2.080	.353	1996-2000	35.11
			2001-2005	48.85
			2006-2010	44.80
Specific field knowledge	0.402	.818	1996-2000	42.28
			2001-2005	43.25
			2006-2010	46.30
Terminology management	0.98	.952	1996-2000	43.72
			2001-2005	46.17
			2006-2010	44.65
Text analysis	0.358	.836	1996-2000	49.50
			2001-2005	43.92
			2006-2010	44.77
Translation criticism	0.706	.702	1996-2000	38.56
			2001-2005	45.54
			2006-2010	45.81
Translation history	0.452	.798	1996-2000	45.56
			2001-2005	42.25
			2006-2010	46.23
Translation practice	6.339	.042*	1996-2000	42.28
			2001-2005	54.94
			2006-2010	40.67
Translation technology	6.543	.038*	1996-2000	27.33
			2001-2005	42.00
			2006-2010	49.39
Translation theory	3.099	.212	1996-2000	45.56
			2001-2005	37.96
			2006-2010	48.30

The result is significant if $p \leq .05$.

The table reveals significant differences in five course components with regard to how often they were dealt with (marked with an asterisk*): communication skills in B language (p=.016), discourse analysis and pragmatics (p=.016), linguistics (p=.001), translation practice (p=.042) and translation technology (p=.038). According to the Kruskal-Wallis test results, the emphasis on communication skills in B language increased in the mid-group of the respondents (those that graduated between 2001 and

2005), and then decreased among the most recent graduates (between 2006 and 2010), but is still higher compared to the earliest graduates (between 1996 and 2000). In line with the general approach to translation in the earlier years of Translation Studies, the training programs put greater focus on language teaching when they were established. However, with the detachment of translation from language teaching and linguistics, pure language courses were replaced by specialized language teaching on various areas. Furthermore, the head of the Bilkent program mentioned that they preferred that faculty members rather than translation professionals teach translation to their students. This is because faculty members are willing to concentrate on the improvement of the foreign-language skills of students. As seen in Chapter 5, the Hacettepe program decreased the number of language courses remarkably in its revision of 2001, but then reintegrated these courses in the latest revision in 2009. This is probably because of low foreign-language profile of incoming students, the program administrator reported in my interview with her.

Furthermore, discourse and pragmatics are dealt with more frequently in recent years, while linguistics is dealt with less frequently. Both linguistics and pragmatics are involved in this question, as recent studies in translation and interpreting tend to make a distinction between mere linguistic analysis and pragmatics (i.e. language in use) and emphasize the shift from comparative linguistics to language-in-use (see for example Hickey 1998: 1-4, Chernov 2004: 4-10, Kansu-Yetkiner 2009). The result obtained here seems to reflect such a shift.

Contrary to expectations, the frequency of reported translation practice is lower among recent graduates. According to survey results, there was more focus on practice in the late 1990s and early 2000s. The decrease may result from the diversification of courses in the recent curricula. While the initial course components of both programs were mainly divided between language teaching and translation practice, the first revisions reduced or maintained the number of language-teaching courses and increased the number of translation practice courses. However, in the more recent revisions language teaching has received more emphasis due to weakening language profile of the students (as claimed by program administrators). In the meanwhile, with the influence of new approaches to translator training, the courses have been diversified to include specific knowledge in various fields as well as in the source and target cultures. Due to this

diversification, the graduates may have perceived that there was less focus on practice in their program.

The result concerning translation technology is to be expected, due to the changing needs of translators. The emphasis on this component seems to have increased gradually over years. However, there is not a great difference between the graduates of the early 2000s and the late 2000s. Given that the need for technology has been growing with the need for speed in recent years, I expected a much greater emphasis on technology in the programs of recent graduates. However, the interviews with the administrators show that they have increased the weight of technology in programs in 2009 and later. Thus, surveys with future graduates are likely to produce results with a greater focus on technology in translator training.

The next question asked the respondents to rate the importance of the same components for their current professional work as a translator. The results are presented in Table 6.24.

Table 6.24. Importance of course components for professional work as a translator

Course components	Extremely important	Fairly important	Occasionally important	Rarely important	Not important	Rating average
Communication skills in A language	86.5%	11.2%	1.1%	0.0%	1.1%	4.82
Communication skills in B language	85.4%	11.2%	1.1%	1.1%	1.1%	4.79
Translation practice	84.3%	10.1%	3.4%	1.1%	1.1%	4.75
Specific field knowledge	77.5%	19.1%	2.2%	1.1%	0.0%	4.73
Terminology management	78.7%	15.7%	3.4%	1.1%	1.1%	4.70
Professional work procedures and professional ethics	67.4%	22.5%	7.9%	1.1%	1.1%	4.54
Intercultural communication/cultural issues	66.3%	20.2%	6.7%	3.4%	3.4%	4.43
Research techniques	49.4%	28.1%	13.5%	3.4%	5.6%	4.12
Text analysis	44.9%	28.1%	16.9%	6.7%	3.4%	4.04
Translation technology	42.7%	24.7%	19.1%	5.6%	7.9%	3.89
Discourse analysis and pragmatics	29.2%	36.0%	18.0%	7.9%	9.0%	3.69
Knowledge of linguistics	32.6%	25.8%	21.3%	11.2%	9.0%	3.62
Translation criticism	21.3%	19.1%	23.6%	23.6%	12.4%	3.13
Translation theory	12.4%	14.6%	22.5%	22.5%	28.1%	2.61
Translation history	3.4%	7.9%	25.8%	21.3%	41.6%	2.10

The following five components are mainly rated as *extremely* important or *fairly* important by the respondents: communication skills in A language (97.7%, rating average: 4.82), communication skills in B language (96.6%, rating average: 4.79), specific field knowledge (96.6%, rating average: 4.73), terminology management (94.4%,

rating average: 4.70), translation practice (94.4%, rating average: 4.75), and professional work procedures and professional ethics (89.9%, rating average: 4.54). The rating averages of almost all items are over 3.5, except three of them (translation history: 2.10, translation theory: 2.61 and translation criticism: 3.13).

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to see whether the perceptions of respondents about the importance of these components for professional work differ significantly according to the university they graduated from and their sex, and a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to see whether the perceptions of respondents about the importance of these components differ significantly according to their graduation year. The results do not show any significant difference between the graduates of Hacettepe and Bilkent Universities. Nor is there any significant difference among the respondents who graduated in different five-year periods, for any of the components listed in the question. Our initial expectation was that the two universities would put emphasis on different components in line with their different concerns, deriving from being state and foundation universities. The results here contradict the expectations but confirm that the respondents have a fairly unified vision of the market. For a more subtle analysis, these concerns were discussed with the administrators of translator-training programs and graduates of these programs in further interviews. The tabulated results are provided in Appendix 2.

The frequency averages of the respondents' replies concerning the frequency and importance of curricular contents were cross-tabulated (Table 6.25) in the order of preference, according to the rating average of each item, to see how they are correlated to each other:

Table 6.25. Cross-tabulation of the frequency and importance of course components

Order of preference	How frequently the course component was dealt with in the translator-training program	How important is the course component for professional work as a translator
1	Translation practice	Communication skills in A language
2	Terminology management	Communication skills in B language
3	Specific field knowledge	Translation practice
4	Text analysis	Specific field knowledge
5	Communication skills in B language	Terminology management
6	Discourse analysis and pragmatics	Professional work procedures and professional ethics
7	Translation criticism	Intercultural communication/cultural issues
8	Translation theory	Research techniques
9	Intercultural communication/cultural issues	Text analysis
10	Communication skills in A language	Translation technology
11	Knowledge of linguistics	Discourse analysis and pragmatics
12	Professional work procedures and professional ethics	Knowledge of linguistics
13	Research techniques	Translation criticism
14	Translation history	Translation theory
15	Translation technology	Translation history

The comparison of the position of each component in the two lists of preferences shows that the frequency of some curriculum components dealt with in translation programs more or less coincides with their importance in translators' professional life (for example, translation practice, linguistics, specific field knowledge, and translation history). However, the respondents placed some components at relatively higher ranks in the list of importance, but lower ranks in the list of frequency. The components where the gap between (remembered) reality and (assigned) importance is particularly large are communication skills in A language, professional work procedures and professional ethics, translation technology, research techniques, text analysis, and communication skills in B language. It is worthy of note that communication skills in A language is considered the most important component for professional work, but is placed tenth in the order of frequency. The results concerning some other components are also important. The curriculum analysis in Chapter 5 shows that work placements have been a component of translator training for many years in order to familiarize students with work procedures. However, the result here may show that the respondents did not consider this as a component offered in the program to teach them professional work procedures and ethics. The result regarding translation technology is to be expected since translation technologies were added to the curricula in 2009. What is interesting is that the graduates

report a gap between the frequency and importance of "communication skills in B language". In the list of importance, this elements ranks the second; however, in the rank of frequency, it comes after terminology management, field knowledge and text analysis. We nevertheless know that translator-training programs put great emphasis on the improvement of foreign-language skills, as seen in sections 5.2.1.1, 5.2.2.1, 8.1.1.1 and 8.1.2.1. On the other hand, again given the order of items in both lists, the graduates tend to think that translation theory, translation criticism, discourse analysis, text analysis and terminology management were dealt with in translator training more frequently than they are needed in professional life.

Comparably, Lafeber (2012) administered two questionnaires to over 300 in-house translators and revisers employed at inter-governmental organizations: one was on the importance of various skills (impact questionnaire) and the other on the skills they found lacking among new recruits (recruits questionnaire). In her survey with 40 items of skills and knowledge, the items that are reported to have a high impact on the effectiveness of translation but to be often lacking among new recruits might be compared with what the respondents in this study reported being important but not frequently dealt with in translation programs. There is need to note here that Lafeber's findings show highly important but often lacking skills and knowledge among new recruits from the perspective of in-house translators and revisers. This study presents important but often lacking components in translator-training programs from the perspective of the *graduates* of training programs.

The main gaps that Lafeber found concern working out the meaning of obscure passages, capturing nuances of ST, conveying the ST message clearly, ensuring the coherence of the TT, adhering to in-house style conventions, detecting inconsistencies, contradictions, etc., producing idiomatic translations, maintaining quality under time pressure, conveying the intended effect of the ST, tracking down sources to check facts, and mining reference material for phrasing. It seems that the gaps are mostly related to text comprehension and production, whereas in this study A language skills and knowledge of professional issues rank the first among the gaps between what is taught and what is demanded on the market. Contrary to my findings, in Lafeber's survey, technology-related skills, i.e. working with electronic terminology tools, working with translation memory software and handling more than basic Word functions, are among the skills that are low-impact and commonly found. This result may be expected, given

that Lafeber's survey is of intergovernmental organizations where there is not a lot of technology and the technology is taught in-house. Knowledge of source language is one of the commonly found knowledge types with high impact in her study, whereas it is not one of the frequently dealt with components according to my results. This is again probably because her survey includes international organizations where language quality is considered more important than time pressure, and language competence constitutes one of the most important criteria in recruiting translators.

6.6. Perceptions about the interaction between training programs and the market

In order to ascertain the degree and forms of interaction between training and the market, the respondents were asked to state how often certain forms of interaction happened in relation to the training program they went through (see Table 6.26). Eighty-nine graduates replied to the questionnaire about the frequency of interaction.

Table 6.26. Forms of interaction between training and the market

Forms of Interaction	Always	Frequently	Occasionally	Rarely	Never	Average
Using real-world texts for translation teaching activities	39.6%	35.8%	13.2%	5.7%	5.7%	3.98
Using real-world texts for assessment activities	36.1%	38.9%	15.3%	5.6%	4.2%	3.97
Academics translating professionally on the market	14.5%	36.4%	23.6%	20.0%	5.5%	3.35
Employing professional translators as academic staff	11.7%	20.0%	30.0%	20.0%	18.3%	2.87
Inviting people from the profession to talk in the classroom	8.1%	16.2%	28.4%	35.1%	12.2%	2.73
Organizing educational activities in collaboration with professional bodies	4.5%	14.6%	24.7%	28.1%	28.1%	2.39
Work placement components in the curriculum	4.1%	16.4%	21.9%	26.0%	31.5%	2.36
Using electronic tools in translation teaching	4.7%	12.5%	17.2%	25.0%	40.6%	2.16

The main forms of interaction that the respondents reported happening *always* or *frequently* were as follows: "The training program used real-world texts for translation-teaching activities" (75.4%), "The training program used real-world texts for assessment

activities" (75.0%) and "Academics were translating professionally on the market" (50.9%). The other forms of interaction had relatively lower levels of frequency: "The training program used electronic tools in translation teaching activities" (17.2%), "The training program organized educational activities in collaboration with professional bodies" (19.1%), "The training program had work placement components in the curriculum" (20.5%), "The training program invited people from the profession to talk in the classroom" (25.9%) and "The training program employed professional translators as academic staff" (33.7%).

In addition to the frequency of the forms of interaction during training, I also asked about the desirability of the forms of interaction in future training practices. The results are presented in Table 6.27.

Table 6.27. How desirable the forms of interaction are

Forms of Interaction	Highly desirable	Desirable	Indifferent	Undesirable	Highly undesirable	Rating average
Using real-world texts for translation teaching activities	74.5%	19.6%	3.9%	0.0%	2.0%	4.65
Using real-world texts for assessment activities	75.0%	17.3%	5.8%	0.0%	1.9%	4.63
Academics translating professionally on the market	69.7%	23.6%	4.5%	0.0%	2.2%	4.58
Employing professional translators as academic staff	52.6%	35.1%	10.5%	0.0%	1.8%	4.37
Inviting people from the profession to talk in the classroom	53.2%	37.1%	6.5%	0.0%	3.2%	4.37
Organizing educational activities in collaboration with professional bodies	50.8%	35.6%	11.9%	0.0%	1.7%	4.34
Work placement components in the curriculum	52.7%	29.1%	16.4%	0.0%	1.8%	4.31
Using electronic tools in translation teaching	54.5%	32.7%	3.6%	5.5%	3.6%	4.29

The majority of the respondents agreed that the interactions were highly desirable, with rates ranging from 50% to 75%.

These results have been cross-tabulated with the frequency of interaction to find out to what extent (remembered) reality correlates with desirability (see Table 6.28).

Table 6.28. Cross-tabulation of the frequency and desirability of the forms of interaction

Order of preference	Frequency	Desirability
1	Using real-world texts for translation teaching activities	Using real-world texts for translation teaching activities
2	Using real-world texts for assessment activities	Using real-world texts for assessment activities
3	Academics translating professionally on the market	Academics translating professionally on the market
4	Employing professional translators as academic staff	Employing professional translators as academic staff
5	Organizing educational activities in collaboration with professional bodies	Organizing educational activities in collaboration with professional bodies
6	Inviting people from the profession to talk in the classroom	Inviting people from the profession to talk in the classroom
7	Work placement components in the curriculum	Work placement components in the curriculum
8	Using electronic tools for translation teaching activities	Using electronic tools for translation teaching activities

The table shows that, given the order of preference in the frequency and desirability lists, the respective offerings of the translator-training programs coincide with each other.

Other forms of interaction that the respondents would like to see more of are more effective and longer internships for translation students, translation projects, cooperation with suppliers of the most-used translation memory tools, workshops with professionals, and course components on financial issues in translation, including how to operate in the face of competitive pricing. The interaction issue is discussed in a more detailed way in the interviews with graduates (Chapter 7) and with other stakeholders (Chapter 8).

6.7. Discussion

This part presents a brief discussion of the findings from the survey of graduates.

6.7.1. The translation profession in Turkey

Besides asking how formal training prepared translators for professional work and exploring the frequency and forms of interaction between training and the market, this study provides a glimpse of the translation profession in Turkey.

6.7.1.1. First roles of the graduates

Over half of the respondents mentioned translation as their first professional activity; however, 20% of the total respondents mentioned another profession, together with translation, as their main activity. Chan (2008) and Katan (2009a, 2009b), both global surveys, also report that translators on the contemporary translation market assume more than one role. The second or tertiary roles may be interpreting or localization, which are linked with translation, or more distinct roles such as language teaching or marketing. Ferreira-Alves (2011, cited in Pym, Grin, Sfreddo and Chan 2012: 87), in his survey of professional translation in Portugal, found that over half of the respondents were engaged in translation "as a part-time, secondary or occasional occupation". They were combining translation with not only language-related jobs but also with others such as engineering or law. These results suggest that translation programs train people for not only the translation market but also for other related or unrelated job markets. In the interviews, especially with language teachers, we discussed when and why they decided not to be employed in the translation market.

6.7.1.2. Freelancing: a short or a long-term option?

The survey showed that freelancing is an important professional activity in the translation market. About 55% of the respondents reported acting as freelancers. Freelancing appears as a second activity (about 50%) rather than the first (about 40%), and was also defined as the main activity, together with in-house translating, language teaching, interpreting or researching. These rates are important given the fact that over half of the graduates surveyed earn money from freelance translating, regardless of whether their main profession is translation or not.

With data from various sources, Olohan (2007) attempts to draw a map of the translation sector in different countries and draws implications for training. One of these implications is with regard to freelancing. She found that, after graduation, translators mostly have to work freelance. Thus, Olohan (2007: 55-56) asserts that training programs

are required to prepare students for freelancing, and even at the beginning of the study, make students aware that they may be employed as freelancers in the sector, and that freelancing is "a mode of working" with certain advantages rather than "a last resort".

Fraser and Gold (2001) surveyed freelance translators in the United Kingdom. The respondents reported to have chosen freelancing mainly because of the change of circumstances (23% total, 5% male and 35% women), because they always wanted to be a freelance (22% total, 20% men, 23% women) and because they wanted a change from a non-translation job (17% total, 23% men, 12% women) (Fraser and Gold 2001: 685). Seventy percent of the respondents who said "no in-house jobs were available" were aged between 25 and 34, which may mean that freelancing is a way of entering the market for new graduates (Fraser and Gold 2001: 686). Those who had always wanted to be a freelance chose this option to be their own boss (68%), to work from home (67%), not to work set hours (38%), to earn more (26%) and to be engaged in more varied work (19%) (Fraser and Gold 2001: 686). Fraser and Gold's survey further reveals that freelancing is a "preferred option" rather than a compulsory choice for most translators. To the question whether they would choose an in-house job whether they were offered the opportunity, 76% of the respondents answered no, 21% maybe and 3% yes (Fraser and Gold 2001: 687).

Byrne (2003), in his study on freelancing, reports that only eight of 37 graduates in 1999 and six of 38 graduates in 2000 from a BA program in Ireland found employment as a translator. Given the scarcity of in-house positions, there is "need for a separate module to be included on [sic] training programmes which will arm students with the specialised knowledge they need in order to become professional, freelance translators and to run a successful and efficient business" (Byrne: 2003).

Fulford and Granell-Zafra (2005: 8) report that, out of 439 translators who participated in their survey, 89% were freelancers. However, in their case, it should be noted that the researchers designed a survey of freelance translators in the United Kingdom. In Lagoudaki's survey (2006) of 874 translation professionals, 48% of the respondents mentioned that they were freelancers "working independently without an agency". The Directorate General for Translation of the European Commission (2009: 6) reports that the proportion of pages translated by freelancers increased from 16.4% in 1997 to 26.3% in 2008. Going through these and other studies, Pym, Grin, Sfreddo and

Chan (2012: 89) calculate that "the general proportion of freelancers is around 78.4 percent" or more fairly "range from 50 to 89 percent, depending on the country and the sector".

These studies show that freelancing has been becoming a preferred choice rather than an obligation, due to scarcity of employment opportunities or an obligation to work at home. However, in the Turkish case, probably because of economic instability, freelancing is not a preferred main mode of work among translators. In the survey of graduates, it appeared as a first role accompanying another first role such as in-house translation or language teaching, or as a second or third professional activity. The interviews also provided information on the freelancing choices of graduates. One interviewee was freelancing because he was looking for a permanent job, and another had been freelancing but gave it up for a regular job and a salary as a language teacher. Only one graduate willingly preferred freelancing, after working as a journalist and an in-house translator and project manager, and he has been satisfied with his work conditions and income. These viewpoints and global findings on freelancing may inspire curriculum designers to consider the importance of freelancing as a demand of the translation market, whether it be a preferred main role or a secondary source of income.

Byrne (2003) suggests that a specific module on freelancing in translator-training programs may cover the following areas of knowledge:

1. Where do translators work?: Job Prospects for Translators; Types of Translator Jobs: Staff, In-house, Freelance; Types of work translators do: editing, proof-reading, websites, cultural adaptation/consulting; Localisation vs. Translation; the Translation / Localisation Market; Social Aspects of Translation.

2. Finding work: Making the decision to go freelance; Selling yourself; CVs; Web directories: Aquarius, Atril, Translationzone etc.; Building your own website; Advertising; Professional memberships; Making contacts.

3. The Translation Environment: Choosing your PC; Choosing your peripherals; Choosing your software: office applications, terminology, CAT; Choosing your dictionaries / terminological resources (websites etc.); Ergonomics: designing your office.

