Applying Translation Theories and Pedagogy: A multiple case study exploring postgraduate translation programmes in China and the UK

by

Meilan Zou

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment

of the requirement for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in Translation Studies

University of Warwick

Centre for Applied Linguistics

October 2014

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Acknowledgements

I owe my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, Professor Martin Cortazzi, who has helped me throughout the process of my writing up with his expertise and insight. This project would not be completed without his encouragement, patience and most constructive comments. He has assisted considerably in sharpening and strengthening the focus. I have been benefited from his supervision and noble personality. My heartfelt thanks go to him and his wife, Professor Lixian Jin, kindly accepted me in their house.

I would also like to thank my second supervisor, Dr Yukteshwar Kumar, for reading my draft thesis and providing insights and suggestions.

I thank for my former supervisors, Dr Malcolm MacDonald and Dr Cristina Marinetti, who worked hard during their joint supervision.

I would like to thank the site universities who allowed and supported my investigation. My gratitude goes to the participants, both the students and the teachers from the universities of China and the UK, who agreed to take part in my study and provided me with such rich data. I have learned so much from them not only for research purposes but also as an education practitioner.

I am deeply grateful to Professor Lee Bridges, former Chair of the Graduate School, Professor Jacqueline Labbe, Professor Helen Spencer-Oatey and Dr Ema Ushioda for their support and assistance. I would also like to express my gratitude to Senior Tutor, Mr Stephen Lamb, and his team from the Student Support for their kind support and financial aid in handling my hardship.

Finally, I give thanks to God who gives me his grace and will to do this work. I am deeply indebted to my parents for their love and prayer for me. My special thanks go to those dear friends both in the UK and China who supported and encouraged me during the hard time. Most of all, thanks to Yang Jian, whose kindness and generous help were so important during the writing of this thesis. The same thanks go to Dr Honglai Li, who has more than once offered a helping hand to deal with the technical issues in this present thesis.

Declaration

I declare that this thesis is submitted to the University of Warwick in support of my application for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. It has been composed by myself, except where due acknowledgement is made, and its contents have not been included in any previous application for any degree at another university.

Abstract

Research in translation studies has paid relatively little attention to translation pedagogy and how students, as potential professional translators, may understand and apply the range of current theories and concepts to practical translation tasks. This research explores the construction of translation knowledge and its application with groups of postgraduate students from two universities in China and one in the UK. In the light of new insights into translation teaching, this exploration focuses on the application of translation theories and pedagogical issues. The thesis investigates the three cases qualitatively to ascertain the extent to which the participants used theoretical elements, their perspectives on translation theory, together with comments from Chinese and British translation teachers and the documents of translation courses similar to the case study programmes. This study aims to provide empirically an in-depth understanding of the construction of translation knowledge and expertise related to students' learning of translation, translation theories and their application and the complexity of these features in their particular social contexts of learning.

The research employs the triangulated methods of analysing a translation task performed by students, subsequent interviews with them and with translation teachers, and the analysis of documents relating to British and Chinese translation courses. Data analyses within and across the three cases of translation programmes serve the exploration from triangulated perspectives. Additional complementary data are analysed to support the results.

The findings indicate that the differences between and across the three groups are partly due to local contextual and institutional variation, but are largely due to different conceptions of the roles of translation theories and translation pedagogy. Explorations of the three programmes show the features between them, in particular how the two Chinese groups have inadequate knowledge of translation. The findings indicate how constraints on the two Chinese groups promote a tendency towards incompetence in translation performance, through relatively incoherent course content, lack of pedagogical planning, and lack of practical and professional training. This shows a need to reconceptualise translation pedagogy in the Chinese cases, and arguably in similar Chinese contexts; findings show that traditional language pedagogy with non-specialist teachers remains the chief element in translation pedagogy.

The principal findings are further evaluated and interpreted by considering linguistic approaches, the use of translation briefs, the quality of translators, a holistic view of translation theories and the need for enhanced systematic translation pedagogy in Chinese translation studies contexts. A need is shown for Chinese students to learn to go beyond the mechanisms of putting one language in terms of another. Developments could include the holistic consideration of combining translation product-process-translator processes, as shown in a chart derived from Williams' (2013). These findings are corroborated by the reflections and comments from university teachers of translation in China. The results contribute to a wider understanding of translation theories and pedagogy applicable to translation teaching in a Chinese context. Further suggestions include practical ideas to enhance translation pedagogy in China.