4. Professional Conduct: Customer Relations / Service; Work Ethic / Workloads; Work Practices: Time Management; Workflows: Quotes, Accepting Work,

Managing Faxes; Giving quotations / Negotiating Fees and Deadlines; Dealing with Complaints.

5. **Financial Housekeeping:** Banking; Sole Trader or Company?; Taxes / VAT; Billing; Accounts; Filing; Expenses; Bad Debts.

6. **Technical Housekeeping:** Maintaining your PC; Trouble-shooting; Upgrades; Virus protection and PC security; Archiving / Backups; Social Aspects of Translation.

7. **Computer Skills for Freelancers:** Office Applications; Internet / FTP; Databases; Faxing; Scanning / Graphics; DTP.

8. **Legal Matters:** Professional Indemnity / Insurance; Legal Concepts (e.g. Negligence); Contracts; Terms and Conditions; Copyright Issues; Bad Debts.

6.7.1.2. Language teaching: why do translation graduates become language teachers?

A significant finding of this survey is that language teaching is a preferred profession among the graduates of translation and interpreting departments. Out of 125 respondents, 29 respondents (23%) defined language teaching as their first role, and a total of 34 respondents (27%) mentioned it as one of their roles. In order to discuss why these students studied translation and interpreting if they were to be employed as language teachers after graduation, I asked some further questions via e-mails to eight graduates (not necessarily the ones that replied to the survey) currently working as language teachers. The questions asked and the answers of graduates are summarized below.

Reasons for studying translation: Three of the respondents mentioned that they started studying translation with the intention of being a translator. The other five respondents said that they made a choice according to the score they received in the university entrance exam. They were all willing to study in a foreign-language department. After receiving relatively high scores on the exam, they chose the most popular language-related department, i.e. translation and interpreting, which had been popular among language students for many years. They were aware that once they had received teacher training during or after certain undergraduate studies, translation graduates may be employed as teachers in public or private institutions. One of the graduates explained that because she got a high score in the exam, she preferred the more "challenging" department. Another one explained the situation as follows:

The first reason to choose that department was I got a really high point in the university exam and it was like a tradition at that time: If you get a high point, you should choose translation and interpreting.

This graduate also stated that she believed she would receive better language training in the translation department compared to other language departments. In the first years of study, they were all willing to work as translators. However, they changed their mind either in the final year of the study or after graduation.

Their current workplace: Of these graduates, four are employed at universities as language teachers and four are working in schools affiliated with the Ministry of National Education; six of them work as civil servants and two work at a foundation university.

Past work experience: I asked them whether this was their first job and whether they had worked as a translator previously. All respondents except one started their professional life as a language teacher. Five of them worked in institutions other than the current one when they graduated, and the other two started their professional career in their current institutions (one of them three years ago and the other eight years ago). Only one graduate had had experience as a translator after graduation. She worked as a translator in two different institutions for about three years.

The factors that led them to work as language teachers after graduation: The eight translation graduates, now employed as teachers, had many reasons for not choosing translation but teaching. Only one respondent stated that she sees teaching as a temporary job and is looking for a better job in translation. Their reasons may be listed as follows:

1. There is an imbalance between the effort and income in translation jobs.
2. There are no standards in the translation profession:

> During the years I have worked as a translator in the institutions and as a freelancer, I realized that there were not any criteria/standards for translators. That is, everybody who translates a few words can easily define herself/himself as a translator and anybody having an English certificate can easily become a "translator". This leads to a cheap market for translators. Besides, the value of the job as a profession falls.

Another reason is the society's and especially employers' viewpoint on the translation job, the occupational standards' not being set even in public institutions, and not having a union/association or chamber that can protect our rights. There is no professional solidarity among translators. I think it is important to raise this awareness.

3. Employment as a language teacher in public schools or universities may provide a degree of job security that the translation market does not usually offer.

4. Translation is a stressful job. It is difficult to have control over one's own work and workload when working as a translator. However, in teaching, the workload and work program are usually predefined.

5. Translation requires sitting in front of a computer for long hours. It is a "desk job". It is better to have more interaction with people. Teaching provides this opportunity.

6. Teaching allows people to receive immediate feedback, which is very satisfactory.

7. "I was looking for a specific translation job (e.g. translating in the EU, translating for a publishing house); but since I could not find such an opportunity after graduation, I preferred teaching".

8. Peer pressure: "All my friends were rushing to find a job after graduation and I was afraid that I would be unemployed. I found this position as a teacher and started it".

9. Family pressure: "Families and other people around forced me to be a teacher, arguing that it is a more secure profession compared to translating".

10. Teaching offers more favorable work conditions than translating, particularly in terms of working hours and holidays.

11. "I did not feel prepared to be a translator because of the training we received".

12. People can spare more time for their family as a teacher.

13. Living in a small city, one does not have the chance to be employed as a translator.

This final point, mentioned by two graduates, shows that the graduates may not see freelance translating as a permanent job option. When they do not have the opportunity to be employed as an in-house translator, they prefer teaching.

6.7.2. Main working areas of translators

The survey results show that almost half of the respondents mentioned legal and technical translation as their main, secondary, or tertiary working area. Further, 28% of the respondents mentioned business, 25.6% technical, 21.9% academic and 20.7% legal as their main area. On the other hand, only seven translators (7.9%) defined literary translation as their main working area, and 18 translators (20.4%) as their main, secondary, or tertiary working area.

These results are comparable with those of Katan's global survey. Katan (2009a: 119) found that 19% of the translators mentioned technical, 18% mentioned business, and 12% mentioned legal as their main area. Further, 54% is involved in technical, 34% in business and 36% in legal. As to literary translation, 7% said literary translation was their main field of work, and 28% said they were involved in literary translation.

The results of both surveys may guide curriculum designers to revise the weight of literary translation in translation curricula. Chapter 6, providing an overview of curricula in translation programs from a historical perspective, shows that literary translation has kept its place as an obligatory component in all curricular revisions, with an increasing emphasis in the program at Bilkent University. Based on their experience of the market, the graduates and the translation company owner interviewed stated that translation theory and criticism courses concentrated unnecessarily on literary translation although translation criticism of *non-literary* texts may contribute considerably to the improvement of professional skills.

6.7.3. On-the-job training vs. formal training

When asked whether academic training is required to work on the professional market, the overwhelming majority of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed that such training is required. However, the overwhelming majority also strongly agreed or agreed that translation is best learned on the job. Preparedness for professional work is an important issue at this point. While emphasizing that there is need for a degree in translation to be

employed in the translation market, many translators – all holding a degree in translation – expressed in their comments in the survey and in interviews that they did not feel prepared to enter the market when they graduated, and learnt the profession on the job. When they were asked how well academic training prepared them for professional work, one third of the respondents said that the academic training provided only basic preparation. This may bring us to the conclusion that graduates believe academic training is required to be a translator, but they need to acquire more professional competence in training. This may also mean that the academic training provides a certain degree of symbolic capital but not cultural capital, in Bourdieu's terms, the latter simply referring to knowledge and competence that an individual possesses. In other words, a diploma is required to gain capital "with the acquisition of a reputation for competence and an image of respectability and honourability" (Bourdieu 1984: 291) but does not necessarily provide the skills required to act successfully in the market, as also confirmed by the the employer and project managers interviewed (see section 8.2.1.1.1).

6.7.4. Theory and practice

In this study, about half the respondents believe that translation theory is rarely important or not important at all for professional work. This result can be compared with those of similar surveys conducted in Turkey and abroad.

Katan (2009a), in his global survey, asked the respondents to rate the importance of translation theory module on a 5-point scale, ranging from essential to optional. In the group of translation-trained professionals, 30% of the replies to the question were concentrated on the middle point, i.e. translation theory model is useful, whereas about 25% of the respondents found theory important and another 20% essential (Katan 2009a: 143). On the other hand, the respondents without a degree in translation tend to agree that a translation theory module is important (32%) and useful (about 25%) (Katan 2009a: 146). Further, when asked to choose the most important university modules for a translator-training program, the respondents selected practice, strategies, electronic tools, subject-specific knowledge and contrastive grammar/linguistics; and these were followed by intercultural theory-practice, theory, ethics and contemporary affairs (Katan 2009a: 143). In Doğan's study (2001) in the Turkish context, graduates suggested that translation programs should establish a link between theory and practice, focus more on practice,

work with authentic texts and support computer skills. Li's survey (2000: 132-133) of the Hong Kong market showed that translators mentioned English language and literature (90.5%) and Chinese language and literature (85%) as the most helpful courses, while translation projects (19%), linguistics (19%) and theory (14.3%) received the lowest scores.

As revealed by these limited empirical studies, practitioners generally tend to give low scores to theory in academic training and complain about the lack of connection between theory and practice. The relationship between theory and practice is not one-way, and translation theory does not have to be at the disposal of practice. The relationship between theory and practice is not necessarily dichotomous, either. As de Beaugrande (2000: 27) puts it,

> the relation between theory and practice should by nature be dialectical, where the two sides interact and guide each other as they co-evolve in strategic contact. The theory should be 'practice-driven', whilst the practices should be 'theory-driven'.

The main problem therefore seems to be that training programs fail to acquaint future practitioners with the direct and indirect effects of theoretical knowledge on professional life.

6.7.5. Technology

Translation technology has been one of the most popular topics in translation research due to its increasing importance in translation profession. Today almost all translation competence definitions and categorizations involve technology as a competence in its own right (see for example Kelly 2005; PACTE 2005, 2008; Tan 2008; EMT 2009; Rico 2010), and it is widely accepted that translators require technology skills to survive in the market. Biau Gil and Pym (2006: 6) argue that technology is a necessity rather than an option in translation practice, and specify three main effects of technology on translation: effect on communication (how translators communicate with clients), on memory (how much and how fast information is stored), and on text production (word processing). In the same respect, according to Thelen (2011: 161-163), translators need technical resources for basic IT activities (i.e. operating systems, word processing tools, presentation tools, tools for calculating, internet tools, file formats and file converting

tools, communication tools, and scanning tools), for translation activities (i.e. TM tools, MT tools, speech recognition tools, subtitling tools, and terminology management tools), and for administrative activities such as bookkeeping and workflow management. Discussions are related to how and to what extent these skills should be taught in training programs. For instance, Mossop (2003: 21) argues that students need basic skills to use Windows, Internet, e-mail and Word, and that they can learn the rest later. Nevertheless, the above-cited translation competence categorizations prescribe that students are required to graduate with advanced computer and technology skills, ranging from advanced word processing skills to the ability to use translation memories and terminology management tools. More recent thought suggests that the technology is not a separate component of translation competence but "[t]he active and intelligent use of TM/MT [translation memories and machine translation] should eventually bring significant changes to the nature and balance of all other components, and thus to the professional profile of the person we are still calling a translator" (Pym 2012).

Half of the respondents said technology is rarely dealt with or not dealt with during their undergraduate studies, whereas about 65% found technology *extremely important* or *fairly important* for translation work. Thus, juxtaposing the results related to technology, we see that there is a gap between the (assigned) importance and (perceived) frequency of learning technology in translation-training programs. However, given the order of preference, we see that translation technology is listed as one of the least important components for professional work. Surprised at this result, I asked the graduates about this in the interviews. Although they believed that it is important to learn technology, most of them were not using technology in their work. Only one graduate, working as a freelancer, reported that he could not earn much on the translation market without using translation technologies. Interviews with the graduates and the employer show that freelancers and company translators put more emphasis on technology as a major component of translator training. The others reported using only word processors and the Internet.

6.7.6. Communication skills in A language

The respondents also defined a gap between training and professional needs with respect to communication skills in their A language. Not surprisingly, these skills are

incorporated into many definitions of translation competence, e.g. communicative competence in two languages (PACTE 2000) or bilingual sub-competence (PACTE 2002); language competence, including A or native languages (Kelly 2005); language competence in language A and one's other working languages (B, C) (EMT 2009); communicative competence in at least two languages (Göpferich 2009); instrumental proficiency in working languages (C2 level/master proficiency in student's mother tongue, C1 level/effective operational proficiency in student's main foreign language) (Rico 2010); and so on. A review of undergraduate translator-training programs has shown that Turkish-language courses specifically designed for translation trainees have been incorporated into programs. However, this survey did not reveal any difference between the recent and older graduates with regard to emphasis on A language in training programs.

6.7.7. Interaction between training and the market

One of the few empirical studies about the interaction between the translation profession and academic institutions was carried out among translator and interpreter training institutions in the United Kingdom, most of which were at postgraduate level (Kemble 2006). Although this study is concerned with training at the undergraduate level, Kemble's study may be taken as a point of reference, since postgraduate study, mainly Master's programs, fulfills the university-based translator training in the United Kingdom (Shuttleworth 2001: 498). For the purpose of his study, Kemble defines three types of interaction, i.e. human interaction, material interaction and professional interaction.

The hypothesis of Kemble's study is that more vocationally-oriented courses would have a higher level of interaction with the profession compared to theoretically-oriented courses (Kemble 2006: 1). His study covered 24 institutions. With regard to human action, the survey showed that the staff at the majority of the universities were translators themselves. Another finding of this part was that 26% of the institutions employed professional translators as full-time members and 61% of them employed translators as part-timers. As for material interaction, all institutions declared that they used authentic texts for teaching purposes, although the extent of their use varied. The results about professional interaction showed that the majority of the institutions invited representatives from professional bodies or the translation profession for seminars or workshops, but only 33% of them gave courses for professionals. The rate of interaction

was very low (three institutions) for carrying out collaborative projects with the professional world. Finally, only seven out of twenty four institutions mentioned that work placement was a component of their program. Analyzing these results in terms of theoretically-oriented, balanced and professionally-oriented groups, Kemble concluded that the vocationally oriented group "enjoy[ed] a slightly higher but distinctly more varied level of interaction with the translation profession" (2006: 6).

In the present study, the respondents reported relatively high material interaction, e.g. about 75% of the respondents mentioned that authentic texts were used always or frequently for teaching and assessment purposes, but relatively lower professional interaction, e.g. educational activities held in cooperation with professional bodies (19%) and work placement components in the training (20%). Human interaction, involving academic translating professionally (50%), professionals teaching in training programs (33%) and professional talks in training programs (26%), is between the two. In the interviews, I asked the administrators of translation programs and the employer of translators about interaction, and the results are provided in Chapter 8.

Chapter 7. Interviews with Graduates

This section presents the results of the semi-structured interviews carried out with twelve graduates of translator-training programs. The interviews were conducted between March and August 2012. Introductory information is provided to explain the work experience of the interviewees, establishing a link between their training and their professional career. The interview data are filtered in view of the two main focuses of this research. I first extract the commonly expressed themes related to the weaknesses in translator-training programs, and then interpret the interviewees' comments on the link between training and the market.

7.1. The work experience of the interviewees

This part of the study provides detailed information about the work experience of interviewees, with reference to their educational background, why and when they decided to study translation, how they found a job after graduation, and information about their current work. The interviewees' job-finding or work-related experience provides significant information, specifically on the initial passage from training to the market, how graduates plan their career choices, why they choose a profession other than translating and interpreting, and mobility in the job market.

Interviewee 1 (coded here as I1) is an in-house translator working in the public sector. She graduated from Hacettepe University in 2000. She worked in a non-governmental organization as a translator in the last two years of her undergraduate study. Studying in the translation and interpreting department was a conscious choice in her life. However, in the third and fourth years of university, she decided not to become a translator and interpreter because of fear of unemployment. She worked in different jobs after graduation. In 2003, thanks to an exceptional article in the law, she had the chance to be employed directly in the public sector, and since then she has been working in the public sector. She has been employed in various ministries/departments in the public sector since 2003.

Interviewee 2 (I2) had experience as an in-house translator, freelancer and company owner; she was an in-house translator when I administered the questionnaire

and was not working when I carried out the interview. She graduated from Bilkent University in 2001:

> Up to now, I have worked as in-house certified translator and interpreter (in English, French and Turkish), then as a translation agency owner and a certified translator/interpreter (in English-Turkish and vice versa) simultaneously; and then my company was shut down and I became a freelance certified translator and interpreter. Currently, I have been seeking new challenges to serve people and myself and making research about niche markets regarding needs of translation such as transcreation.

Interviewee 3 (I3) is an in-house translator working in the Turkish office of an international organization. She graduated from Hacettepe University in 2009. She is also freelancing. During her study, she volunteered to work on an e-magazine and translated particularly academic texts as a freelancer. For the work-placement component of her study, she worked in a translation agency. Since childhood, she has met many translators/interpreters due to her social environment. She had the impression that this occupation was very convenient because many of translators around her were freelancing and working very flexibly. Her family encouraged her to be a translator, and she deliberately selected the program in Hacettepe.

Interviewee 4 (I4) is an in-house translator from Bilkent University. She graduated in 2010, and is currently employed as a translator in a foundation, functioning as a non-profit research institute. During her study and after graduation, she did freelance translation for various companies and also translated books. Her story of deciding to study translation is worthy of note. She wanted to study English-language teaching. She came third in the university entrance exam. "But, although I received a very high score, I could not be placed in English-language teaching departments of very good universities, for example Bilkent," she says. Then because she received a high score in the exam, she was invited by some universities. After meeting and talking to the professors in the department, she decided to study translation and interpreting at Bilkent. She chose Bilkent because the department works with two foreign languages, and she would also have the chance to be a teacher after graduation. Thus, she decided to be a translator not before but during her study, and she reported being very happy with this decision.

After graduation, she looked for a job opportunity in EU projects, but stated that these positions usually called for longer experience in translation. While seeking a full-time position, she worked as a freelance translator and interpreter, and also translated books. She has been employed as a full-time in-house translator since March 2011.

Interviewee 5 (I5) is now a language teacher but was a freelance translator when I conducted the survey. He graduated from Hacettepe University in 2000. After graduation, he first worked as a translator and editor in a publishing house, and then as a research assistant (both translation researcher and translator trainer) in the translation department of a university. He reported having chosen studying translation "due to a lack of options":

> I was either going to become a teacher of English, or a translator. It was the same situation while I was studying the discipline. In fact, I had never felt myself inclined to any areas, so I chose the most rational option within the department of foreign language studies. I have decided to become a language teacher after I have grown fed up with working as a freelancer. I became a teacher because I needed a regular and higher income.

Interviewee 6 (I6) is a freelance translator. He graduated from Bilkent University in 2002. After graduation, he worked as a journalist and was also the owner of a production company until 2008, and has been a freelancer since then. He chose to study translation and interpreting because he believed this was a profession that would allow him to work independently: "I have problems with obeying people. Further, I wanted to have a profession where I could reach international knowledge and circles and keep myself up-to-date. Translation was the most ideal profession that could provide me with this opportunity," he reported. However, while studying, he decided not to be a translator because he did not feel prepared to work in the sector. This was not because he lacked language skills required in the market, but because he was not familiar with the market. He reported having had his internship at a newspaper while other students in the department had their internship in translation companies. When it was time for the internship, he had already decided not to be a translator. Not knowing much about the sector, he felt he would be pushed into something unfamiliar. That is why he preferred journalism, which was his father's profession. Working as a journalist, he believed in what he was doing, and he was appreciated.

He nevertheless argued that he lacked the social skills required to be a journalist. He had difficulty adapting to people's attitudes related to competition and obedience issues in senior-junior relations, and finally returned to the translation sector as a freelancer. Unlike other freelancing interviewees, he started freelancing as a preferred career choice and a preferred mode of working, rather than as an obligation to make his living. When I6 first decided to enter the translation sector, it was not easy. He got in touch with some people who had graduated from the same department. However, most of them were not working as translators, and the few people who were in the profession were not satisfied. Through one of his friends, he got in touch with a translation company, where he started working first as a project assistant and then as a project manager. This experience was a turning point in his life. He defines project management as a key role. Project managers receive commissions from clients and translated products from translators. Thus, they have the chance to see and compare what clients expect and what translators produce. As a project manager, I6 reported having had the opportunity to look at the sector from a wider perspective. As a result of this, he concluded that he could earn three or four times more than the standard national rates by working with high-quality project managers and project-management processes. He said this requires taking advantage of communities such as ProZ, creating an effective CV, and managing to get international projects. While working as a project manager, he learned CAT tools, how the sector functions, and so on. Then he told the company that he would not work as a project manager anymore, and would support them as a freelancer translator. He started working with foreign clients and taking part in international tenders, and increased his income gradually. Thus, for him, translation has become a profession that he likes very much and from which he earns satisfactorily. That is why, in the interview, he mentioned that he could be a translator until the end of his life.

Interviewee 7 (I7) is a freelance translator. He graduated from Hacettepe University in 2009. He is freelancing because he has just returned from military service and is looking for a permanent job as a translator. In his story, studying translation was "the final step of a plan" he made during his high-school years. His ultimate goal was to become a translator when he gained university entry. He was aware of factors such as occupational hardships or the lack of regulations in the market, which distracted his peers

from becoming translators after graduation. However, he mentioned that those factors did not apply to him.

Interviewee 8 (I8) is a full-time translator in a translation company. She worked as a freelancer during her study and after graduation. She graduated from Bilkent University in 2011. Her views are particularly important because she is a recent graduate and is more likely to reflect recent practices in training settings.

She decided to study translation because she has always been interested in foreign languages and cultures, and both her parents and some other family members have been engaged in language-related professions. While choosing the department, her motivation was to be a simultaneous interpreter. However, "I moved away from interpreting because I didn't study enough and realized that it is quite hard. But I studied translation fondly and never regretted my decision," she said. When graduation was approaching, she started thinking about job alternatives. However, she was undecided, and could not find an appropriate job. She started doing Master's at a university, where she met various professors and students. She worked as a freelancer for a translation agency for about six months, but left this job because they were not paying regularly. Then with the help of a friend, she found a full-time job in another translation agency. When I conducted the interview, she had been working there for only one month. Her main aim has been to become a translator in a twinning project[45] or in a ministry. However, while seeking work, she has not come across any relevant job announcement. In the interview, she said that she was happy with her current job but was not sure whether this might be a permanent position for her. She has also been thinking of being an academic.

Interviewee 9 (I9) is a language teacher employed at a high school. He graduated from Hacettepe University in 2002. He decided to be a language teacher after graduation. When he started teaching, he had been working freelance for four years (two years during his study and two years after graduation). However, he noted that working as a freelance translator was extremely tiring due to irregular work hours, inability to plan even the next day, and lack of labor rights such as insurance, health and work guarantee. He complained

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[45] The European Commission defines twinning as "an instrument for the cooperation between Public Administrations of EU Member States (MS) and of beneficiary countries" developed in order to "to share good practices developed within the EU with beneficiary public administrations and to foster long-term relationships between administrations of existing and future EU countries". Beneficiaries of the projects are candidate countries and potential European Union members. http://ec.europa.eu/enlargement/tenders/twinning/index_en.htm. Accessed June 2013.

that translators, the very persons doing the actual job, earn the least money in comparison to other stakeholders such as the owner of the company, the notary, etc. He said he did not have enough courage to launch his own business after graduation due to the unstable market in 2002 and 2003.

Interviewee 10 (I10) is a language teacher (an instructor) at a foundation university. She graduated from Bilkent University in 2002. She worked in an embassy in Ankara for three years, and while working she completed a teaching certificate from a university. She had decided to become a translator and interpreter when she was at high school, and was eager to advance in this profession. Furthermore, she was planning to be employed in the translation and interpreting sector when she was studying. However, she reported having chosen teaching as a career for private reasons.

Interviewee 11 (I11) is a language teacher (an instructor) employed at a state university. She graduated from Hacettepe University in 2009. Throughout her high school education, it was her dream to be an interpreter. That is why she chose to study translation and interpreting. While studying, her aim was still to become an interpreter after graduation. After graduating, she worked as an in-house translator in an engineering company. She chose language teaching not because she was underpaid as a translator, nor because she did not feel prepared for the translation market after training, but because she needed more interaction:

> I worked as a translator for four months upon graduation, then I started to work as an instructor. Currently I do not work as a translator. Actually, it is not about market conditions. I do not earn a lot of money in my current job. But working as a translator was too tiring for me. And I like interacting with people. I mean, I like working with a group. So, I thought it wasn't my type to sit on a desk all day till my eyes turn totally red and my mind full of words.

Interviewee 12 (I12) is a teacher at a private language school. She graduated from Bilkent University in 2010, and started working at this school after six-months' experience as a freelancer. She chose to study translation and interpreting, mainly to be an interpreter at an international organization in Turkey or abroad. However, she explained that during her study they were mostly warned against the challenges of not only interpreting but also translation. The challenges were in most cases related to

irregular workloads and working hours. That is why she preferred teaching, to be able to have some control over her professional life.

Table 7.1 summarizes the professional status of the interviewees in the past and in 2012, when the interviews were conducted:

Table 7.1. Professional experience of the interviewees

Interviewees	Past experience	Profession in 2012
I1	In-house translator in various state institutions	In-house translator in the public sector
I2	In-house translator, freelancer, translation agency owner	Unemployed
I3	Freelancer, translator in a translation agency (internship)	In-house translator in the Turkish representative of an international organization + freelancer
I4	Freelancer, book translator;	In-house translator in a foundation + freelancer
I5	Literary translator, research assistant, freelancer	Language teacher at a university
I6	Journalist	Freelancer
I7	Translator in a translation agency, freelancer	Freelancer (seeking a full-time job)
I8	Freelancer	In-house translator in a translation agency + freelancer
I9	Freelancer	Language teacher in a high school
I10	In-house translator in an embassy	Language teacher at a university
I11	In-house translator	Language teacher at a university
I12	Freelancer	Language teacher in a private high school

An overview of the professional background of the interviewees provides information about various aspects of the translation profession. The main results obtained from the above statements of the interviewees can be summarized as follows:

I interviewed four graduates of translator-training programs who now work as foreign-language teachers at universities or high schools. They all reported that they planned to be a translator and/or interpreter when choosing to study in this program. However, after graduation, one of them preferred teaching because he was not happy with freelance translation and did not want to work in a translation company because he was underpaid. Another reported having quit the translation profession and preferred teaching because she needed more social interaction in her work. One of the language teachers said that she chose her current profession due to private reasons. The fourth interviewee preferred teaching because she wanted have control over her working time. She complained that translators – not only freelancers and but in many cases in-house translators – have irregular working hours.

Of the twelve interviewees, only one stated that she had not wanted to be a translator before taking the university entrance exam. She nevertheless preferred the translation program to a foreign-language teaching program because her exam score was not high enough to be placed in a teaching department at a "good" university. She is currently working as a translator. Another interviewee said that a student preferred either language teaching or translation and interpreting if they studied foreign languages in high school. He preferred translation because it seemed the most "rational" choice among foreign-language departments. The other interviewees defined studying translation as a goal, a dream, a part of their career plan, or a means of working independently in the future. In the same respect, Liu's (2011) interviews with three professionals show that the two professionals that had planned to become translators during their higher education did minors in translation and took translation-related courses, although they were not studying translation. The third interviewee had not expected to be a translator during her study in Psychology, but she did a Master of Arts in Translation and Interpreting after handling translation-related assignments in the company where she had been employed.

Another important finding in the present study is related to freelancing. The surveys by Fraser and Gold (2001), Byrne (2003) and Schellekens (2004) suggest that freelancing has been increasingly seen as a preferred choice for many translators. However, the interviewees in this study seem to say the opposite. The graduates reported that freelancing was a transition period for them. Two graduates (I5 and I9) are currently language teachers after working as freelancers, and a further two (I4 and I8) are now in-house translators after freelancing experience. Two others (I2 and I7) are freelancing and at the same time seeking a job. Only I6 reported that he was satisfied with his position as a freelancer and considered freelancing a long-term option. Also supporting the survey data (48.8% of the graduates surveyed mentioned freelancing as their second or third role), five interviewees stated that they have been doing freelance translation in addition to their positions as in-house translators or language teachers.

The interviews also drew attention to the mobility of professionals in the labor market. In this research, during the 12 to 18-month period between the surveys and the interviews, one-fourth of the interviewees (selected from among the survey respondents) had changed their professional activity, one moving from freelancing to language teaching, another one moving from in-house translation to freelancing (because he was

looking for another permanent job opportunity) and another moving from in-house translation to unemployment (because she was seeking "new challenges").

The interviews indicate that the social skills and interaction required in the translation profession have different effects on graduates' choices. While some graduates may prefer translation in order to escape from a socially challenging job, others leave translation because they are looking for more social interaction. For instance, I6 said that he returned to the translation profession because it does not call for social skills as much as was required in his previous job as a journalist. Further, he preferred translation at the very beginning, when he made a choice to enter the university, because this profession would allow him to work independently, without affiliation to any superiors or institutions. I3 also mentioned that she chose this job mainly because of the attraction of freelancing and thus working independently and flexibly. However, in the case of I10, the interviewee quit working as a translator and preferred teaching because translation as a profession did not meet her need for social interaction. For her, translation means sitting on a desk in front of a computer for long hours, without personal interaction.

7.2. What is and what should be taught in translator-training programs

The interviewees were asked about the link between what they learnt in the translator-training program and what they do currently in the translation market. The main topics they mentioned are provided below.

7.2.1. Theory and practice

Five interviewees commented on the teaching of practice and theory in translator-training programs. Three argued that theory should be taught, and that knowing theory is one of the factors distinguishing translation graduates from other translators on the market.

I3 drew attention to the need to link theory with practice. She referred to the integration of theory and practice that has been sought in the Translation Studies literature for decades, and complained about the complexity of learning pure theory:

> I think theory classes are very important and are what makes us different from translators without a diploma. However, the content of this course is a bit complicated and challenging for many students. I believe holding workshops and

putting the theories into practice in this way would be much more beneficial for students.

She further pointed out the need for more practice, mentioning that students worked with a great variety of texts, but they were actually very few texts.

I6 is not sure about the contribution of theory to his current work as a freelancer, but assumes that theory may help students. Without knowing much about translation theory, he indirectly referred to needs of target readers and the functions of a target text, naming this process as "empathizing with the client". For him, adopting a theory and handling every text with the same theory would be meaningless in the sector. Empathizing with the client and with the text is a more basic principle. Thus, the essential theory is empathy. From the perspective of his freelancing experience, theory does not seem useful to him. However, he noted that a few papers he read or a few words he heard on theory might have helped him to develop empathy or to see translation from a wider perspective in his current job. Translation theory may be a factor that leads students – future translators – to adopt a multi-perspective approach to texts.

As an in-house translator in a research institute, I4 stated that she did not take any theoretical courses during her study at Bilkent University, and has never regretted this when working in the market. When the interview was conducted, she was doing Master's in translation and interpreting, and believed that theory would help her only when she is writing her Master's thesis or if she finds a position as an academic. With respect to translation practice, she noted that teaching methods varied from one professor to another, but that the professors generally preferred the traditional approach, i.e. assigning a text for translation and then reading translations sentence by sentence in the class. Nevertheless, there were exceptions, which she found very useful:

> For instance, in literary translation, the teacher divided up a novel, and distributed the pieces to the students in the classroom. We translated the pieces, and then in the classroom work, we discussed translation problems we encountered, how we solved the problems, specific terms, and so on.

The texts selected for translation classes also varied from one trainer to another during her study. They translated many kinds of texts. In the final year, they translated

documents such as diplomas, identity cards and driving licenses, which are encountered more commonly in translation agencies.

In the interview, I8 mentioned that they received practice-oriented training during their study at Bilkent University. The focus on practice had been repeated constantly by trainers. The trainers explained that the program was designed as a practice-oriented one, and thus they could not revise the curriculum to include theory. I8 mentioned that they studied theories only in one course, but never combined them with practice. For this course, they just prepared individual PowerPoint presentations on various approaches in Translation Studies. She added that she studied translation theory to prepare for the Master's program.

It is worthy of note that, until she started working in the sector, the graduate was not aware of the importance of the target audience and client expectations in the translation process. The concept of target-orientedness, more precisely what the client expects from a translation, was not mentioned in the courses, even independently from theory. She believes theory should be taught in translator-training programs. It would be helpful for graduates, for example, to consult someone about translation, or to discuss a translation.

What she said about teaching the practice of translation reveals a gap between market practices and what was taught in the program:

> I cannot say that I am totally satisfied with what we learnt at school. However, as the training in our department was practice-oriented, it makes our work easier when we first enter the market. But there is some disaccord with the market. For instance, during the training, we were always advised to use terms or words with Turkish origin (pure Turkish) in translations from English into Turkish. But when translating professionally, I happened to see that this is not always what the client expects from you. To give an example, in medical texts, clients usually want us to preserve a term in its original form. We have learnt, after entering the market, that we have to consider client expectations during the translation process.

I8 gave a very basic word-level example. During the training, she was always encouraged to find a pure Turkish correspondent to the word "specific". However, in one of her first translations for the translation agency where she is currently working, she was asked to keep the word as "spesifik", according to the Turkish orthography.

These comments by this recent graduate may suggest that, even though they are not directly present in the curriculum as separate courses, the concepts and premises of translation as a scientific discipline may be used in designing courses in translation practice, particularly with functionalist approaches to translation. A very simple example is that students may be asked to do source-text analysis and produce translations according to the needs of different clients.

As addressed in the Literature Review, many scholars take it for granted that theory is useful when it is dealt with and dovetailed to practice. Pym (2005) nevertheless challenges this generally accepted idea, arguing that theories are there for the sake of academic and institutional power. For him, theories should not be expected to help trainees or translators directly. Lederer (2007: 19) also adopts a similar approach from the perspective of agents. Lederer (2007: 19) suggests that "translation teachers do not have to be translation scholars", and thus for teaching "they do not need in-depth knowledge required of translation scholars, whose task it is to contribute to the advancement of science".

In the interviews, some of the interviewees suggested putting theories into practice so that it would be more helpful and comprehensible for trainees. On the other hand, some interviewees suggested that theory should be an elective component so that the trainees who planned to be involved in academic work could take the course, and that theory would be helpful if they decided to work in the academy. Thus, the viewpoints on the integration of theory with practice do not seem to support Pym's and Lederer's idea that theories are not needed for practical purposes but for academic purposes, i.e. to ensure the sustainability of disciplines and institutions. Interviewees have mostly commented on the practical effects of learning translation theory at the university. The interviews also show that graduates have not grasped the essence of theory, in terms of contributing to both translation practice and the advancement of the discipline, even though they received theory courses. They fail to use the translation jargon to explain simple facts about the act and process of translation. This leads us to think that the theory components already offered in training programs may be revised to assure that trainers provide students with

as many approaches and views as possible to make them flexible in decision-making processes in a real-life professional career. The best way of doing so is to introduce a large number of theories and their preferred views on translation to

students by using them and make them visible in the classroom. (Calzada Pérez 2004: 130-131)

7.2.2. Technology

Teaching (translation) technologies is one of the main concerns of this study, as it is considered an important factor in bringing training practices closer to the market.

I1, working as an in-house translator in a government department, stated that she does not use any translation technology in her work. In the department, they outsource the translation of the EU *acquis* to translation companies, and then revise the translations coming from the companies to ensure the congruity of language and terminology in all texts. She has added that Trados may be used in their case, but they do not use it. During her professional life, she mostly worked with the same terminology in various government departments, and usually assumed a role as a proofreader rather than a translator. Asked whether she would be more confident entering the market if she had mastered technological skills, she said that she already had word-processing skills and graduates were not expected to have translation technology skills when she graduated (in 2000).

With her experience as a freelancer and translation agency owner, I2 mentioned the use of technology in translator training for both facilitating the translation process and familiarizing oneself more with the translation profession. She thinks that an "introduction to translation software" course is crucial at university to catch up with the needs of the "highly globalized" world. In addition, translation companies should ensure in-house training for their translators so as to manage the business flow easily. She calls for a labor of division between training and the sector to teach translation technologies, with respective ratios of 40% and 60%.

For the purpose of learning more about the translation profession, she suggests using social media in general, as well as special portals for translators. Google Hangout may be used, and translator/interpreter blogs should be read regularly to become familiar with the advantageous and challenging aspects of the profession. Twitter and Facebook might be used to learn different ways of handling jobs in different countries. Translation portals would also help.

I3, also an in-house translator, does not use TMs in her work but reported having learned them during her study. She referred to the use of social media in translation

classes, particularly for keeping oneself up-to-date and improving foreign-language skills:

> Nowadays social media is a vital area; the courses can make use of social media. Students must have the enthusiasm to follow the recent events more closely. For instance, Twitter is my primary tool now to follow news channels worldwide. You can learn any news and events immediately after they occur. It is a very efficient tool to follow media. I even use it to improve my English. The key is to update yourself, I believe. For example, I started to receive many medical texts on bird flu when the disease broke out. Now I am translating mostly materials about the Syrian conflict and the Arab Spring. As one is well aware of the current issue regionally or worldwide, it will be much more interesting and easier to translate those texts.

Based on his experience both in the market and as a translator trainer, I5 argued that technology should be mostly learnt at the university because "the colleagues, supervisors, or bosses would be reluctant to help the novice translator about learning these skills".

I6, as a freelancer working in the international arena, is a vigorous defender of the use of technology in translation, and insisted that translators should master translation-specific technology during their training. He argued that the market does not need translators with excellent language competence any more, but seeks professionals that have perfect command of "how the sector functions", which includes intensive use of technology. He calls translating "localization engineering", a field that needs people who know, for example, the jargons of the sector, resources, how to use glossaries, how to use CAT tools, and so on. According to his observations, translation companies do not look for translators but for professionals who can use these programs and master the sectorial jargon. Admitting that language teaching is an important component of translator training, he argues that prospective translators should be equipped with technological skills from the beginning of their training, as well as language proficiency. He does not see rapidly changing and new technologies as a challenge, since behind all new technologies there are a few basic algorithms. Students should be familiar with these algorithms.[46]

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[46] This argument finds support in the literature: "In most case it would suffice to train students in the use of one specific tool for translation activities (more would be welcome, but two would be enough), with

What I8 said about translation technologies is of particular importance because her statements reflect the opinions of a very recent graduate (2011) of a translator-training program, currently employed in a translation agency. She reports that, until the final year of the study, they were not even aware of translation technologies. In the fourth year, a course on technology for translators was offered as an elective, but she did not take the course. She had been to Belgium with Erasmus exchange program, and learnt about these programs there, although the course was not very comprehensive. In the translation agency where she currently works they use TMs, and she is still learning the program used there. She says that TMs are used and required a lot in professional life: "The faster you work, the more you fulfill the employers' needs." She added that the school she graduated from has very recently started dealing with translation technologies.

I9, as a relatively older graduate not working as a translator, mentioned more basic skills such as use of the Internet and typing, when he was asked about the place of technology in translation classes:

> Technology must be a prerequisite during training. For example, students may be given a translation work (diploma, power of attorney, contract, etc.) in a class full of internet-connected-computers allocated for each student. They may be asked to finish their work in typed form within a certain limit of time by making use of online sources. Long-term projects may be assigned to a group of students to stimulate collaboration, communication and self-assessment, which are modern requirements the employers strongly need.

I12, a translation graduate employed as a teacher, drew attention to the inconsistency between trainers and professionals regarding the use of technology in the profession. In her words, trainers tend to associate technology with basic computer use, especially the use of MS Office programs, while professionals talk about more complex tools with which the trainers are usually not familiar.

When asked about the use of technology in translator training and translation processes without giving any specifications about the scope of technology, the interviewees mentioned the following five points: 1) simply using word-processing

the idea that it would be better to master one or two tools perfectly well and on the basis of this mastery be able to familiarise oneself with other tools fairly quickly" (Thelen 2011: 173).

programs to type a translation, 2) using the Internet to seek information, 3) using social media to remain up-to-date on both global events and progress in the translation world, 4) using technologies to communicate with and exchange information with clients and colleagues, and 5) using specifically translation technologies. It is worthy of note that relatively older graduates among interviewees complained about the lack of a computer laboratory where they would be able to type their translations and use the Internet, whereas recent graduates are more inclined to use terms such as CAT tools or TMs. In addition to the use of the Internet for information mining, some graduates also touched upon the use of social media to keep up to date with the latest developments and the use of communication technologies to interact with both clients and colleagues. For instance, I6 drew attention to the globalizing translation market, and added that he usually received work from international clients (mostly companies based in a foreign country), working from his home in Istanbul. As a freelancer, he highlighted that technology provided him with the mode of working that he has always dreamt of, in addition to allowing him to translate faster and thus to respond more easily to market demands. The interviews have shown us that the graduates employed in more competitive settings, i.e. on the freelance market and in translation agencies, are more inclined to use translation technologies, and strongly agree that translation technologies as well as communication technologies should be learnt during training.

These findings may lead us to the conclusion that, although translator-training programs cannot allocate time for every single TM program or offer a course on web-based translation portals, they may incorporate in their curricula the basics of TMs and how they are used in producing translations, and make students aware of the risks as well as potentials of the Internet. The Internet has transformed translation from a paper-based activity to a computer-based activity, as a result of which the market now demands faster, more competitive and versatile translators (Byrne 2007). Thus, translator-training programs may be expected to teach the basics of translation-specific technologies, including translation memory tools and terminology management software. They can also teach how to make effective use of the Internet in the translation process and for secondary purposes such as seeking work, communicating with colleagues or self-improvement through online programs. The Internet, as a free zone, presents unreliable or misleading information in addition to a huge amount of valuable information. The

effective use of the Internet during training may help students distinguish between reliable and unreliable information, under the supervision of instructors.

In the interviews, both recent and older graduates also complained that the technology-related knowledge was limited to the knowledge of the instructors, and acquiring this knowledge was due to individual efforts by students, rather than being offered systematically in specifically designed courses. Even the graduates not employed in the translation market believe that they need to acquire basic technology skills during the training in order to enter the market more confidently and not to waste time gaining basic skills after being employed. Three graduates added that employers or colleagues in the work place are usually reluctant to help novice translators learn these skills. This complaint may be taken into consideration in curriculum design.