Chapter 1 Introduction

Teaching translation is not a new area, but from its history of at least two millennia in ancient China and the classical Mediterranean civilizations it has now become a recognizably significant area all around the world which is facing new developments and challenges. Translation programmes which aim to educate and train students in translation competencies have grown in number and vitality all over the world. Yet this growth barely keeps pace meeting the ever-rising needs for trained professional translators in the ever-intensifying multi-lingual interactions and increasingly complex social, economic and political interconnectivity arising from globalization, world-wide population movements and international travel, besides urban multi-cultural and multi-ethnic expansion and developments in communication technologies.

Educational researchers and translation educators, especially in western academic contexts, regard translation teaching as a subject second to, but largely separate from, language teaching. Accordingly, the academic curriculum and pedagogical approaches in translation teaching in most higher education institutions have been changed from that of foreign language teaching. Under the impact of newer theories, research findings, and sensitivity to social or contextual complexity, the foreground and context of translation teaching now go considerably beyond the well-established linguistic aspects. Its theoretical content has been extended and enriched in comparison to the largely linguistic-based translation theory in foreign language learning. More attention has therefore been paid to calling for greater theorizing of translation pedagogy.

In mainland China, translating teaching in principle responds to these global trends and developments of translation and teaching. However, this response, I think, rests mainly on the increase of the quantity of translation programmes. Its theoretical components and teaching approaches, methods and techniques are still somewhat traditional, even relatively stagnant. The application of translation theories and pedagogy barely goes along with the academic and professional purposes required by the nature of translation programmes. The understanding and practice of translation teaching remain blurred and overlap with translation courses in foreign language teaching, translator (including interpreter) training and academic translation programmes. Certainly there is the need to reflect on the quality of translation teaching in China.

This is obviously a personal view, but I claim that there is this need for pedagogic reflection in China for two reasons. The first reason came from my work experience, when I was Chair of the English Department and Associate Head of the Foreign Languages School of Jiangxi University of Finance and Economics (JUFE) from 1999 to 2006. This context is, I think, indicative of issues in translation pedagogy in China. Translation teaching was then new to the school. Since translation teaching and language teaching shared all the resources in the school, controversies appeared not only in administration but also in the planning and organization of teaching for foreign language and translation programmes. Every time I monitored and assessed the curricula, the arrangements for teaching courses in translation theory emerged as controversial. The teachers of English, which remains the dominant disciplinary area in this and nearly all similar university departments in China, disliked teaching courses of translation theory (most teachers of translation are also teachers of a

foreign language in China), because they felt that teaching such theories meant a greater workload than teaching English. These theoretical courses in translation were taken reluctantly by those teachers who had lighter workloads but wanted to make up their teaching hours for the sake of income. The teachers of translation complained that the translation theory in the available textbooks was so general and impractical that the students were not interested in it. If they had designed supplementary material, as a likely solution to this teaching materials problem, that would have cost them much time and labour. So teaching translation theory remained highly contentious in the two overlapping but different fields of foreign language teaching and translation programmes. Similar problems in teaching translation theory appeared not only in this particular university but also, it appears, in most of China's institutions, as I learned from exchanging ideas with colleagues from other universities in meetings and conferences.

The other reason to propose the need to reflect on the quality of translation teaching derived from my study experience in MA Applied Translation Studies and research work as an academic visitor at London Metropolitan University during 2004 and 2005. This provided me with another view of translation theory and pedagogy. While the theoretical issues I had learned on this programme were then quite new and abstruse to me, the pedagogic methods I experienced were student-centred: in particular, they included interactive activities involving presentations, translation and interpreting workshops, and assignments and projects. The research work, by focusing on translation programmes and theories in the universities of the UK, opened up my horizons on translation theories and challenged my previous knowledge of translation and Chinese translation theory. This raised the question

for me as to how applicable translation theory actually was to translation pedagogy. At the same time I was aware of the very different contextual factors and problems affecting programmes in China, which would lead to insufficiencies in (re)constructing knowledge of translation and the cultivation of the translation competence which students should have in learning. Thus, these two sets of work and study experiences led me in the path to further investigate the pedagogic elements of translation programmes.

As Mu Lei (1999b) has investigated regarding translation teaching in a Chinese context, these different factors and problems relate to the position of translation, the quality of translation teachers, curriculum design, the compilation of translation textbooks, the selection of materials, the uses of pedagogic methods, and the range and content of translation theory. Currently most of the translation departments or schools are still dominated by foreign language schools or English departments. Translation and English or languages departments share the same teaching staff for the two different subjects. Consequently, university-level translation teaching, which is controlled by being embedded in foreign language teaching, is not fairly treated as a separate subject. This inappropriate positioning of translation as a subject in foreign language teaching raises some barriers for translation teaching. According to the National Technology Evaluation Bureau of China (NTEBC), the subject of translation is categorized as a branch of Applied Linguistics which in turn is itself a subject within Linguistics (see GB/T13745-92, NTEBC 1992). It is treated on a par with Language Teaching, Discourse Linguistics and Computer Linguistics. People take it for granted that translation should be regarded as a sub-discipline of Applied Linguistics and as part of foreign language teaching in most universities.