7.2.3. Professional issues

The interviewees were also asked to what extent they learned and they would prefer to have learned about professional issues and the functioning of the translation market. With regard to this, I1 particularly pointed out the importance of work placements for professionalization. As one of the older graduates, she complained about the lack of an obligatory work placement component in the program when she was studying. Due to this, the students did not know much about work opportunities and conditions for translators. She further claimed that, during her study, trainers did not provide enough guidance about what they could do after graduation and how to look for a job. She believes that, as most programs presently include work placement, students are more aware of job opportunities on the market. Work placement not only contributes to the future career of students but also provides a chance for networking.

I1 was working with novice translators in the institution where she is employed and in engaged in the process of translations outsourced to other institutions, including translation programs in universities. She thus had a good chance to observe the needs of new translators. She mentioned the challenges for new recruits in the translation market:

> The market is highly commercial, there is competition, there may emerge unethical attitudes between employees and employers, and between translators. One should know how to act politically to maintain good relations. I am not sure if all our lecturers know well about the sector because many of them do not work in the

market actively. The theoretical knowledge they shared with us is not applicable in all real-life cases as real life is more about human relations and case-specific.

I2, involved in the market as a freelancer, in-house translator, and translation company owner, complains about entering the translation sector without knowing anything about the legal and financial rights and responsibilities of translators, saying that there are no courses teaching financial and citizenship duties, rights and responsibilities of the translators/translation company owners.

I2's suggestions for better translator training also include strategies for coping with the challenges of professional life as a translator. If prospective translators know more about professional life, they are more prepared for the stress and the challenges of this activity. Among her suggestions for stress management in professional life are regular seminars on the psychological situations that translators/interpreters are exposed to, time management tips for translators, work-life balance strategies for translators, delegation strategies for translators, and training on the rights and responsibilities of future entrepreneurs.

I4 was one of the graduates who had recently passed through the job-finding process. She drew attention to the unprofessional manners in the recruitment process. She believes that graduates enter the market more easily if they have acquaintances in the business circle. Otherwise, one has to strive hard, and is faced with the risk of being rejected many times and losing motivation.

She also touched upon the importance of work placement during training. At the university, they had one-month obligatory internship. However, she had internships in four different work places, i.e. in the Turkish office of an international organization, in a state institution, at a TV channel and in a publishing house. Thus, she became familiar with professional procedures in different environments.

I5 emphasized that reducing student quotas in translator-training institutions and making internships more effective would be more important than trying to provide students with everything they need as a translator:

> I believe the key to improve the quality of translation education is to accept lower number of students to schools and supervise the scholars and the curriculum. Thus, the teachers, most of whom I find highly incompetent would be more motivated to

do their jobs. Therefore, the students would be allocated more and more personalized time. In addition, internship is also important and this process should be repeated several times during the education process, as well as being supervised seriously by the teachers.

I6 believes that students should be familiarized with the sector before they graduate so that they have the courage to step into the market directly after school. He adopts a critical approach to a method based on teaching language and target-text production, arguing that the process of translating, including e.g. receiving and handling a project, communicating with clients, submitting the work on time and invoicing, should be taught to students. To achieve this, he suggests creating simulation environments in translator-training institutions. For him, what is important in the training process is to enable students to select a specialization field, and carry out projects in this field as if it were a real-world job; and maybe credit them according to their performance as if they earned from that project in real life. The most significant deficiency and need in this sector is professionalism. This term includes observing deadlines, using glossaries provided, revising and spell-checking the target text before submitting it, and so on. Simulation may be the best choice for training professionals. From the beginning, students can act as if they were in the sector. In this respect, he again mentioned the term "localization engineering", which is a concept going beyond language competence and involving social and communicative aspects.

I6 added two more things that may be taught to translation students at the university, which support I2's viewpoints about the legal and financial situation of professional translators. One of them is the legal bases for being a freelancer, and the other is knowledge of labor law, taxation and so on. These should be taught in the final year of the study. Translation students should graduate as all-round professionals, not just as people who translate a text well. The translator-training program can do this.

I6 also referred to the communication aspect of professionalism, recalling that one of the most useful courses he received at school was Business Communications, where he learned how to communicate with clients:

When you communicate with clients correctly, they approach you differently, especially the clients whose mother tongue is English. Communicating correctly is as important as translating accurately. You can teach this at school by simulation.

I am aware I turned the school into a completely simulation environment. But I am dreaming of a school that teaches language on one hand and professionalization on the other.

I8 also asserted that they learned professional and technical procedures by trial and error. She said that a couple of trainers in the department were translating professionally in the market. They spoke about market procedures when the students asked, in or out of the classroom. However, the students needed individual motivation to learn about all these procedures, which were not provided systematically during the training.

I9 expressed the need for greater focus on practice in translator training. He was one of the interviewees, together with I8, who made a connection between the age of trainers and being aware of the real market conditions: "The training should have more practical focus, and practice courses should be given by young lecturers aware of up-to-date methods and market realities. There is definitely need for focus on professional issues." He was also one of the interviewees who emphasized the importance of work experience through internships. Students that plan to begin an academic career may be offered training with greater emphasis on theory and quality assessment. I9 further believed that "communication, collaboration and computing skills" need to be focused on during training, to improve professional skills of students.

I9 was one of the graduates that mentioned the gaps regarding the rights of translators, particularly with respect to the unequal distribution of income from translation work. The market expects, particularly from freelancers, the lowest price and speed for a translation commission. Under these circumstances, it is easy to find translators prepared to work for very low rates, making translators in general the "poorest" member of the business without any kind of labor right.

Concerning any gaps between training and market expectations, I9 argues that academic training did not meet any market expectations because, in the market, translators are expected "to think, translate, and type fast". Education may focus more on these expectations. He further claimed that the training techniques are too traditional: "the lecturers, who do not have any experience in the market, are incompetent; the department does not have any real connection with the market".

I11 was another interviewee that drew attention to the importance of time management in work. She argued that the training programs may use simulation activities so that students improve their time management skills.

The content of training programs and how this content is offered play an important role in the future professional orientation of students. I12 was one of the interviewees that preferred teaching to translating because she was informed about the "negative side" of the profession, including challenges related to workload and work speed. She stated that there was inconsistency about what trainers expected them to do and what the professionals invited to the program told them about the translation market. Thus, "to be on the safe side", she chose to be a teacher.

The important points highlighted by graduates about learning professional issues and gaining professional skills during training may be summarized as follows:

1. The graduates mention the importance of work placements, and see work-placement programs as the only opportunity to learn about the profession during their training.

2. The more trainers work in the market, the more they know about the market, the graduates believe. They further tend to make a connection between the age of trainers and providing up-to-date information about the market. They argue that younger teachers are more involved in the market.

3. The graduates also state that they usually acquire information on professional issues through their own efforts, whether it be from professionals or trainers. This information is not provided systematically in the training process. Furthermore, any inconsistency between what professionals and trainers say may turn students away from a career in translation and make them seek alternatives.

4. Particularly the graduates with freelancing experience argue that the financial and legal rights of translators, and financial issues, e.g. taxation, related to freelancing, may be offered as a course in translator-training programs. Thus, upon graduation, more translators may prefer working as freelancers and choose this mode of work, rather than seeking a safer job or an unsatisfying in-house job.

5. Managing time in a project, meeting a deadline or establishing effective written and verbal communication with clients may be considered details of the profession. But the contemporary world is more demanding in terms of speed, work discipline and communication. Thus, if translators acquire these skills before graduation, they "take stronger and more self-confident steps when they enter the market", as argued by one of the freelancing translators (I6). Otherwise, graduates have to grope their way in the market after graduation, which is a challenging process that may result in discouragement or exploitation of new graduates, or they may seek a safer profession that has more established recruitment and performance standards (which seems to be language teaching, according to the survey data).

7.2.4. Language and terminology

Language and terminology constitute another topic commonly mentioned by the interviewees. Working as an in-house translator with specific terminology, I1 suggests that terminology is one of the areas that training should focus on. In this respect, she emphasizes the importance of both the language and field-specific competence of trainers, drawing attention to a dilemma regarding this. To exemplify, if one of the teachers in the translation department offers a course on the translation of economic texts, students risk completing the course with limited knowledge of economics; if a teacher from the economics department offers the course, they risk learning economics with very bad English. If field experts give a field-specific course, they need to have a certain command of the foreign language, as they are teaching students of translation and interpreting. If professors from the translation department are giving field-specific courses, they need deeper knowledge in the field. I1 argues that this is one of the basic issues in translator-training departments.

Believing that a diploma in translation is not required in order to work as a translator, I3 said that many people now have the chance to study abroad, and the Internet helps to improve foreign-language skills. She reported having met many people that have better writing and translating skills than many of her colleagues. With a little practice, many people who have not studied in a translation and interpreting program can do well at translating. Moreover, people that study in a particular field have better knowledge of

the discourse and terminology. For her, those studying in a specific field in English have a very good command of both field knowledge and English. Thus, they perform better, particularly in specialized translation, she believes.

Related to the place of language in translator training, I4, employed as an in-house translator, touched upon the importance of translation into the second language. During the training, they mostly had translation practice into the mother tongue. However, in her current job, 99% of her translations are into English. Translation into the mother tongue may be the ideal. However, in practice, it is not enough to meet market demands. She stated that translation students need to practice actively and improve in translation into the second language because they are required to do this frequently in the market.

I6 highlighted many times during the interview that language "is of course essential but is now of secondary importance" to be a competent translator in the market. He complained about focusing on translation, language and language learning during the university program and not learning how the sector works. Working with more than ten international countries based in cities from Singapore to San Francisco, he confidently claims that employers do not expect translators to know the language perfectly. Translators are certainly required to know the source and target languages well and to produce an accurate target text. However, according to I6, what is important is to what extent translators are a part of the global localization process.

With respect to the language component of translator training, the majority of the graduates argued that the purpose of the programs is not to teach a foreign language or improve foreign-language skills, and that the students should come to these programs with a good command of both the A and the B languages. They believe that there is need to establish a link between field knowledge and language, complaining that field-specific translation courses are offered either by experts who do not speak the foreign language well or by translation teachers who are not competent in the given field.

Another issue mentioned is the need for more focus on translation into the B language because it is a demand of the market. Challenging the traditional prescriptive idea that translators should only translate into their mother tongue, both freelancers and in-house translators mention that they often have to translate into the B language. Thus, translator-training programs may be urged to see translation into non-mother tongue as a requirement of the market and to consider this requirement specifically in curriculum design.

7.3. Interaction between translator-training programs and the market

The interaction between translator-training programs and the translation market is one of the main concerns of this study. In this respect, I asked the interviewees whether they have been in contact with translator-training programs as professionals, as well as what forms of interaction took place. I also asked if such interactions would be useful for preparing students for the market.

As professionals, none of the interviewees, save for I1, has been in direct contact with the academy. I1 has been interacting with the translation and interpreting departments of universities because she is employed in a government department directly related to translation. For the translation of one of 35 chapters of the *acquis*, the department cooperated with a program in translation and interpreting at a Turkish university. Students in this department carry out pre-revisions of translations coming from translation companies, according to a guide used for the translation of the EU texts. After the pre-revision, they send texts to their professors; the professors also proofread the texts and then send them to the government department. Thus, students have a chance to improve, and they are engaged in real work, she argued.

I1 has also been invited to universities frequently to give talks about translating for the EU and the translation requirements ensuing from Turkey's candidacy for EU membership. When invited to universities, she informs students about prospective job opportunities, particularly in the EU-related sector. She has observed that at the end of these seminars students appear more relieved. When students are told what they can do after graduation, they become more self-confident. The students revising the translations of EU texts for the government agency feel as if they have entered professional life and are doing the same thing as people who have 15 years' experience. Having graduated from a translation program 15 years ago, she claimed that this is one of the important differences between today's training and the training she received. During her study, no institutional representative would come to the programs to tell students what they did in the market. There were no models. What universities do now is very good, she believes. Sparing a one-hour class for such activities contributes a lot to students' development.

When she was studying, some interpreters and translators came over and shared their experience with students. However, she remembers that many of them had negative things to say, particularly about the simultaneous interpreting sector. The invited speakers

were more likely to deter students from getting into the sector rather than motivating them for a future career.

As a former member of the academy, I5 said that he had friends in the academic world with whom he discussed translation from time to time. Other professionals stated that they had not been in contact with universities, but shared their personal experience of what happened during their studies with regard to interaction between training and the market. For instance, I3 referred to an interpreter trainer who was also working in the sector. The trainer provided students with valuable recommendations and knowledge on the profession since she was working outside the school. She incited students to carry out an interpreting project in groups. With her efforts, students had the chance to enter real booths. However, this was restricted to the individual endeavors of those particular trainers and it was not a department policy.

I3 has also warned against the tendency in the market to exploit student translators, and suggested that there is need for clearly defined agreements between training institutions and employing institutions:

> If a training-market relation is to be established, it should be organized in a way to avoid exploitation of new recruits, as the market is very keen to find cheap labor. I mean if the lecturers adopt some regulations to enable the students to work for a company or to serve an internship, there should be preset criteria concerning working hours and payment, also enabling students to receive feedback; otherwise, it will turn out to be working in vain.

With respect to the professionals invited to translation classes, she noted that speakers should have a more encouraging and informative tone rather than being discouraging and problem-centered. They generally talk about the problems they face in the sector, which as a result gives students a dark portrait of the occupation.

I4 claimed that trainers put greater emphasis on interpreting than on translating during the training process, and tend to promote the interpreting profession. She argues that this might be because all interpreter trainers were professionals in the market. They share more about professional life, and take the students (selected for the interpreting track in the final year) to real interpreting environments. Thus, interaction with the market has mostly been confined to interpreter training. She also said that interpreting was seen as a more prestigious profession compared to translation, and students are mostly

motivated and encouraged to become interpreters. Students are also advised to take a Master's degree in conference interpreting to become competent interpreters. She added that there was no extra motivation or encouragement for the translation branch of the department. Students are thus required to exert individual efforts to prove themselves in translation, she argued.

I4 further mentioned that professional translators invited to the school provided up-to-date information about practices in the market. As trainers of written translation were mostly professors in the department, who were less frequently involved in professional life, they provided limited information about market procedures and expectations.

I5 was also hesitant about the usefulness of professionals giving talks in training environments:

> To some extent, they [seminars by professionals] could work, but in my opinion seminars and lectures are mostly useless as the students are not mature enough to appreciate what they hear and are mostly interested in how much they would be earning.

In order to improve the interaction between training and the market, I7 recommended that the translation department may be used as a channel of income under the supervision of the university head. This income raised by project-based assignments - which is shared by students and managed by trainers - can be used for the needs of the department (e.g. improving the training standards, purchasing translation equipment etc.). He further believed that inviting professionals and employers is vital to broadening students' horizons.

I8, a recent graduate employed as an in-house translator, also drew attention to the importance of the professional translation experience of trainers:

> Our teachers could be younger and more active, and more involved in the profession. They could have helped us more if they had worked in the sector.

She also pointed out that professionals or employers were not invited systematically to give seminars during her training. Sometimes former graduates came to the department to visit a professor, and that professor invited them to the class so that they could answer students' questions directly. She mentioned that a Translation Club

was established by students a couple of years ago, and they invited some professionals. However, they were few in number. Furthermore, she found the activities of the TÜÇEB (the Turkish Union of Translation Students) are very useful:

> They bring the sector to us, or organize conferences with academics. I had been to their conferences as a listener, but made great use of them. It is a significant step that professionals and academics come together with students to discuss various issues and problems.

The TÜÇEB is a relatively new initiative launched by translation students in 2010. It is important that one of the recent graduates interviewed in this study mentioned this organization as a good example of interaction between training and the market. She added that the department may adopt a more systematic approach to arranging work placements for students. Rather than negotiating for a ten-student quota with TRT (Turkish Radio and Television Corporation), they can get in touch with former graduates and ask them to allocate quotas in their translation agencies. The department could offer alternatives to students. Universities could cooperate with the translation agencies or public institutions to find work placements for students. There is only a one-month obligatory work placement for translation students. Yet the school might encourage and motivate students to have experience in different work settings before graduation so that they will step into the market with more confidence, she argued.

The same interviewee explained that closer interaction between training and the market is for the sake of both parties. Students that are involved in the market during training enter the market in a more prepared way, and are more efficient for the employers in their first years rather than spending those years gaining experience. Thus, employers will recruit translators who are more qualified. Currently, employers tend to blame training programs for the inexperience and failures of novice translators. However, employers are usually not willing to accept students for internships, or tend to see internships as a way of exploiting students. By providing more work placement opportunities for students, they can communicate their expectations more directly to training programs, and thus could have a voice in the training of future professionals. On the other hand, any work experience by students may provide input for training institutions about the workings of the market. In the current situation, both parties may

be blamed. The market hesitates to be involved in training, and the training programs do not exert special efforts to provide better education.

For I9, stronger interaction between training and the market may have positive effects on both the training of qualified translators and the quality of translation work carried out in the market, and contribute to the prestige of the translation profession, which will result in stronger demand for qualified professionals for translation business. The interaction may be of real use for both students, who are in need of knowing the expectations in the market after graduation, and business professionals, who will be able to recruit qualified personnel in the training of whom they will have played an important role. If employers are involved in the training process and their expectations are taken into consideration, they will prefer qualified translators who are familiar with market conditions. This will gradually improve the prestige of the translation as well as the social security and fees of translators.

The interview findings related to the interaction between training and the market may be summarized as follows.

The most frequently mentioned form of interaction is work placements. The interviewees argue that work placements bring the parties closer, and allow them to have a say in each other's procedures. For instance, companies that recruit trainees have the chance to observe the strengths and weaknesses of a translator-training program, and communicate their demands to training programs more reasonably. On the other side, the trainees with their semi-professional work experience may play a role in informing teaching practices. Training programs may also indirectly intervene in the market by way of students that have developed higher awareness of translation practice and ethics owing to university training. These processes are expected to contribute to the improvement of both training quality and translation quality in the market. However, two interviewees warned against the tendency of work places to exploit translation students, and stated that negative work place experience may play a discouraging role in future career choice of students.

Another point related to work placements is that they should be supervised more systematically. The graduates mentioned that they have to deal with reluctant employers to find a work place, and usually have to accept whatever they find. Two interviewees suggested that the training program may be in touch with work places, including those of

former graduates, and create a sort of pool of companies and institutions from which students choose a work place according to their field of interest. Thus, the process will be managed more systematically. Another suggestion is that, if the training program sets certain criteria for the selection and completion of the placement component and is in permanent contact with work places, students will make more use of the process rather than seeing it as a waste of time.

Professional cooperation is a form of interaction mentioned by three interviewees. One of the interviewees, working in the translation department of a state institution, stated that they have already been cooperating professionally with some universities. Thus, they allow students to gain professional experience, and contact translation students and their trainers directly. Recent developments in the Turkish higher education system allow programs to cooperate with the private sector in projects and make money from those projects. I asked the administrators of training programs about the feasibility of projects with the market, and their answers are provided in section 8.1.1.3.

The interviewees also see trainers employed professionally in the market or professionals teaching in the program as a sort of interaction between the two parties. They mostly criticized their program for lack of this interaction. Also worthy of note is that many interviewees perceive interpreter training as being closer to the market than is translator training. As explained in detail in Chapter 3, translation and interpreting are offered in a single program in Turkish universities. The graduates said that the interpreting courses are mostly provided by professionals employed in the market, and that they had been to conferences in these courses to observe and in some cases to experience interpreting practice. Translation courses were almost always given by teachers affiliated with the university, usually with limited work experience outside the university.

Inviting professionals to institutions or classrooms is generally seen as a desirable form of interaction between universities and the market: in the survey of graduates 90% of the respondents stated that it is a desirable form of interaction. However, the interviewed translators – speaking on behalf of students – took a cautious position with respect to this interaction. One of them warned against the content and tone of professionals' talks, which she usually found discouraging. Another one, probably with his past experience as a translator trainer, pointed out that students are usually not mature enough to understand what professionals say. However, one of the recent graduates

argued that, as most trainers in programs do not have recent professional experience as a translator, the seminars with professionals and employers are useful for receiving up-to-date information about market practices.

None of the graduates mentioned interaction with professional associations during their training, and they are mostly not aware of the existence of such associations. Only one graduate referred to the activities of the TÜÇEB, which is the union of translation students, and was satisfied with the activities organized by this initiative. Even if the translator-training programs have been in contact with the translation or translators' associations, they have not been visible to students.

Chapter 8. Interviews with other Stakeholders

This chapter presents the results of interviews with the administrators of two translator-training programs, one employer (translation company owner), and an editor who was one of the founding members of the TÜÇEB. The interviews were carried out between October 2012 and January 2013.