This kind of relation of an 'umbilical cord' (Motas et al. 1992: 433) which binds translation teaching to foreign languages schools or English departments needs to be explored to examine how it affects translation teaching.

Since this inappropriate institutional positioning of translation cannot help in establishing its separate identity in China, with its different aims from those of foreign language departments, the methods that are applied to the study and teaching of translation are those that have been developed in linguistics. In this sense, translation is still understood as a linguistic phenomenon, as an operation performed on languages, or more precisely, as a process of linguistic transcoding. Teaching translation skills is basically assumed to imply trial-and-error or 'my-translation-runs-as-follows' methods. Therefore, it would be worth knowing how translation courses are taught in practice by staff from traditional language and literature departments, who have little, if any, awareness of disciplinary and professional needs.

In terms of translation theory in teaching, the translation textbooks published in China from 1945 to date which I have examined give prominence to Chinese traditional thoughts on translation. Major examples include: *A Course in E-C Translation* (Zhang Peiji 1980); *A Course in C-E Translation* (Lü Ruicang *et al*. 1983); *A Course on E-C and C-E Translation* (compiled by Ke Ping 1993), *A Course in Translative Art* (Huang Long 1988); *A New Practical Textbook of Translation From Chinese into English* (Chen Hongwei 1996); *A Course in Translation Between English and Chinese* (Yang Lili 1993); *A New Book on E-C Translation* (Li Zhengzhong *et al*. 1992); and *An Applied Theory of Translation*

(Fan Zhongying 1994). These traditional ideas (see Chapter 2) appeared mainly in the principles of translating Buddhist scriptures, the three-word translation principle of '*Xin, Da, Ya*' (fidelity, fluency, elegance) or '*Xin, Shun*' (fidelity, smoothness), *Shensi* (likeness in spirit) and *Huajing* (state of total transformation). Furthermore, these textbooks contributed much to the techniques focusing on word-level and sentence-level by elaborating six principles of 'omission', 'amplification', 'repetition', 'conversion', 'inversion' and 'negation'. Much more attention is paid to translation 'product' than to translation process. These ideas are treated prescriptively and characterize grammar-oriented translation practices which are substantially influenced by theories from linguistics and foreign language teaching pedagogy. Classic examples of linguistic orientations, well-known in China, include Catford's *A Linguistic Theory of Translation* (1965) and Nida's *Toward a Science of Translating* (1964), while among Chinese textbooks Chen Hingwei (1996) has some social semiotic orientation, Ke Ping (1993) includes semiology, Yang Lili (1993) has some modern translation theories and Pan Hong 2004) includes a functional approach. Few chapters in the above textbooks contribute to theoretical considerations relevant to translators' subjectivity, translation purpose and socio-cultural elements in translation processes. Though the importance of translation theory in teaching is stressed in the more recent works of Lao Long (1990), Zhang Nanfeng (1995), Mu Lei 1999b, Zhang Meifang (2001) and Liu Miqing (2003) and Ran Shi-yang (2009), the concepts and content of translation theory referred to are very vague or preferentially biased towards these limited ideas, leaving a vacuum in relation to a broad range of current theories recognized elsewhere. It is not possible to pinpoint the deficiencies of translation theory without identifying which translation theories should be taught. This apparent vacuum in Chinese academic

contexts of translation theory leaves begging the questions of what and how translation theories should be taught; how students learn to apply them in translation; in which way theories may be combined with practice; and how students' knowledge of translation and competence are developed pedagogically. Hence, the important overall question, in my view, is what and how translation theories and pedagogic methods should be applicable in Chinese university teaching of translation. This study seeks to address this gap. It will consider new perspectives from current translation theory and pedagogy and their applicability to teaching (see Chapter 2).