8.1. Interviews with administrators of translator-training programs

I conducted interviews with the heads of the translation programs of the two universities, asking them about current translation practices and their relations with the translation market. What graduates said about their training experience was a point of reference in formulating the questions. The semi-structured forms used in these interviews can be seen in Appendix 4.

8.1.1. Interview with the head of the program at Bilkent University

I had an interview with Prof. Dr. Tanju İnal, the head of the Department of Translation and Interpreting, on October 23, 2012 in her office at Bilkent University. She has been the head of the department since its establishment in the 1992-1993 academic year. She has degree in French Language and Literature. The interview consisted of three main parts: curriculum issues, translation teaching practices in the department, and interaction between the department and the market.

8.1.1.1. Curriculum issues

Minor revisions have been made on the curriculum since the establishment of the department. The details of these revisions are provided in section 4.2.1. There are two factors that have led the department to revise the curriculum. One of these is the feedback they receive from the graduates who are now employed in the translation market. Prof. Dr. İnal mentioned that they have been in contact with the graduates, and take into consideration their professional experience in making changes to the curriculum. The second factor is the revisions of the curricula of foreign translation programs. The faculty members in the department examine the curricula of comparable programs in certain countries to check the changes, and then consider the applicability of new components in

the Turkish context. For instance, "Technology for Translators" was added to the curriculum in the academic year 2009-2010 based on the examples in some foreign universities, she said. The revisions are discussed by faculty members and approved by the Board of the School. Then they are submitted to the University Senate for final endorsement.

The two major restrictions on curricular revisions are the institutional policy and the student profile. Bilkent University has one of the few translation departments in Turkey that gives equal weight to two foreign languages (English and French), while most other departments work with a single foreign language. Nevertheless, because most of the faculty members in the department have competence in a single foreign language, many courses have two separate versions, one in French and another one in English, e.g. "Comparative Grammar (English-Turkish)" and "Comparative Grammar (French-Turkish)", or "Technical Translation (English-Turkish)" and "Technical Translation (French-Turkish)". All students in the department have to take both the French and English courses. This restricts the number of courses to be offered in one academic semester which is constrained to five courses or 30 ECTS credits. The electives are mostly offered according to the field of interest of trainers in the department.

The second restriction is the student profile, mainly with respect to foreign-language skills. Prof. Dr. İnal stated that students usually come to the program with a single foreign language, which is in most cases English, and learn the second one in a one- or two-year intensive preparatory program. Some students even have to take a preparatory program in the two languages because they are not competent enough in either. Thus, when they come to the program after the preparatory language training, they mostly need further foreign-language improvement, particularly in French. The compulsory courses are divided equally between English and French. However, the majority of elective courses are offered in French (e.g. Language of Journalism, Economics, Media Studies) so that, while acquiring general knowledge of these fields on the one hand, students have the chance to improve their second foreign language on the other.

8.1.1.2. Teaching translation practice and theory

Many of the trainers teaching in the department have a degree in modern languages, literature and/or translation. The trainers usually have professional translation experience,

and the program does not always prefer to recruit professional translators to teach. Faculty members give almost all the courses in the translation track of the program. This is mainly due to institutional and academic reasons. Prof. Dr. İnal noted that their primary concern has been to improve the language skills of students and then enable them to gain translation skills. The reason for this is explained above in section 8.1.1.1. Professionals invited to give courses in the department focused mainly on translation practice and translation skills, and not on the improvement of language skills of students. Academic trainers are more aware of the students' profile and needs.

The new recruits to the department are occasionally faculty members that have experience in university settings. Therefore, they are not provided with any training in translator training when they are employed in the department. Trainers usually make individual efforts to improve themselves in teaching translation if they do not have previous experience. The department does not offer any program for the training of trainers.

The "who'll take the next sentence" approach (Kiraly 2005: 1110, in reference to Nord's article "Wer nimmt denn mal den ersten Satz?" of 1996) has been employed in teaching translation. Prof. Dr. İnal does not believe that this is a traditional method of teaching. Students are also asked to carry out some project-based assignments. Audiovisual tools are used in translation classes, when required.

The translation program at Bilkent University has never incorporated a separate translation theory course in the curriculum since its establishment. Prof. Dr. İnal explained this as follows:

> I do not believe that students need translation theory as much as they need practice if they do not want to be an academic. […] This department is established in the School of *Applied* Languages. Thus, we are founded to teach the practice of translation. The program offers some theoretical knowledge within each relevant course.

"Technology for Translators" was added to the curriculum in 2009. This is a one-semester elective course. The quota of the course is limited to 15-20 students because of manageable class sizes. The trainers encourage students to take this course if they plan to be employed in the translation market, particularly in translation companies where

technologies are used intensively. Translation technologies have also been taught in integration with other translation courses.

The main curriculum component devoted to the professional development of students is work placement. The duration of work placement is 20 work days, and students are required to have at least one work placement during their study. The department has a list of institutions where students can be employed as trainees, which is updated annually. The department contacts these institutions every year to ask for their quota. These institutions and quotas are announced to students. Students are also allowed to find their own work placements, provided that their workload in the given place is related to their training. At the end of the placement, students submit a portfolio with daily reports on their work experience, including examples of the translations they did, and give an oral presentation to report the experience to faculty members. Further, the workplace is asked to fill out an evaluation form about the performance of each student. Prof. Dr. İnal stated that they are not able to provide supervision during the whole process, but try to ensure that students believe in the benefit of professional experience.

8.1.1.3. Interaction with the translation market

The department has a medium level of interaction with the market. As explained above, the program prefers academics to professionals to teach translation because academics put emphasis on language boosting as well as teaching translation. Some of the interpreting courses are delivered by professionals on the market.

As for material interaction, the department has a medium level of interaction with the market. In choosing texts for translation, the main concern is to work with the texts that students will encounter in the market and also to select the texts that improve language skills and vocabulary knowledge in addition to translation skills. Thus, texts that enable students to keep up with the syllabus are preferred. There is a specific course on the translation of EU texts and documents because, since its establishment, the department reiterates its aim to train translators that fulfill translation needs of Turkey on the way to EU accession. This two-semester course also covers the translation of official documents of the kind that graduates frequently translate in a translation company.

Professional interaction also seems to be at the medium level. The department is in contact with graduates, and considers their opinions in revising the curriculum. Graduates and other professionals are also invited to the department, though not frequently and

regularly, to inform students about professional procedures. However, Prof. Dr. İnal mentioned that trainers are not always willing to spend their course hours on these activities, and students are not always willing to attend such activities when held outside of course hours (practical limitations).

Prof. Dr. İnal also remarked that they deliberately abstain from professional cooperation with the market in the sense of producing translations for the market. "It is not the responsibility of the university to produce work for the market," she contended. Thus, the department has not been involved in many projects, including the EU-funded ones. Furthermore, there have been institutional restrictions to such involvements. The universities may produce work or a service and earn money in return for it, based on the requirements of the revolving funds[47] of the university, which requires excessive paper shuffling. That is why they prefer not to get involved in projects with the market.

8.1.2. Interview with the head of the program at Hacettepe University

I had an interview with Prof. Dr. Ayfer Altay, the head of the Department of Translation and Interpreting, and an informal talk with Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ender Ateşman, the deputy head of the department, on November 2, 2012 at Hacettepe University. Prof. Dr. Altay has been the head of the department since 2003. She has degree in English Language and Literature. The interview data were again divided into three parts: curriculum-related issues, teaching translation, and relations with the market.

8.1.2.1. Curriculum issues

The main factor that induced a major change on the curriculum was the Bologna process. The whole curriculum was revised in 2009 in line with the Bologna requirements. Currently at least 30% of the courses taken by students are electives. Before 2009, only C language courses were offered as electives. The revisions to the program curriculum are described in section 4.2.2.

There are other significant factors that motivated the department to revise the curriculum. One of these is the changing global conditions. The department has been in

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[47] In accordance with Article 58 of Law no. 2547 on Higher Education, higher-education institutions launch units for the management of revolving funds in order to gain income from the sales of goods and services provided by university members. The Law sets the proportions allocated from a particular income to the university, particular units, research projects and university members that produced the good or service.

contact with international organizations and has carried out projects with some of them. Courses have been added to the program in line with these international requirements. For instance, "Technical Translation" will be incorporated into the curricula in the following academic year, as a result of the cooperation with Tekom (German Professional Association for Technical Communication and Information Development). The interaction with Tekom increased awareness for technical translation and technical writing in the department. Another example is "Project Management", which will also be added in the following academic year. Cooperation with various organizations has led to projects at the national and international levels. In order to engage students in these projects during and after their study, they will be offered a course on project management.

Another factor is market requirements. The department has been in contact with the translation market through various channels, which are explained in section 8.1.2.3. "Information Technologies for Translators" and "Terminology", added to the curriculum in 2009, aim to provide students with the technological and terminological skills they need in professional life.

The student profile has also been a factor governing the curricular revisions. For instance, the department introduced the program in "German-Turkish Translation and Interpreting" in 2007. The students that select this program have mostly been the children of Turkish immigrants in Germany, who lacked proficiency in the Turkish language. Therefore, "Turkish for Translators" was offered in the German-Turkish program. The opening of this course raised awareness of the mother tongue and its importance for translators in the department. The administrators then decided to open the course to all other programs in the department.

Prof. Dr. Altay did not mention any budgetary or institutional restrictions on curriculum revision. The most significant restriction, not directly related to the curriculum revision, is the high student quotas determined by the Higher Education Council. Every year, the department informs the Council that they can accept an intake of about 30 students for each program. The Council nevertheless allocates a quota of about 70 students to the program. This brings extra course loads on trainers.

If there is no trainer competent enough to give a specific course, staff members from other faculties or professionals teach the course in the department. For example,

English-speaking members from the Faculty of Law are invited to give the course in "Law for Translators".

The computer laboratory used for technology courses was established by an infrastructure project funded by the university. The capacity of the laboratory is 30 students. However, Dr. Ateşman noted that, today, there is not always a need for a specific classroom or laboratory for technology courses since almost every student has a portable computer. Thus, a regular classroom can also be used to translate, using translation memories or other software.

8.1.2.2 Teaching translation practice and theory

The senior trainers in the department have a degree in modern languages, while most of the new trainers hold a degree in translation and interpreting. The trainers mostly have past or current professional translation experience. New recruits are not provided with any training in translator training. However, at the beginning of each semester all department members come together to discuss their courses and syllabuses. This is a sort of training, not only for new trainers but also for senior staff members. The university also provides funding to academic staff so that they can improve their translation research and translator training skills.

Various methods have been used to teach translation. In Nord's terms, the "who'll take the next sentence" approach has been employed in most translation courses. Audiovisual tools are used in translation classes when required. The department also takes a positive approach to project-based assignments. For instance, as a result of cooperation with the Directorate of Translation Coordination of the Ministry for EU Affairs, students taking the course "Translation of EU Texts" translated part of the EU legislation into Turkish. These translations were revised by faculty members. The Ministry will pay students and trainers for the translation and revision of these texts, through the revolving funds of the university. However, there are also courses that require a traditional approach to teaching translation, Prof. Dr. Altay argued. To exemplify, in teaching legal translation, she provides the basics of legal language and legal texts and relevant fundamental knowledge on law. Then she distributes a text to students so that they translate prior to the next class. In the next class, students read, discuss and revise their translations.

The translation program at Hacettepe University has had a course on translation theory in the curriculum since its establishment. Prof. Dr. Altay explained this as follows:

Theory is necessary. Without theory, we cannot speak of a four-year academic training. We are not a high school giving vocational training. Theory has an important place in our program. However, we offer a lot of practical training in addition to theory.

Prof. Dr. Altay also argued that students need translation theory to be able to explain their translation choices and to analyze a source text. Furthermore, translation needs theory to be a scientific discipline. For her, we do not always need to discuss the implications of theory on practice.

Three different courses on translation technologies were added to the curriculum in 2009. Two of them are obligatory, and one is an elective. Information Technologies for Translators is offered in the first semester so that students use basic translation technologies from the beginning of their experience in translation.

There are three main components designed for the professional development of students. The first one is a course on the translation profession. The aim of this course is defined as informing students about the "difficulties they may possibly encounter in the translation sector and market and solutions to these problems" and to familiarize them with the "translation sector and market as well as conditions in other countries". This is a relatively new component in the curriculum of the Hacettepe program. Some graduates mentioned the need for such a course during the interviews. The second component is the work placement. For a period of one semester, students are employed in a public or private workplace under the supervision of a trainer from the department. At the end of the training, they submit a portfolio to the trainer including the translations they have done in the work place. The department assists students to find a work place. Finally, professionals and graduates are invited regularly (at least once a month) to the department to speak about professional procedures and market conditions.

8.1.2.3. Interaction with the translation market

The department has had intensive interaction with the market. In Kemble's terms, the human interaction is quite high. Most of the trainers have translated or are translating for the market, Prof. Dr. Altay reported. Furthermore, professional translators and interpreters are employed on a part-time basis to teach in the department.

As for material interaction, the department encourages the use of authentic texts in teaching translation. However, the administration does not intervene in or control the materials used in translation courses.

Professional interaction seems to be at a high level. The department is in contact with professionals as well as former graduates, and takes their opinions and experience into consideration when revising the curriculum. Graduates and other professionals are also invited to the department regularly to inform students about professional procedures and the translation market. The contact with the market is bilateral. The department has also offered training, particularly on translation technologies, to certain institutions including the Turkish Radio and Television Corporation. The department is preparing to give training on technical translation and the technical market, as an institution accredited by Tekom, in line with the cooperation with this association. The trainers taking part in these programs are assigned through the revolving funds of the university, and thus both trainers and the university are paid for this service.

The department has been engaged in many projects with national and international organizations. The students have recently been involved in these projects, and have produced translations for the market in these projects. This allows them to gain experience in translation and earn money from it. They have the chance to assume direct and active roles in the projects. On the other hand, there are some indirect impacts of these projects. Trainers get know-how from other partners in projects, through intercultural communication and field-specific interaction. This know-how is transferred to students through in-class or outside-class activities.

The Department of Translation and Interpreting at Hacettepe University is in cooperation with the EMT[48], and a partner of OPTIMALE (for information on OPTIMALE see section 2.1).

The department is in interaction not only with the market but also with other stakeholders in the translation world. For instance, it has been cooperating with the universities of Baku, Strasbourg, Milan and Leipzig in order to improve the curriculum and train the trainers in the Faculty of Translation and Interpreting at Baku University. A similar project has been initiated to develop the curriculum and train the trainers at Almaata Ablai Khan University in Kazakhstan. The department at Hacettepe University

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[48] Because Turkey is not a member of the European Union, programs in Turkey cannot become full members of the EMT project.

has also taken an active role in the Translation Platform initiated by the Directorate of Translation Coordination of the Ministry for EU Affairs (see section 2.3). There was a previous attempt to create a translator-training platform to bring together all translator-training institutions in Turkey. However, Prof. Dr. Altay noted that this initiative was replaced by the Translation Platform, which is a meeting point for all stakeholders including the training institutions. "There is no point in discussing problems in our ivory tower. We need to be open to the opinions of all other parties," she argued.

Another important indicator of interaction is that the department has played an active role in devising the National Occupational Standard for Translators introduced by the Vocational Qualifications Authority of Turkey (see section 3.5). Some professors in the department were involved in the process of drafting the standard since the beginning. The process was finalized in the early 2013.

The department has also been in professional interaction through the work placement component and the course on professional issues in the curriculum. Professionals are also invited to this course to answer students' questions about professional life.

8.1.3. An Overview

The significant findings of interviews with the administrators are discussed below with reference to the relevant findings obtained from the interviews with graduates.

As seen in Chapter 4, the programs have revised their curricula over time. The Bologna process has given impetus to revisions to the curricula. At Bilkent University, the market involvement in curriculum design has been through former students who have become a part of the market after graduation. Their opinions have been considered in making curricular changes. Particularly at Hacettepe University, direct contacts, mostly in the form of projects, with the market (e.g. the Directorate of Translation Coordination of the Ministry for EU Affairs) and relevant national and international organizations have also influenced the curricular changes.

The two departments approach the role of theory in translator training in different ways. On one hand, the Department of Translation and Interpreting at Bilkent University, established in the School of *Applied* Languages, argues that translators do not need theory to translate in the market. Thus, they do not have an individual course on translation

theory, but offer some theoretical perspectives in relative courses. On the other hand, the department in the Faculty of Letters of Hacetepe University has always had a theoretical component in the curriculum, believing that both students and Translation Studies as a discipline need theory. In the survey of graduates, about half of the respondents believe that translation theory is rarely important or not important at all for professional work, and the perceptions of graduates about translation theory do not differ according to the university from which they graduated. However, the interviews revealed that the graduates that internalized theory are aware of the importance of theoretical approaches. They have stated that theory helps them reflect more consciously on the translation practice and process. Nevertheless, the graduates that had only superficial knowledge of translation theory argued that theory is needed only for academic purposes, such as writing research papers or theses. Thus, the problem may be with the *way* of teaching theory in translator-training programs, as students fail to understand the rationale behind theory and how it contributes to translation practice and research.

With regard to translation teaching, both administrators mentioned that the "who'll take the next sentence" approach, in Nord's terms, is a major method used in teaching translation. The Hacettepe program head stated that they used alternative methods, including producing translations for the market, which are then used for assessing student performance in the course. However, students still need – especially at the beginning of their study – to work on, translate, and revise a text under the guidance of a trainer. Both administrators agree that the increasing international mobility at higher education institutions (mobility of both trainers and students) has a positive impact on trainers' teaching skills as well as on students' motivation.

In the survey, while half of the graduates said technology is rarely dealt with or not dealt with at all during their undergraduate studies, about 65% found technology extremely important or fairly important for translation work. Translation technologies have been taught in both translator-training programs for three years. This shows that the programs have become aware of the importance of technology for the translation market. The course on translation technologies is an elective at Bilkent University and obligatory at Hacettepe University. The program head at Bilkent explained that not all students that study translation in the department work on the translation market, which today requires technological skills to ensure quality and speed. Thus, students preparing for the market are encouraged to take the course on translation technology. The program has also offered

the "Computer Literacy" course, specifically designed for translation students, since its launch. On the other side, Hacettepe University offers four courses on technologies in the form of both obligatory and elective components. Besides translation technologies, various audiovisual tools have been used in translation classes in both programs.

In order to teach professional issues and market conditions, the most basic component in the two programs is work placements. Both departments give importance to work placements and try to supervise the process effectively. The Hacettepe program adopts a more positive approach to the involvement of students in projects so that they are able to learn the process of a project from the beginning. This program has also offered an obligatory course on professional issues, in which professionals and employers from the market are invited, and is planning to introduce another course on project management, which has become a desirable skill in the market.

The Hacettepe program head reported having had greater interaction with the market, mainly in the form of professional and human interaction. Professionals have been employed on a part-time basis, to teach not only interpreting classes but also translation classes. Projects with national and international institutions also bring the department closer to the market. These projects are mostly with public institutions or non-governmental organizations, and there is limited interaction with the private sector. Both programs reported inviting professionals or former graduates to interact with students.

As regards producing professional work for the market, the two departments adopt conflicting stances. On the one hand, the Bilkent program head argued that it is not the task of universities to produce work for the market. On the other, the Hacettepe program offers both translation work (by students and trainers) and training (by trainers) to the market and earns money in return for these services through the revolving funds of the university. Here, it is worth noting that the Bilkent program, located in the School of *Applied* Languages in a foundation university, adopts a more cautious approach to direct interaction and cooperation with the market, while the Hacettepe program, which is in the Faculty of Letters of a state university and thus places greater emphasis on the role of university in reflective thought and the evolution of a discipline as a science, has reported being closer to the market.

8.2. Interview with an employer

I also interviewed a translation company owner – also the employer of translators – in order to gain further insight into market expectations of translators and to learn about their observations regarding translator competence. On January 4, 2013, an interview was held with a company owner – also a translator – and two project managers – also translators – employed in the company. The owner and the project managers are graduates of four-year translator-training programs. The interview lasted for about two hours, and the main themes derived from it are summarized below, again with reference to two focuses of this study, i.e. market expectations, and interaction between training and the market.

8.2.1. Market expectations and translator qualifications

The translation company, a representative of the translation market, has provided significant information about the initial recruitment requirements and procedures.

8.2.1.1. Recruitment of translators

The company had been seeking to recruit in-house translators to work in the English-Turkish language pair on a full-time basis, and had received 1501 applications when I conducted the interview. The job advertisement had been available for about one year. About one third of the applications received were from graduates of four-year translator-training programs. However, during this period of one year, the company recruited just one translator and could not find any other suitable one. The qualifications mentioned in the job advertisement were two years' experience in translation and advanced computer skills. The job description involved translating mainly technical, legal and medical texts, using CAT tools. The recruitment process is as follows. The applicants meeting the minimum criteria are asked to present a file including samples of translations they have previously done. The majority of the applicants are eliminated at this stage. The interviewees stated that applicants mostly fail to create a text that is ready to be submitted to a client, in terms of both form and content. Those found eligible in this stage are, in some cases, asked to translate a sample text provided by the company. After submitting an acceptable translation, the eligible candidates are offered a paid work experience in the office for one day (between 9 am and 6 pm), where they are tested for translation speed as well as adaptation to working conditions in the office and to teamwork. During

office work, the applicants generally fail to produce the amount of work required for the functioning of the company in the translation market. The employer mentioned that a translator is required to produce high-quality work within a certain period of time in order to survive in the market. Otherwise, they cannot earn money. He argued that this rule is not established by the company but by the market. The market currently lacks translators that are both qualified and fast enough.