The current research project is a multiple case study of three student groups studying in postgraduate translation programmes in universities, two in mainland China and one in the UK. As well as considering the range and content of translation theories involved in a broader extent than those encountered at undergraduate level, this study aims to explore the academic contextual factors, such as the course translation curricula, course documents, pedagogic issues and assessment methods, which may affect the students' construction of translation knowledge, competence and performance. The application of translation theories and pedagogy will be analysed and discussed by analysing the students' performance on a translation task and the programme documents relating to their learning. Furthermore, this study is also done to include the perspectives of both the students and the Chinese and British teachers in relation to their translation teaching environment. The purpose of this feature of the study is to give voice to their perspectives within the complex wider socio-cultural contexts in which the students and teachers are situated. Before I embark on this exploration, I should say that the

above comments and observations refer to the general phenomenon of translation teaching institutionally, exclusively in mainland China. This general phenomenon will be examined through the two specific cases of translation programmes in China and the one in the UK. These two Chinese cases will be shown (in Chapter 2) to be broadly representative of many similar postgraduate translation programmes in Chinese universities, and the UK case is similarly shown to be broadly representative of many British programmes. While every programme has its local context and many (especially in the UK) claim some special or unique features, at least the case study programmes are shown to have sufficient commonality to support a claim that the multiple case study approach adopted here can yield insights which are relevant to many other programmes.

In order to capture and elicit the complexity of the experience the students have in their translation studying, I adopt a qualitative inquiry approach. The rationale is because this qualitative approach allows not only deeper exploration of the factors affecting students' knowledge construction and performance in the translation process but also gleans different perspectives. This qualitative multiple case study is also able to track complex social phenomena in different angles that cannot be adequately researched in any other common methods (Yin 2009). Through a rigorous thematic analysis, this study aims to provide an in-depth insight into the complexity of translation teaching and learning, focusing on the exploring the application of translation theories and pedagogic issues. The main research methods comprise the triangulation of a translation task for students, student and teacher interviews, and documentary analysis. Additional complementary data collected after data from these triangulated methods are used to further reinforce the findings.

As a consequence, my main research questions, related to the three cases of postgraduate translation programmes, are as follows:

1) What is the nature of any qualitative differences within and across the three groups of cases?
2) What are the likely explanations for such qualitative differences?

Further conceptualizations for these two research questions will be detailed in Chapter 2. The two research questions will be expanded specifically at the end of Chapter 2, where the literature review demonstrates the gap in research and application of translation pedagogy which this study is designed to fill, at least in part. These questions will be reiterated and developed in the beginning of Chapter 3 to facilitate the consideration of research methodology for this study. By attempting to explore these questions, I hope to contribute to the understanding of translation theories and translation pedagogy applicable to teaching in the Chinese context.

Apart from the present Chapter 1 which is an introduction, the thesis consists of six other chapters. Chapter 2 looks at the recent perspectives of translation theory and pedagogy applicable to translation teaching. It reviews the approaches to translation in teaching and main MA translation programmes in Chinese and British contexts. It also briefly reviews recent research into the translation process and derives significant theoretical foundations for the research questions for this study. Chapter 3 discusses research choices with the theoretical and methodological approach to this study, as well as the details and procedures of the methods of inquiry and analysis. The findings and discussions of each case are presented in Chapters 4, 5 and 6 by following a thematic and exploratory analysis. They display the results of

analysing the students' translation performance and the exploration of factors affecting the construction of translation knowledge. The analyses, exploration and discussions between and across the three cases highlight that a holistically solid body of translation theories and pedagogy is needed in many or most Chinese universities, rather than mainly linguistic theories or traditional Chinese theories. The complementary data in Chapter 7 corroborates the findings from the triangulated resources. Chapter 8 contributes further evaluation of and pedagogical applications of the principal findings with the reflections and comments from my colleagues in China who teach translation. It also presents the answers to the research questions as well as the reflectivity and limitations of the research. Chapter 9 concludes this research project with further suggestions applicable to enhance translation pedagogy in China.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