The employers have observed that one of the main problems in translator training concerns motivating students to become pure translators after graduation. Translation programs tend to train translators with two foreign languages, to offer a minor degree in fields such as international relations or economics, or to encourage students to do a Master's after graduation so that they have the opportunity to be employed in fields other than translation. The employers in this company believe that this creates a negative perception of the translation profession in the eyes of both prospective translators and the public. It presents translation as a profession with low status, and translators need extra qualifications to have better status in society. The employers argue that translators are trained best if they are trained as pure translators. Otherwise, they graduate with lower motivation, and tend to underestimate the translation profession and see it as a temporary job opportunity to earn extra money or to finance their Master's. Ten years ago, translation was a relatively prestigious profession, and was an ideal that people strived to achieve. However, today, instead of encouraging students to become translators, the programs motivate students to work in other professions. Since trainers are not aware of what is going on in the market, they fail to guide students correctly about employment. The companies acting in the market are generally presented as workplaces exploiting novice translators.

8.2.1.2. Language and terminology

The employers at this company argued that foreign-language competence was still a major problem among new recruits. Translation from Turkish into English constitutes half of their total translation work. Even if graduates leave the university with advanced foreign-language skills, they have difficulty in transferring those skills to translation products.

Translators further need insight in addition to language competence. Source texts, particularly those written in Turkish, may have poor-quality grammar and style. A good

translator produces a meaningful target text from these poorly written source texts. On the other hand, the majority of source texts in English are produced by non-natives. In this case as well, translators may need insight even to understand certain components, e.g. words and sentences placed in irrelevant contexts.

8.2.1.3. Technology

The most important requirements of the translation market today are quality and speed. Translation technologies and advanced word-processing skills assist translators to achieve both speed and quality to complete a translation task. The employers have suggested that every student planning to be a translator should receive advanced MS Office training because translators must be able to solve the formatting problems they encounter in the translation process and submit a text in the required format. The four-year training program may or may not be able to include such a component, due to lack of competent trainers or time constraints related to the curriculum. However, trainers can inform students that this is one of the main requirements of the modern translation market. In the same vein, translation technology is a part of translation practice today. As each client demands the use of a different software program, students probably cannot master all translation software during the training. However, when students graduate with basic knowledge of the functioning of translation technologies, mainly translation memories, they will adapt to the market more easily. Furthermore, source texts are usually provided in uneditable formats today. Translators must be able to convert these documents into editable ones and manage formatting as required by the client. Technological skills do not constitute the acquisition of pure knowledge that is kept aside to be used just in case. Technological knowledge and skills, if used effectively in translation practice, add speed and quality to a translator's work.

The company gives its recruits training in technology. Nevertheless, the employers have highlighted that not all companies provide this, and freelancers may not have access to employer support to learn and use technologies. In such cases, translators have to learn to use these programs on their own, if the university training program does not include this component.

In order to be qualified translators, translation students first need to improve their language (including grammar and vocabulary) and translation practice skills, and then develop mastery of computer and other technology skills.

8.2.1.4. Theory and practice

One of the project managers in the company suggested that translation criticism may be a very useful course component for preparing prospective translators for translation practice. However, this course is mostly dedicated to literary translation criticism, even though only a slight proportion of graduates are employed as literary translators. In this course, students can examine good translations of various types of texts and documents to produce better translations.

In translation practice, there is need to diversify the text types and content that students work with. The employers stated that they can teach Trados to new recruits in the office if they already have basic knowledge of the functioning of CAT tools, but cannot teach legal translation to a new recruit. If students desire to work in a translation company and earn money from this profession, they must be prepared to work with technical, legal and medical texts. That is why the place of literary translation in translation curricula may be reconsidered in view of employment opportunities for graduates.

8.2.1.5. Professional issues

The employers said that there are no clear-cut differences between the graduates of translator-training programs and those of other language or non-language programs. Translation programs do not produce graduates with greater language awareness. There may be a slight difference only when one graduate of a translation program and one graduate of another program apply for a job right after the graduation. In such a case, the translation graduate understands fundamental concepts such as source text and target text, and is more aware of basic requirements. However, if both applicants have experience in the translation market, the translation graduate is not necessarily better than the other applicant.

Translation students are expected to graduate with all-around knowledge about the profession in order to be ready for the market. In the simplest terms, they need to have developed the patience to sit in front of the computer for long hours, and the discipline to complete a project by the deadline.

The employers also stated that they prefer not to recruit translators that worked in other sectors after graduation and then decided to return to translation, arguing that such applicants have mostly lost their language skills and language awareness. In the training

program, they are mostly inculcated with the idea that they cannot earn well as pure translators employed in a company or as a freelancer. Because of this, they are likely to lose the language and translation skills they have already acquired, and less likely to find a job opportunity in the translation market when not satisfied with employment in the other sector.

Speed is one of the main requirements of the translation profession. In the market, speed may outweigh quality in some cases, since certain documents are translated for the sole purpose of being archived rather than for being used. Thus, it is not realistic to spend a week on the translation of a single page when training.

Students do not learn much about the translation market and professional translation work during their study. Students that have started translating for the market in the second or third year of their study become more successful translators. Thus, the market also assumes a sort of training role. The company owner mentioned that, if a new graduate has previous work experience on the CV, they look at that instead of the grade point average or other indicators in the recruitment process.

Work placement is an important opportunity to learn what is going on in the market. However, students need to develop awareness of the importance of this experience, and see this process as a chance to shape future career plans. When seeking a placement, students should ask what they will learn during the workplace training (ask for example with which types of texts they will work or which translation technologies they will learn and use) to make best use of the process. Otherwise, they may find themselves translating the same long text during the whole period of the placement.

Employee rights have increasingly become an important issue in recruitment. Freelancers were previously exempt from tax, and many in-house translators have long been remunerated on the basis of the minimum wage. However, due to recent amendments to the taxation and social security systems, translators will be deprived of considerable social security rights or will be working under illegal conditions if conventional procedures continue. Thus, translators are required to know their employee rights, and it is advisable that they gain this awareness during their study.

Specialization has also been debated in translation and translator training, and has been preferred in the Turkish translation market in recent years. In training, students may be advised to specialize in one or a few fields, and declare this choice when they enter the market. In order to gain trust in the sector, professionals are expected to decline to

translate in a field in which they are not specialized. Otherwise, they risk producing low-quality work that overshadows the work they have previously done. Furthermore, specialization may be discussed in gatherings with representatives from the market and the academy to make a decision on whether translator training should encourage specialization. Both training and the market may rearrange their practices in line with this decision.

One of the problems the employers observed in applications is CV writing. Graduates need to know what to include in a CV, how to add a photograph, and even what kind of photographs they should use in the CV. In the CV, the employers demand specific information on each translation job or project completed (i.e. content and volume of the work) in the form of a list. Students may not be aware of this need. However, when trainers are aware of what is expected from their graduates, they can guide students on CV writing as well.

The company prefers to work with in-house translators rather than freelancers. This is because the company mostly works with the same clients, and the recruitment of in-house translators is more practical in this case as they become familiar with clients' requirements in terms of language, terminology, style, format, and use of translation technologies. It is easier and more cost-effective for the company to train in-house translators. Moreover, from the perspective of translators, an in-house job is more favorable in terms of working hours and income.

8.2.2. Interaction with training institutions

Both the company owner and the project managers in the company believe that providing the motivation and determination to be a translator is one of the primary duties of translator-training institutions. The company owner had been to a department of translation and interpreting at a university to give a talk. He observed that, of all the students in the department, only 10% were interested in what he had to say. This is probably because of the lack of students' link with the profession, and lack of motivation.

The company has not been in contact with training institutions about their expectations of graduates, and the employers stated that academics are usually hesitant to get in touch with actors in the market. They acknowledged that academics require a certain degree of independence, but they also need interaction to help students directly

and indirectly. They need interaction to consult students on work placement, and guide them in the process of job seeking and application. Trainers in academic settings also need market interaction to support the courses in translation practice. Since they do not have access to the most up-to-date texts, they can make use of the rich repertory of authentic texts in translation companies. Certainly, the sector has been evolving rapidly, and it is probably impossible, in terms of facilities and equipment, for trainers to keep pace with every change in the sector. They nevertheless need to have general idea of the situation in order to guide students accurately and objectively.

The employers further argued that the cooperation between training institutions and the market may allow translation departments to contribute to the design of the market. The recruits should question the educational and career background of their employers. If employers have an educational or professional background in translation, this directly influences their attitude to translators. Translators should also be able to discuss explicitly their financial and other rights as well as working conditions with the employer. This will contribute to the empowerment of translators. Furthermore, questions related to history of the company, the maximum period that translators are employed or the technologies used give clues about the working conditions in a given company.

Students working with Turkish-English language pair are incessantly told that the number of people speaking English has been increasing and that the need for English translators has been decreasing. However, on the contrary, the need for good English-Turkish translators has been increasing because many texts, mainly tender documents, are produced in two languages or translated into Turkish. There has been competition, but there are a limited number of translators that provide quality service in the market.

8.3. Interview with a founding member of the TÜÇEB

I finally interviewed Gökhan Fırat, one of the founding members of the TÜÇEB (Turkish Union of Translation Students), and currently an editor in a publishing house. For the purpose of this interview, he did not speak on behalf of the TÜÇEB but as a former translation student who is presently an agent on the translation market. The interview consisted of three parts. We first talked about the gaps and matches between what is taught in translator training and what is required in the translation market. The second part of the interview was about the interaction between translator training and the

translation market. Finally, Fırat informed us about the TÜÇEB, where he still plays an active role.

8.3.1. What is taught and what should be taught in translator training

Gökhan Fırat, a founder of the TÜÇEB, has long reflected on training issues as a former translation student and presently an actor in the market. His reflections on what is taught and what should be taught in translator training provide insight into current translation practices.

8.3.1.1. Theory and practice

Asked about the role and place of theory in translator training, Fırat first drew attention to the point that translation theory is required for both translation practice and the advancement of translation as a discipline, and that the use of theory cannot be reduced to its use in translation practice. The latter point in his remark had not been mentioned before by any other translation graduate or professional in this study. Fırat noted that the place of translation theory in translator training has been highly questioned and often rejected by translation students. The translation workshops held by student clubs show that students refuse to learn theory on the grounds that it has no use in translation practice and in the translation market. Fırat asserted that students develop a negative attitude to translation theory because of the trainers' approach to theory, i.e. because some trainers themselves tend to believe that theory has no link with practice. In the first place, there is a need to convince students of the use of theory for the advancement of science. Thus, before or together with Translation Studies, students should comprehend the essence of science and social sciences. This will allow students to ponder on science and translation. Then, they would not believe that theory is useless if it does not serve practice. To focus on practice and disregard theory would not contribute to translation. As this was the case for many years in the past, translation as a practice and as a discipline has not progressed, Fırat stated.

However, this does not mean that we should teach theory only for the sake of science. Theory, i.e. thinking on translation, has significant impact on the practice of translation. As an editor, Fırat reported observing considerable differences between the products of a translator that has a good grasp of theories and a translator that has no idea about theories. Translation involves making serious decisions, and there is a need to

justify those decisions. Theory allows practicing translators to justify their decisions, and to find better solutions to a problem.

Translation theory should be taught in translator training. Yet it is important to know how to teach and systematize theory, and to remove the gaps between theory and practice. Theory tells us that context and style are very important, or that knowing the background and previous works of an author is very important. However, in learning translation practice, students are in most cases asked to complete a translation sentence by sentence, each sentence translated by another student, without a detailed stylistic analysis or criticism. This is one of the reasons underlying students' rejection of theory. Another reason is that some teachers force students to memorize theories and concepts, and assess knowledge of theory by multiple-choice tests. In this case, students cannot be expected to comprehend the essence of theory.

The modes of testing translation performance are also problematic in translator training. To assess translation practice, students are asked to translate texts with no or very limited resources, even without dictionaries in many cases. However, translation practice involves selecting reliable information sources, accessing accurate information or picking the most suitable option. There is a need to find an alternative way of assessing translation skills.

8.3.1.2. Technology

Fırat argued that technology should be taught in translator training because it is a part of translation practice in the present age, and he challenged Mossop's argument that if one cannot translate with pencil and paper, they cannot translate with the latest technology. For him, pencil, paper and print dictionaries were means of translating in the past, whereas computers and technologies are means of translation practice today. If training programs claim that they teach the practice of translation, they are required to teach computer and technology skills as well. Fırat also held that associating translation practice only with the translation sector is meaningless. Translation practice is a part of Translation Studies, and translation technology is a part of translation practice. Not only practicing translators but also practicing translation scholars need technology. He also noted that training programs fail to meet students' need for technology. Budgetary restrictions do not constitute a radical excuse, as software programs offer free versions for students, and all schools today have computer rooms.

8.3.1.3. Professional issues

Motivating students to be translators is one of the main problems in translator training. In training programs, on the one hand, trainers recite the importance of translation in the globalizing world. However, on the other hand, they paint a dark picture of the translation market and encourage students to choose options other than translation. The translation market certainly does not function perfectly, and there are companies in the sector that survive by exploiting novice translators in particular. However, this does not mean that the whole sector is awful. The tendency to demotivate students at universities mostly derives from trainers' lack of information or misinformation about the workings of the market. Trainers should be aware that they could contribute to the improvement of the sector by training translators to become more aware of their responsibilities and rights. For instance, a course on "The Translation Profession and Rights of Translators" may be added to the curriculum. When graduating, translators do not know the limits of their liabilities and rights. This is an important issue, and since there is no governing authority, the market manipulates the whole process.

If the academy sets one of its aims as teaching practice to translation students, then they are required to teach the translation profession as well as translation technologies, which are components of the practice. Translation professionals, particularly company owners and freelancers, have much to do with invoicing and taxation. Thus, these also fall within the scope of Translation Studies, and the most readily available setting to teach these issues to prospective translators is the university. However, the university expects students to learn these procedures through their own efforts. This is the point where students start questioning the function of university training. This approach may also support the thesis that there is no need for university training in order to be a translator. In order to refute this thesis, profession-related issues should be focused on more intensively in the university.

Although freelancing has been a growing trend, freelancers have problems related to payment and social security. They are paid irregularly and have to pay their own insurance premium. Yet, to pay the premium regularly, they need regular income. Thus, there is a need for legal instruments to regulate freelancing in the translation market.

8.3.2. Interaction between translator-training programs and the market

Fırat made a comparison between Translation Studies and linguistics. Translation Studies has a practical aspect, but linguistics does not, i.e. linguistics does not have the aim of teaching language or any other aim. Thus, Translation Studies, as the science concerned with translation, involves translation practice. Since practice is performed on the translation market, then the translation market may be involved in the academic training processes. However, Fırat warned that it must not be placed at the center of academia. There is need for a fragile balance here. The market must have a say in training procedures, but its requirements cannot be at the center of training objectives.

8.3.3. The TÜÇEB

Fırat sees the TÜÇEB as the outcome of an ongoing project. The aim of this project is to bring together translation students, who are prospective translators, and engage them in discussions related to mainly translator training and the translation market. The TÜÇEB has been organizing events that attract various stakeholders involved in the translation process. Fırat has noted that the TÜÇEB's aim is not to play a governing role in translator training, but to bring together the actors that have a say in training and the market. The initiative has aroused considerable interest because it manages to gather hundreds of people at its events, contrary to many academic events. The members of the TÜÇEB are not translators or translation scholars, but translation students who reflect on translation and translating, question everything related to translation, and are willing to contribute to the progress of this field.

Fırat explained that the TÜÇEB adopts an alternative organization rather than the traditional and bureaucratic organization structure. It functions as a sort of superstructure for all the translation clubs in Turkish universities, and gains a formal structure because the clubs have a formal identity. Using social media and technologies effectively, the TÜÇEB removes physical borders and allows every member to contribute to its functioning. There is no hierarchical organization structure. Every member that attends a given meeting is a member of the governing board. The events are created on Facebook, and every member is invited to every meeting. It is interesting that, although none of the graduates I interviewed mentioned a translation association, one interviewee stated that she was aware of and took part in the activities of the TÜÇEB. As a first in the Turkish

translation field, the union of translation students brings together students from all translator-training programs, contrary to those academics who usually acting without knowing what their colleagues in other universities are doing (Esen-Eruz 2008: 239).

Chapter 9. Conclusion

9.1. Concluding remarks

The relationship between translator training and the translation market, underpinning the design and results of this study, is illustrated in Figure 9.1. The point of departure in this study was that translator training and the translation market – as two parties to translation service provision – should be in close interaction in order to improve the quality of training in higher-education institutions and the quality of translations done on the market. Translation programs in higher-education institutions train the labor force for the translation market. Thus, the more they are aware of market demands, the better they should be able to respond to market needs in their curriculum design. On the other hand, the translation market employs the graduates of translation programs and needs a well-qualified labor force. Thus, the more market stakeholders interact with training institutions and the more they provide feedback to these institutions, the more they can contribute to curriculum and course design in training programs.

Figure 9.1. Relationship between translator training and the translation market
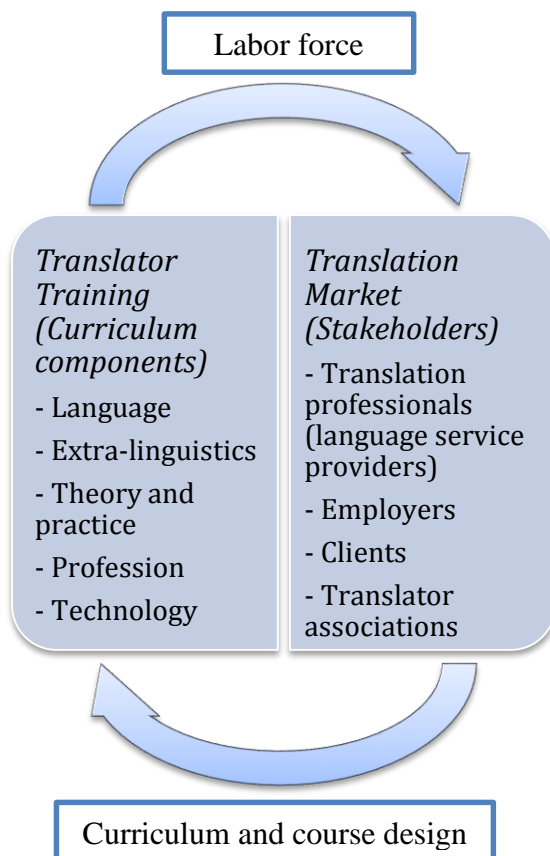
In the present study, almost all the stakeholders agree that there is a need for greater interaction between training and the market, and that the elements that prepare students for the market should find a place in the translation curricula. However, the results suggest that there is a need to handle the efforts to solve the problems related to training and the profession with the involvement of various stakeholders in a more *systematized* way. Furthermore, it is desirable to integrate market-training elements into training practices rather than offer only in individual courses – including translation technologies and professional work procedures and ethics. This requires all trainers in a program to become familiarized with what awaits trainees when they enter the market.

This chapter presents a summary of the research findings and establishes links among the results obtained from the various stakeholders that are directly or indirectly involved in the translator-training process. After a brief summary of what is discovered about the translation market in Turkey, the research questions of the study are used here as a framework to summarize the findings.

9.1.1. An overview of the Turkish translation market

With regard to the need for a diploma, the majority of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed that a degree in translation is required to work as a professional translator. On the other hand, the overwhelming majority also strongly agreed or agreed that translation is best learned on the job. Furthermore, according to over 85% of the respondents who replied to the question, it is highly desirable or desirable that translator-training programs have work placement components. Thus, although believing that a diploma is required, many translation graduates argue that training is not restricted to translation classrooms.

In this research, during a period of from 12 to 18 months between the surveys and the interviews, one quarter of the interviewees had made changes in their professional activity, one moving from freelancing to language teaching, another moving from in-house translation to freelancing (because he was looking for another permanent job opportunity) and another moving from in-house translation to unemployment (because she was seeking "new challenges"). Unintentionally, the study draws attention to the extent of mobility in the labor market.

The survey indicated that 27% of 125 translation graduates work as language teachers. There were also graduates, few in number, who reported being employed in

other professions: as a marketing director, administrative assistant or researcher. Furthermore, in the interviews, four graduates said that they had planned to become translators before and during their study, but decided to or had to work as language teachers. As reported by Milton (2001, 2004) and Li (2002), students may enter translator-training programs to improve their foreign language skills rather than to master translation skills. Thus, although translation programs in universities define their aims as to train qualified translators to meet the "increasing" need for translators in our globalized world, people may choose to study in these departments for different reasons or may take a different path after graduation. Even when they are willing to be employed as translators, they enter a market where the job profile of translators has been becoming vague and intermingling with that of professions such as language assistant, editor, proofreader, localization specialist, administrative assistant, and so on. In this respect, Kearns (2008: 50), agreeing with Pym, suggests that "[t]he best way in which people can be trained to be flexible is to focus on the development of transferable and life-long learning skills which can be adapted to many tasks." However, in our study, an employer of translators suggested that students should be trained as pure translators. Otherwise, he said, students fail to concentrate on a job in the translation market, and seek other opportunities after graduation. The employer argued that this process deadens the skills that translators have already acquired and that employers do not prefer to recruit these translators.

In Turkey, there is no market research on employment opportunities in the market. The clues in the present study do not indicate a problem of unemployment among graduates of translation programs. When asked why they did not work in the translation or interpreting sector, only four respondents mentioned the difficulty of finding a job as a translator.

9.1.2. Which curricular components are most important for professional work in the translation market?

With regard to the scope of translator training, Pym (2005) states that a training program cannot cover everything, and thus we need to teach students how to "learn and adapt" (a minimalist approach to translation competence). One of the graduates interviewed (I5) also adopted a similar stance, arguing that "no school can teach a profession as a whole" and that "people learn how to do something mostly on-site". The same interviewee, with his experience as a both trainer and freelance translator, asserted that, to improve the

quality of translator training, there are more basic considerations than discussing the importance of course components:

> I believe the key to improve the quality of translation education is to accept lower numbers of students to schools and supervise the scholars and the curriculum. Thus, the teachers, most of whom I find highly incompetent, would be more motivated to do their jobs. Therefore, the students would be allocated more, and personalized time. In addition, internship is also important and this process should be repeated several times during the education process, as well as being supervised seriously by the teachers.

The alleged gap between profession and training mainly derives from the fact that professionals are inclined to define translation in terms of practical procedures, whereas academics see translation as an academic discipline that needs to be defined in scientific terms. Thus, university translation programs contribute to the progress of the discipline on the one hand, while training professionals for the market on the other. This process requires the integration of theory and practice in both training and research. The two programs that are studied here adopt different approaches regarding the place of theory in translator training. The Bilkent program argues that there is no need for theory to train professionals for the market, whereas the Hacettepe program argues that theory and practice are inseparable in training. Influenced by this stance of the former training program, graduates from the program stated that they need translation theory to undertake graduate studies in translation. On the other hand, some graduates of the latter program claimed that learning theory distinguishes them from those translators who do not have a degree in the market. According to the survey of graduates, about half of the respondents regard translation theory as rarely important or not important for the profession. Furthermore, the perceptions of graduates about translation theory do not differ according to the university where they received the undergraduate degree. I observed in the interviews that recent graduates who have not received theory courses fail to use basic translation terminology and adopt more prescriptive approaches to translation. Thus, translator trainers may be motivated to use and teach theory in a more effective way in consideration of the needs of future translators.

In the survey, the respondents reported a certain gap between (remembered) training and the (assigned) importance for professional work of the following components: communication skills in A language, professional work procedures and professional ethics, research techniques, translation technology and communication skills in B language. These components were taught less frequently than the degree to which they are required in professional work. These components are addressed individually in coming parts of this section. On the other hand, the graduates think that translation theory and translation criticism were dealt with in translator training more frequently than they are needed in professional life. Furthermore, in the interviews, some graduates complained about the inadequate focus on certain course components, and some reported having been unprepared for professional work and thus preferred another profession after graduation.

Translation is not language learning, but mastering language skills is a must for translating. An overview of undergraduate translation programs in Turkish universities shows that all programs incorporate language teaching into their curricula to varying degrees. Among the respondents and interviewees, there were graduates who believed that second-language competence should be a "default" (I1) expected from translation students, and that it is not the responsibility of a translator-training program to improve language competence of trainees. On the other hand, there were some graduates who complained about the inefficacy of language teaching in the program. An overwhelming majority of the respondents in this study strongly agreed that teaching communication skills in A and B languages is an important component of translator training. Thus, graduates agree that, although translation teaching is not language teaching, language skills should be dealt with in translator-training programs. Due to various reasons ranging from the national foreign-language teaching policy to the socio-economic status of families, students may enter translation programs without the foreign language skills required. That is why B and in some cases C languages constitute a significant component of translator training. What has changed in Turkish training programs recently is that courses such as Turkish language for translators have been incorporated into the curriculum.

In Turkey, undergraduate translation and interpreting programs in universities are language-specific, and mostly work with a single language pair, with a few exceptions. However, some departments that have programs with more than one language pairs, e.g.

Hacettepe and Istanbul universities, offer courses such as theory or technology to students with different second languages in the same classroom environment so that they probably have the chance to interact. Another point related to languages is the teaching of linguistics in training programs. While the emphasis on linguistics has decreased over the years in translator-training curricula, the focus on language improvement has remained important.

In undergraduate translation programs in Turkey there are courses with specific focus on translation into the second language. Contrary to the traditional prescriptive idea that translators should only translate into their mother tongue, there are studies suggesting that translation into a non-mother tongue is a reality rather than an option, particularly with the globally increasing need for translations into English (see for example Pavlovic 2007; Pokorn 2005; Grosman, Kadric, Kovacic and Snell-Hornby 2000; Campbell 1998). In the present study, almost all graduates who work as translators reported they were translating into the second language. The employers I interviewed in the translation company also noted that 50% of their workload is translation into non-mother tongue, mainly English. Therefore, translation into the mother tongue requires specific attention in the translator-training programs of countries with less translated languages, i.e. "all those languages that are less often the source of translation in the international exchange of linguistics goods, regardless of the number of people using these languages" (Branchadell 2005: 1).

The survey and interviews, even with a very limited number of people, have shown that graduates take different roles with very different and in some cases specialized requirements in the job market. For instance, technology has been one of the most discussed issues in this study. However, particularly in the interviews, the graduates reported having used technology to varying degrees. To exemplify, I6 as a freelancer mentioned that use of technology, mainly TM, is one of the most important demands of the translation market, whereas none of the remaining interviewees reported to be using TM. They said that it was important to be familiar with CAT tools, but they were personally using only word processing tools and the Internet. I3, an in-house translator, mentioned that, in her position, the use of social media was more helpful than the use of CAT tools.

Translation technologies have recently been dealt with in translator-training programs. The interviews with the program administrators have led us to think that they are currently offered only as individual courses, and not integrated into the curriculum as such. A suggestion that may contribute to integration is that "[t]he proper use of technical resources should also be part of assessments (perhaps even as much as 50%)" (Thelen 2011: 173). As also verified by the employers, time "is a very important, if not the most important, factor in the practice of professional translation" (Nord 2005b: 171). Thus, rather than handling technology as an individual component, training programs may be encouraged to see technological skills as a part of translation practice and incorporate it into practice-oriented courses. Translators have played a leading role in integrating technology into the profession, among other language-related professions (Alcina, Soler and Granell 2007: 230), and thus it seems impossible for translator-training programs to lag behind in teaching technologies.

One of the topics that was intensively discussed in this study was teaching professional procedures and ethics. So far work placements and personal information shared by trainers in the classroom have been the major sources of information about professional practices. The Hacettepe program has recently added electives on translation and interpreting professions. In-house training after the graduation is an option if employers are willing to offer such a training program. However, this option does not apply to freelancers. For them, the number of practical resources on the translation profession has been increasing (see, for example McCay 2006, Gouadec 2007, and Durban 2010). Nevertheless, providing translation students with these skills and knowledge in the university program presents an advantage for them vis-à-vis the graduates of other programs. As this component is directly related to interaction with the market, the details are dealt with in the next section.

9.1.3. Which forms of interaction are more effective in preparing trainees for the market?

Work placement has been the major theme in discussions related to interaction between training and the market. Many interviewees and survey respondents mentioned that work placements should be a component of translator-training programs and be offered in a more effective way. Thus, to achieve flexibility and transferability, suggested respectively by Pym and Kearns, training institutions could take advantage of work

placement programs, where students are revised closely both by a trainer and a member of the workplace staff. Entering a real professional environment before graduation, trainees should have the chance to fulfill a responsibility as a professional, complete a task in due time, establish contacts with clients, work collaboratively and so on, all contributing to the acquisition of translator competence as defined by Kiraly. However, as warned by one of the interviewees (I3), training programs must take measures to guard against the exploitation of trainees. An exploitive work experience may create negative perceptions of professional life among prospective translators.

Discussing employability in the curriculum, Chouc and Calvo (2010) list the ways translation programs can ensure easier transition from university to the market: a) career fairs and career services, b) web resources (social networks, mailing lists, university/program websites, professional networks and You Tube channels), c) career events and graduate sessions, and d) professionals invited to the university. The program administrators interviewed in this study stated that they had already been organizing career days and events, and inviting graduates and professionals. Career services are offered informally through former graduates that keep contact with the university. Thus, other than the direct use of web sources, the programs already employ these ways of helping achieve a smooth transition to the market. Nevertheless, the survey of graduates has shown that the profession is one of the least dealt with components in translator training, and the graduates interviewed mentioned that training programs are not good at preparing prospective translators for the market. The main problem may be with adopting a systematic approach to prepare students for post-graduation professional life in the translation market.

Both graduates and administrators mentioned seminars by professionals as the most common type of human interaction. However, when not integrated with the curriculum, students are likely to forget what was said in these mostly one-off activities and fail to connect them with their present "curriculum experience" (Chouc and Calvo 2010: 83). To exclude this drawback as well as some others, what Chouc and Calvo (2010) suggest is to embed the issue of employability into the curriculum of training programs. A project conducted at the University of Granada for this purpose was built on "three lines of action": job-seeking training, systematized seminars with professionals and former graduates employed in diverse sectors, and individual and group development

sessions with mentors (Calvo, Kelly and Morón 2010: 216). In the present study as well, some interviewees cautioned against the discouraging role of professionals invited to the department. For the sake of objectivity, some professionals focus merely on difficulties in the sector and thus demotivate students to pursue a career in translation. The translation company owner that I interviewed argued that civil service representatives as well as trainers are inclined to warn students against the competition and misdoings in the market and to orientate students to a career in the civil services. Commenting on this, Gökhan Fırat, one of the founding members of the TÜÇEB, stated that training programs tend to demotivate students mainly because lack of information about functioning of the market. However, if the programs train translators that are more aware of their responsibilities and rights, they can contribute to the improvement of the market.

Furthermore, some graduates made a distinction between translation and interpreting with regard to interaction with the market, arguing that there has been higher interaction in interpreter training. Interpreter trainers are mostly professionals that are active in the market, and provide students with the chance to have experience in the market before they graduate. There may be administrative and practical reasons behind the difference between translator and interpreter training in professional interaction.

The interviews with graduates have led us to think that there should be more relationship with the market, not only to bring the content of training programs closer to market expectations but also to enable students to gain self-confidence for a smooth transfer from education to professional activity. To achieve this, there is a need for individual studies that address the effectiveness of each form of interaction with various segments of the market in the public and the private sector. It is also suggested that the programs interact with international organizations that employ translators to be able to inform students about the work opportunities and conditions as well as relevant background and terminology in these institutions (Boers 2010: 80).

9.1.4. Are there any differences between a state and a foundation university with regard to curriculum and interaction with the market?

The starting point of this study is that there may be significant differences between a state university and a foundation university in terms of both curriculum design and interaction with the market. The rationale behind this was the assumption that foundation universities receive higher tuition fees from students and offer a more practice and profession-oriented

training compared to state universities, which put greater emphasis on the all-round education of individuals. The historical survey of curricula and the administrator interviews confirm this assumption, given that teaching theory is a factor showing the difference between the two approaches. While the Bilkent program has never involved the theory component in its curriculum, the Hacettepe program sees translation theory as an inseparable component of the training program.

The survey of graduates has shown that communication skills in A and B languages and research techniques are dealt with more frequently at Bilkent compared to Hacettepe, and discourse analysis, translation history and translation theory are dealt with more frequently at Hacettepe compared to Bilkent. Bilkent graduates reported having had more focus on linguistics, and less focus on pragmatics compared to Hacettepe graduates. This result does not seem to support the idea that the Bilkent program has a more practice-oriented curriculum. Yet the curricula of the Bilkent program have never involved a course exclusively on discourse and pragmatics. Thus, the graduates may not be aware of the distinction between pure and applied linguistics, and thus have given higher scores to linguistics in general. The fact that the Bilkent program puts greater emphasis on language teaching may be because it works with two foreign languages, not because it is in a foundation university. This concern of the program plays a significant role even in the selection of trainers (academics rather than professionals are preferred for teaching).

The Bilkent program seems to put greater emphasis on work placement. It has been a part of the program for long years. This is important as it supports our starting point that market-oriented considerations are more important for the program in a foundation university. However, today, the Hacettepe program also has a work placement component in the curriculum. The latter has recently added a course on professional issues in addition to the work placement.

The interviews with program administrators have shown that the Bilkent program in a private university adopts a more cautious approach to direct interaction with the market. On the other hand, the Hacettepe program in a state university has reported being closer to the market and to cooperation with the private and public sector, as well as national and international associations.

9.1.5. What may be the reasons behind the changes made on the curricula of translator-training programs in recent years?

In this study, the curriculum analysis and interviews with various stakeholders were useful to identify the changes made to the curricula, i.e. the visible content, of translator-training programs over time, and to seek any possible reasons behind these changes. The specialization in translation courses and the diversification of electives enable translation students to select courses and specialize in their fields of interest, which was indicated as one of the recent requirements of the translation market by the translation company owner. The transition from Specialized Translation to translation courses dedicated to each specific field and the diversification of electives that are specifically designed for prospective translators are thus indicators of the tendency to *specialization* in training programs. *Translation technologies* have been included in the curricula of both programs, either as compulsory or elective components. This is an important step taken on the way to respond to market needs. The Hacettepe program introduced the course "Turkish for Translators" in its 2009 revision. This is noteworthy considering that, in the present study, the graduates mentioned that *A-language skills* is one of the most important but least frequently dealt with curriculum components. It is also important that *professional issues* find a place explicitly in the curriculum, with the courses on the translation and interpreting professions in the Hacettepe program. Furthermore, the interviews with the administrators showed that there has been increasing emphasis on work placement programs. In the interviews, some graduates complained about the ineffectiveness of work placement programs. The administrators reported they were enlarging the pool of institutions and companies that recruit trainees as internees. However, there may be a need for closer interaction between recruiters and trainers in order to optimize the effectiveness of the work placement programs. These developments may indicate that the programs have revised their curriculum in a way to respond more to the demands of the translation market. The program administrators referred to four factors that drive them to make changes to the curriculum: global changes in translator training, interaction with international institutions, market demands and student profile (see sections 8.1.1.1 and 8.1.2.1). Thus, market demands constitute only one of the factors that play a role in curriculum revisions. Further research should focus on the effectiveness of the latest revisions in responding to the market demands.

9.2. Limitations

The main limitations of the study may be summarized as follows:

−   The study is confined only to translator training and the translation market although the university programs in Turkey offer training in both translation and interpreting at the undergraduate level. Interpreting is excluded from the scope of this study for the reasons explained in section 1.1.

−   The population of 25 universities offering translator training at the undergraduate level is limited to two, one being state and the other foundation.

−   The questionnaire data were collected mainly through snowballing, a technique that does not allow controlled sampling. Thus, the results cannot be generalized to the entire population.

−   The data were collected through self-report instruments, i.e. surveys and interviews. Although self-reporting is a simple, easy and direct way of data collection, it suffers from the risk of collecting inaccurate information due to various limitations including memory, self-deception and biases.

9.3. Implications and suggestions for future research

This research is the product of personal interest and scientific curiosity about the market involvement in translator training at the undergraduate level in Turkey. The research does not set out to hypothesize that translator-training programs meet or fail to meet market demands, but to describe the situation in the Turkish context from the perspective of various stakeholders within the restricted population of graduates and other stakeholders.

The study is expected to have some major implications for translator-training and curriculum-design practices. The first implication is that the desired elements should be present in all programs designed to serve the market. The results may prove useful for the administrators of translator-training programs in curriculum revisions, and for translator trainers in the organization of their syllabi. In particular, the qualitative data collected from the graduates and employers through interviews have significant implications for training practices, with respect to teaching translation theories, professional work procedures and translation technologies. The more the university programs take heed of

voices on the market, the more they achieve the aim of training professional translators. In order to ensure this, there is a need for closer contact with stakeholders outside of the academy. The present study has shown that various stakeholders in training settings and the market have much to say about the improvement of translator training and various aspects of professional development. Their opinions should be considered in university settings. On the trainers' side, the drive to cooperate with other stakeholders will probably encourage trainers to seek innovative and more effective alternatives in training practices. On the students' side, the greater interaction between training and the market may offer them higher self-confidence for a smooth transfer from the university to the market. On the employers' side, the interaction with training will allow them to communicate their demands more directly to curriculum designers and trainers.

The second implication for translator training is the emphasis on the international nature of the translation market. The translation markets across the world are partly national and partly international. As mentioned insistently by one of the interviewees (a graduate presently employed as a freelancer) and the employer, the translation market has been globalizing. Thus, the training should globalize, too. Through mobility and work placement agreements, the institutions in different countries should cooperate to ensure international agreement on some basic principles. The present efforts seem to remain at national and even institutional level. Mobility programs such as Erasmus have been implemented almost in all programs, but they are usually restricted to a few students per semester.

This study further suggests that Translation Studies, as an academic discipline, may be remapped with a view to putting greater emphasis on translator training and the translation profession, with subsidiaries such as technologies, associations and legislation. The research in translator training is mostly restricted to theoretical discussions of various aspects of training or experiments with students in the classroom setting regarding the effectiveness of certain teaching or translating strategies and the attempts to define translation processes in cognitive terms. However, these endeavors seem to disregard that curriculum and course design and implementation is a social process that concerns closely other actors that are directly or indirectly involved in the job market and social context where the trainees are expected to enter after graduation. Thus, Translation Studies remapped with regard to the actors involved in the discipline may illustrate the relationships and interdependence between those actors.

This research may be replicated with a larger sample at the national and/or international level. For the curriculum analysis and the survey and interviews of graduates, the study singles out the translation programs in two Turkish universities. The scope of the study may be enhanced to cover all translator-training programs at the undergraduate level in Turkey, which will evidently provide more reliable data. Additionally, the curriculum analysis in this study shows that major changes were made to the curricula in 2009. The fruits of these changes should be seen in future graduates as of 2013. Individual studies should focus specifically on each of the curriculum components that bring training closer to the market, in order to ascertain to what extent and how to teach them in translator-training programs. Furthermore, given the increasing number of associate degree programs in translation, there is a need to undertake research along the same lines with the graduates of those programs and their employers.

What the graduates said about the translator trainers reveals that the training of trainers is an issue that requires particular attention. The number of PhD programs, which also train trainers, was low in the past but has been growing increasingly; and there is a need for research on these programs and their contribution to the training of translation trainers (Li and Zhang 2011: 695). In the same respect, a study investigating the role of PhD programs, also increasing in number in Turkey, may be designed with a focus on the involvement of relevant stakeholders.

The present study has not set out to conduct a needs analysis of the translation market. However, some of the data suggest that there is a need for an analysis with respect to the number and qualifications of translators required. Almost eight decades ago, discussing the need for four-year specialized courses on translation in the university, Handschin argued that one should first identify "whether it will pay schools and the candidates themselves to make great specialized preparation before we know how many positions are generally available" (1936: 527-528). In this respect, this study also draws attention to the need for a detailed market analysis before introducing new translation programs at various university levels.

The issue of ethics has been dealt with, for over a decade, in Translation Studies in general terms and translator training research in specific terms (for ethics in translator training see for example Arrojo 2005, Baker and Carol 2011). With the growing emphasis on the social roles and responsibility of translators, ethics should be integrated into

translator-training curricula (Drugan and Megone 2011). In the present study, the importance of teaching professional work procedures was discussed with the stakeholders in interviews, but not much has been said about professional work ethics. However, talking for example about pricing or invoicing in professional work, the graduates indicated lack of knowledge of ethical issues, without referring to *ethics*. A survey may be useful to find out various stakeholders' awareness of ethical issues in the profession. Then, in line with the results of this survey, various models of the integration of ethics into the translation curriculum may be developed and tested.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. The Questionnaire Survey

Dear colleague,

I am a translator and research assistant at Anadolu University, currently working on my doctorate at the Universitat Rovira i Virgili, Tarragona, Spain. I am asking for your help with a survey on how your academic training prepared you for work on the translation market.

I am hoping that this research will lead to improvements in training programs in Turkey, which is a goal that concerns us all.

The questionnaire should take just 15 minutes to complete, and the complete results will be made available to you as soon as the data are analyzed. I would be very grateful if you could fill in the questionnaire by December 6th.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Volga Yılmaz Gümüş

1. Gender *

○ Female   ○ Male

2. Age *

○ Age 20 to 30   ○ 31 to 40   ○ 41 to 50   ○ 51 to 60   ○ Over 60

3. What is your first language? *

[   ]

What is your second language? *

[   ]

Do you translate into/from any other language(s)? If so, please specify.

[   ]

4. Where and when were you awarded an undergraduate degree in translation and interpreting? *

University

Year

5. If you have a graduate degree in translation and interpreting, when and where did you receive it?

MA, MSc
(University/Year)

PhD
(University/Year)

6. What is/are your main role(s) currently? Please state in order of importance. *

Roles	1st	2nd	3rd
Translator:			
- In-house translator (in a company, public institution, etc.)	○	○	○
- Translator in a translation company	○	○	○
- Freelancer	○	○	○
Interpreter	○	○	○
Editor	○	○	○
Localization specialist	○	○	○
Translation project manager	○	○	○
Translator and/or interpreter trainer	○	○	○
Translation and/or interpreting researcher	○	○	○
Language teacher	○	○	○

Other (please specify)

7. If you do not work in translation/interpreting/localization sector, please mention the reason(s) for this.

If you do not have any connection with the translation/interpreting/localization sector, you are not required to answer the rest of the questions.

8. If translation is your secondary or tertiary activity, how many hours a week do you spend on translation?

○ 1 to 5

○ 6 to 10

○ 11 to 15

○ 16 to 20

○ Over 20

9. How many years have you been working professionally in translation/interpreting/localization sector?

Years [＿＿＿＿＿]

10. In which of the following area(s) do you mainly work as a translator? *

	Main area	Secondary area	Tertiary area
Academic	○	○	○
Business	○	○	○
Immigration/public services	○	○	○
Legal	○	○	○
Literary	○	○	○
Marketing/advertising	○	○	○
Publishing	○	○	○
Medical	○	○	○
Technical	○	○	○
Tourism	○	○	○

Other (please specify)

[＿＿＿＿＿]

11. Do you do any of the following to improve your skills?

☐ Attend courses run by educational/training institutions

☐ Attend courses run by professional associations

☐ Attend in-house training courses

☐ Receive mentoring from senior translators

☐ Update your skills through job activity, e.g. glossary work

☐ Use online updating/training materials

Other (please specify)

12. Do you agree with the following statement? *

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Indifferent	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
All professional translators should have a degree in translation.	○	○	○	○	○

13. Do you agree with the following statement? *

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Indifferent	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
Translation is best learned on the job.	○	○	○	○	○

14. How often were the following components dealt with (taught or practiced) in your undergraduate translator training program? *

	Dealt with constantly	Dealt with frequently	Dealt with occasionally	Rarely dealt with	Not dealt with
Communication skills in A language	○	○	○	○	○
Communication skills in B language	○	○	○	○	○
Discourse analysis and pragmatics	○	○	○	○	○
Intercultural communication/cultural issues	○	○	○	○	○
Knowledge of linguistics	○	○	○	○	○
Professional work procedures and professional ethics	○	○	○	○	○
Research techniques	○	○	○	○	○
Specific field knowledge	○	○	○	○	○
Terminology management	○	○	○	○	○
Text analysis	○	○	○	○	○
Translation criticism	○	○	○	○	○

	Dealt with constantly	Dealt with frequently	Dealt with occasionally	Rarely dealt with	Not dealt with
Translation history	○	○	○	○	○
Translation practice	○	○	○	○	○
Translation technology	○	○	○	○	○
Translation theory	○	○	○	○	○

15. Rate the importance of the following components for your current professional work as a translator. *

	Extremely important	Fairly important	Occasionally important	Rarely important	Not important
Communication skills in A language	○	○	○	○	○
Communication skills in B language	○	○	○	○	○
Discourse analysis and pragmatics	○	○	○	○	○
Intercultural communication/cultural issues	○	○	○	○	○
Knowledge of linguistics	○	○	○	○	○
Professional work procedures and professional ethics	○	○	○	○	○
Research techniques	○	○	○	○	○
Specific field knowledge	○	○	○	○	○
Terminology management	○	○	○	○	○
Text analysis	○	○	○	○	○
Translation criticism	○	○	○	○	○
Translation history	○	○	○	○	○
Translation practice	○	○	○	○	○
Translation technology	○	○	○	○	○
Translation theory	○	○	○	○	○

16. How well did your academic training prepare you for your professional work as a translator?

○ Extremely well

○ Fairly well

○ Only basic preparation

○ Badly

○ Very badly

Comment:

17. State how often the following things happened in relation to the training program you went through. *

	Always	Frequently	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
Academics were translating professionally on the market.	○	○	○	○	○
The training program employed professional translators as academic staff.	○	○	○	○	○
The training program used real-world texts for translation teaching activities.	○	○	○	○	○
The training program used real-world texts for assessment activities.	○	○	○	○	○
The training program used electronic tools (mainly translation memory software) in translation teaching activities.	○	○	○	○	○
The training program had work placement components in the curriculum.	○	○	○	○	○
The training program invited people from the profession to talk in the classroom.	○	○	○	○	○
The training program organized educational activities in collaboration with professional bodies.	○	○	○	○	○

18. Were there any other forms of interaction with the market in the training program you went through?

19. How desirable do you think the following are for future training programs? *

	Highly desirable	Desirable	Indifferent	Undesirable	Highly undesirable
Academics translate professionally on the market.	○	○	○	○	○
Training programs employ professional translators as academic staff.	○	○	○	○	○
Training programs use real-world texts for translation teaching activities.	○	○	○	○	○
Training programs use real-world texts for assessment activities.	○	○	○	○	○
Training programs use electronic tools (mainly translation memory software) for translation teaching activities.	○	○	○	○	○
Training programs have work placement components in the curriculum.	○	○	○	○	○
Training programs invite people from the profession to talk in the classroom.	○	○	○	○	○
Training programs organize educational activities in collaboration with professional bodies.	○	○	○	○	○

20. What other forms of interaction between training and the market would you like to see?

21. Further comments on how your academic training prepared you for work on the translation market:

22. Would we be able to interview you at a later stage in our research? If so, how can I best contact you?
MANY THANKS FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Telephone:

Email:

Other:

Appendix 2. Importance of Course Components for Professional Work

Appendix 2.1. Mann-Whitney U test result for university: importance of course components for professional work

Course components	Mann-Whitney U	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	University	Mean values
Communication skills in A language	769.500	.638	Hacettepe	45.48
			Bilkent	43.78
Communication skills in B language	740.000	.372	Hacettepe	45.94
			Bilkent	42.60
Discourse analysis and pragmatics	658.500	.178	Hacettepe	47.21
			Bilkent	39.34
Intercultural communication/cultural issues	739.000	.506	Hacettepe	45.95
			Bilkent	42.56
Knowledge of linguistics	638.000	.126	Hacettepe	42.47
			Bilkent	51.48
Professional work procedures and professional ethics	776.500	.795	Hacettepe	44.63
			Bilkent	45.94
Research techniques	705.500	.351	Hacettepe	43.52
			Bilkent	48.78
Specific field knowledge	676.000	.119	Hacettepe	46.94
			Bilkent	40.04
Terminology management	715.000	.277	Hacettepe	46.33
			Bilkent	41.60
Text analysis	783.500	.873	Hacettepe	44.74
			Bilkent	45.66
Translation criticism	789.000	.918	Hacettepe	45.17
			Bilkent	47.13
Translation history	753.000	.651	Hacettepe	45.73
			Bilkent	43.12
Translation practice	736.000	.356	Hacettepe	46.00
			Bilkent	42.44
Translation technology	730.500	.504	Hacettepe	46.09
			Bilkent	42.22
Translation theory	702.500	.361	Hacettepe	46.52
			Bilkent	41.10

The result is significant if p≤.05.

Appendix 2.2. Kruskal-Wallis test result for graduation year: importance of course components for professional work

Course Components	Chi-Square	Asymp. Sig.	Graduation year	Mean values
Communication skills in A language	0.180	.914	1996-2000	46.17
			2001-2005	45.73
			2006-2010	44.45
Communication skills in B language	2.933	.231	1996-2000	36.44
			2001-2005	46.25
			2006-2010	45.82
Discourse analysis and pragmatics	0.222	.895	1996-2000	46.33
			2001-2005	43.10
			2006-2010	45.69
Intercultural communication/cultural issues	1.694	.429	1996-2000	50.11
			2001-2005	48.13
			2006-2010	42.64
Knowledge of linguistics	1.796	.407	1996-2000	43.56
			2001-2005	50.50
			2006-2010	42.59
Professional work procedures and professional ethics	1.924	.382	1996-2000	53.56
			2001-2005	45.97
			2006-2010	43.11
Research techniques	0.869	.648	1996-2000	44.50
			2001-2005	48.63
			2006-2010	43.33
Specific field knowledge	0.398	.820	1996-2000	45.44
			2001-2005	43.06
			2006-2010	45.86
Terminology management	1.104	.576	1996-2000	49.83
			2001-2005	42.54
			2006-2010	45.38
Text analysis	1.747	.417	1996-2000	53.06
			2001-2005	47.23
			2006-2010	42.58
Translation criticism	1.264	.532	1996-2000	52.56
			2001-2005	46.62
			2006-2010	42.96
Translation history	0.483	.785	1996-2000	49.22
			2001-2005	46.23
			2006-2010	43.70
Translation practice	2.034	.362	1996-2000	52.00
			2001-2005	43.04
			2006-2010	44.78
Translation technology	1.629	.443	1996-2000	35.61
			2001-2005	44.48
			2006-2010	46.81
Translation theory	.717	.699	1996-2000	49.33
			2001-2005	41.88
			2006-2010	45.78

The result is significant if p≤.05.

Appendix 2.3. Mann-Whitney U test result for sex: importance of course components for professional work

Course components	Mann-Whitney U	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Sex	Mean values
Communication skills in A language	522.000	.954	Women	45.04
			Men	44.79
Communication skills in B language	520.000	.927	Women	44.93
			Men	45.36
Discourse analysis and pragmatics	495.500	.729	Women	44.61
			Men	47.11
Intercultural communication/cultural issues	488.500	.623	Women	44.51
			Men	47.61
Knowledge of linguistics	485.500	.645	Women	45.53
			Men	42.18
Professional work procedures and professional ethics	509.000	.827	Women	44.79
			Men	46.14
Research techniques	523.000	.981	Women	44.97
			Men	45.14
Specific field knowledge	514.000	.864	Women	44.85
			Men	45.79
Terminology management	434.000	.151	Women	43.79
			Men	51.50
Text analysis	489.500	.670	Women	44.53
			Men	47.54
Translation criticism	436.000	.305	Women	46.19
			Men	38.64
Translation history	489.000	.669	Women	45.48
			Men	42.43
Translation practice	427.000	.081	Women	43.69
			Men	52.00
Translation technology	376.500	.078	Women	43.02
			Men	55.61
Translation theory	451.500	.395	Women	44.02
			Men	50.25

The result is significant if p≤.05.

Appendix 3. Cover Letter Sent to Potential Interviewees

Dear colleague,

I am a translator and research assistant at Anadolu University, currently working on my doctorate at the Universitat Rovira i Virgili, Tarragona, Spain. A couple of months ago, I asked your help with a survey on how your academic training prepared you for work on the translation market. We received interesting results from the survey, which I will be happy to share with you once the study is completed.

Filling out the survey, you kindly mentioned that you will be available for further help with our study. I would like to interview you to gather deeper and first-hand information about the link between training and the market.

Would you agree to participate in an interview that can be conducted via telephone, Skype or at any location convenient to you? The interview should take maximum 45 minutes and questions will be sent to you before the interview. Your name will be kept confidential in the PhD dissertation and any publications derived from the dissertation. Thank you very much for your help. I am looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Best regards,

Volga Yılmaz Gümüş

Appendix 4. The Protocol for Interviews with Graduates

Interviewee:

Gender:

Year of Birth:

Date:

Time:

Mode of the interview (i.e. face-to-face, telephone, Skype, e-mail):

Length of the interview:

Language of the interview:

Part I. Background information about the interviewee:

1. What is your educational background? (BA degree: school of graduation, year of graduation; any MA or PhD degree)
2. Why did you study translation? (Did you plan to become a translator when you selected to study translation and interpreting? AND Did you plan to become a translator when you were studying translation and interpreting?)
3. How did you find a job after graduation?

Part II. Information on current work:

4. Where do you work now?
5. Is this your first job or have you worked anywhere else after your graduation? (If yes, where and as a translator or not?)
6. Could you briefly explain your duty and workload in your current workplace?

If the interviewee does not work as a translator (i.e. if she/he is a language teacher):

7. When did you decide to work as a language teacher, during your study or after graduation?
8. Why didn't you work as a translator after graduation? OR What are the factors that led you to work as a language teacher after graduation?

Part III. Perceptions of translation as a profession (only freelancers and in-house translators):

9. What are the most important problems that you encounter in the translation market?

10. How competitive is the translation market?

11. Who are translators' competitors in the market? (students, secretaries, language teachers, non-professionals speaking a foreign language, etc.)

12. Do you believe that there is need for a diploma in translation to work as a translator?

Part IV. Perceptions of the link between translator training and professional experience (only freelancers and in-house translators):

13. To what extent has your training met your needs as a professional translator? (in terms of a) skills, b) knowledge and c) attitude)

14. According to your experience as a professional, what are the gaps between training and the market?

15. What are your suggestions for a better translator training?

16. How often and in which forms do you contact with training institutions as a professional?

17. (If they work in a translation company) how often and in which forms does the company you work for contact with training institutions?

18. What do you think are the benefits of developing the training-market relationship as a sphere of communication?

19. What do you think are the ways of strengthening the relationship between training and the market?

Appendix 5. The Protocol for Interviews with the Administrators of Translator-Training Programs

Interviewee:

Date:

Time:

Mode of the interview (i.e. face-to-face, telephone, Skype, e-mail):

Length of the interview:

Language of the interview:

Part I. Background information:

1. What is your educational background?
2. Could you briefly describe your experience as a translator trainer?
3. Do you have professional translation experience? Can you please explain it?
4. How long have you been an administrator in this translator-training department?

Part II. Information on the curriculum:

5. How many curricular revisions have been made so far? In which years?
6. What were the factors that led the department to make these revisions on the curriculum?
7. Can you please describe the process of making a curricular revision?

   Who decides that a revision is needed?

   Which stakeholders are involved?

   Which criteria are taken into consideration?

   How do you determine the weight of each component in the curriculum?
8. What are the factors that restrict you when making curricular changes? (Budget? Trainers' competence and fields of interest? Availability of trainers? Student profiles? Institutional policies? Limitations related to physical infrastructure and equipment? Market demands?)

Part III. Questions based on survey and interview results:

9. *Theory and practice*: (About half of the respondents of our survey believe that translation theory is rarely important or not important at all for professional work. The respondents further think that translation theory and translation criticism were dealt with in translator training more frequently than they are needed in professional life.)

   The theory has had a quite large place in your programs since the establishment of the program. How do you explain this? (Hacettepe University)

   You have always claimed to be a practice-oriented program. How do you justify this? (Bilkent University)

10. *Translation teaching*: Some interviewees have complained that translation-teaching methods are too traditional. What do you think about translation-teaching methods in your department?

    How do you follow innovations in teaching translation?

    How do you train your research assistants (future translator trainers) to be competent trainers?

    Do you offer any in-service training to trainers?

    Do students evaluate their courses? What do they say about teaching methods? (if anything)

11. *Teaching technology*: (Half of the respondents said technology is rarely dealt with or not dealt with during their undergraduate studies, whereas about 65% found technology extremely important or fairly important for translation work.)

    How long have you been teaching translation technologies in the department?

    Which translation technologies do you teach?

    How do you use technology (in general, not translation-specific) in translation courses?

12. *Teaching the profession*: The graduates said that the trainers with professional experience provided information about market practices during the classes. But this was restricted by the knowledge of trainers, and individual efforts of students. What can be done to provide students with knowledge on professional issues more systematically? What do you think about using simulation methods in translator training (advantages, disadvantages, feasibility)?

Work placements: The graduates complained about the inefficacy of internship programs. Can you comment on the following suggestions of the graduates?

The department can help us find work places.

The trainers may supervise the internships more seriously.

The department can encourage us to gain experience in more than one work place, although it is not obligatory during the training.

Freelancing: There has been a global tendency toward freelancing. Do you do anything in the department to prepare freelancers for the market? What can be done about this?

Part IV. Interaction with the market:

13. What do you think about market involvement in translator training (advantages and disadvantages)?

14. In which forms do you interact with the translation market? (adapted from Kemble 2006)

Human interaction

Academics translate themselves. (Can you give examples?)

We employ professional translators on a full-time or part-time basis. (Is there any difference between translation and interpreting courses? Some interviewees mentioned that the teachers of conference interpreting were generally from the professional life.)

Material interaction

Professionally translated texts (authentic texts) are used in translation classes.

Professional interaction

We invite professionals and employers from the professional world.

We invite representatives of professional associations.

We offer short courses for professionals.

We are involved in projects, such as EU-funded ones.

We deliver courses leading to professional qualifications.

We assure placements and other forms of student involvement in professional translation.

15. Do you have any other forms of interaction with the market?

16. What are the benefits of closer interaction between training programs and the market?

17. What else can be done to improve the quality of translator training, and to what extent does the market play a role in these improvements?

Appendix 6. The Protocol for Interview with a Translation Company Owner

Interviewee(s):

Date:

Time:

Mode of the interview (i.e. face-to-face, telephone, Skype, e-mail):

Length of the interview:

Language of the interview:

Part I. Background information:

1. What is your educational background?
2. Can you briefly describe your experience in the translation market?

Part II. Recruitment of translators:

3. You probably recruit translators both with and without a diploma in translation. Is there any difference between the two groups of translators?
4. What are your main criteria in recruiting translators? Do you do your own tests?
5. Are there any difference between earlier graduates and recent graduates?

Part III. Translator training:

For the purpose of this part, only four-year undergraduate translation programs are considered.

6. What should be taught at school and what can be taught on the job to translators?
7. To what extent does translator training meet demands of the translation market? Can you please make an overall evaluation? What are the strengths and weaknesses of translator-training programs in preparing students for the market? What else do you expect from these programs in training translators?
8. Technology (translation-specific and other technologies) has been becoming increasingly more important for the translation profession. Which technological skills do you expect from recruits? What do you expect them to learn at school and to learn on the job?

9. What do you think about work placements? (During our interviews with graduates they complained about the inefficacy of work placements and the employers' tendency to exploit students in work places.)

10. Freelancing has been an increasingly preferred mode of working and a long-term professional option in the world. For example, Fraser and Gold (2001) surveyed the freelancers in the UK. To the question whether they would choose an in-house job when they were offered the opportunity, 76% of the respondents answered no. However, our survey and interviews have shown that freelancing is a temporary option for Turkish translators. What is the situation in Turkey from your point of view? Do companies prefer freelancing translators? What are the advantages and disadvantages of working with freelancers?

Part IV. Interaction with translator-training institutions:

11. In which forms do you personally interact with the academia? What has been done so far? What else can be done? What do you expect translator-training programs to do to improve cooperation with the market?

12. What are the benefits of closer interaction between training programs and the market?

Appendix 7. The Protocol for Interview with a Founding Member of the TÜÇEB

Interviewee:

Date:

Time:

Mode of the interview (i.e. face-to-face, telephone, Skype, e-mail):

Length of the interview:

Language of the interview:

Part I. Background information:

1. What is your educational background?
2. Could you briefly describe your experience as a translator trainer?

Part II. Questions based on main research foci:

3. *Theory and practice*: (About half of the respondents of our survey believe that translation theory is rarely important or not important at all for professional work. The respondents further think that translation theory and translation criticism were dealt with in translator training more frequently than they are needed in professional life.) What do you think about teaching technology in undergraduate translator-training programs?

4. *Translation teaching*: What do you think about translation-teaching methods in your department?

5. *Teaching technology*: Did you learn translation technologies during your study? Could you tell about the use of technologies (technology in general, not only translation technologies) in translation courses during your study?

6. *Teaching the profession*: What can be done to provide students with knowledge on professional issues more systematically? What do you think about using simulation methods in translator training (advantages, disadvantages, feasibility)? *Work placements*: What is the role of work placement programs in translator training? Do you have any suggestions for increasing the effectiveness of work placement programs?

Freelancing: There has been a global tendency toward freelancing. What can be done in translator-training programs to prepare students for the freelance market?

Part III. Interaction with the market:

7. What do you think about market involvement in translator training (advantages and disadvantages)?
8. What are the benefits of closer interaction between training programs and the market?
9. What else can be done to improve the quality of translator training, and to what extent does the market play a role in these improvements?

Part IV. Turkish Union of Translation Students, TÜÇEB:

10. How was the TÜÇEB launched? Could you tell about the rationale behind launching this union?
11. Could you tell about the activities of the TÜÇEB? How is the union involved in the process of translator training?