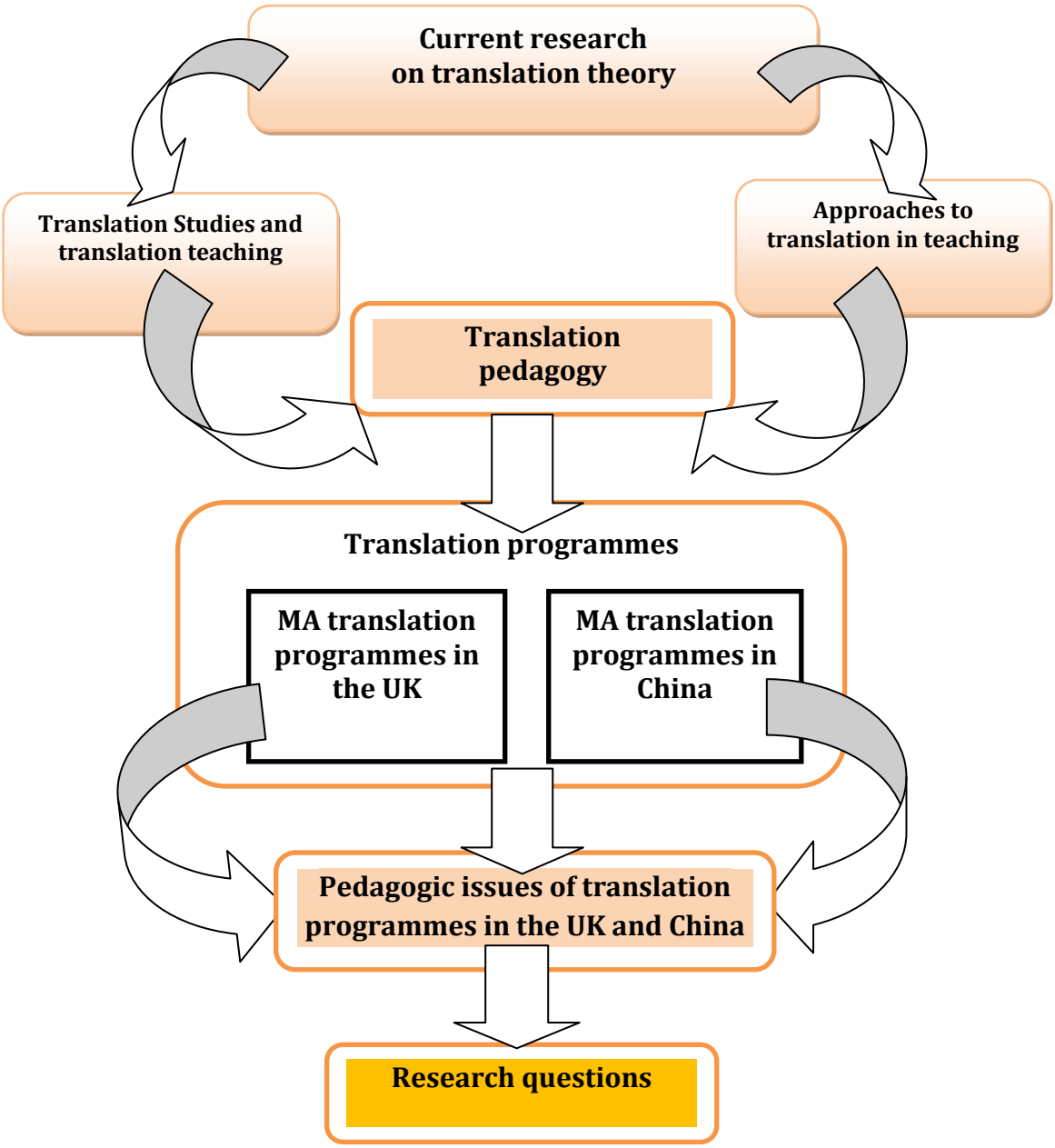


Fig. 2.1: A diagrammatic overview of the literature review

This chapter, as shown in Fig 2.1, reviews some features of current research on translation theory, Translation Studies and translation teaching in order to consider translation pedagogy (i.e. the educational principles, rationales and practical methods for teaching and learning translation skills). These sections form a

theoretical and pedagogic background to a consideration of postgraduate translation programmes - in this case, Master's courses in China and in Britain - and a discussion of the pedagogic issues of translation in such courses. This is the immediate context for the present research which is conducted within three such programmes. As Fig 2.1 shows, the chapter is constructed so that it moves progressively from the theoretical context to the postgraduate pedagogic context and leads to the research questions, which are identified to fill a gap within the teaching of translation. In this way the literature review includes a rationale for the particular research questions in this project.

2.1 Current research on translation theory in teaching

Recent research has showed that translation scholars have paid close attention to many new issues raised in translation teaching as a result of the rapidly changing world (with new technologies, global migration and urban linguistic diversity, and increasingly complex social, economic and cultural networks which often necessitate translation) and the varied disciplines with which translation studies forms interfaces (Tennent, 2005; Malmkjær, 2004; Kearns, 2008; Tan, 2008; Rico, 2010). One major concern is the discussion of how translation teaching should be taught in progressive new waves of information technology and globalization contexts. Not surprisingly, a number of scholars have intensified the demand that translation theory should be applied to the teaching of translation (Chesterman, 2002, 2005; Inghilleri, 2005a. 2005b; Wolf and Fukari, 2007; Mu, 2008; Colina, 2009; Ran, 2009; Williams, 2013) and, more broadly, to applied linguistics and foreign language teaching (Bell, 1991; Hatim, 2001; Cook, 2010). Relating to this concern, their insights into the usefulness of translation theory for translation

teaching convey some consensus in scholarship that translation theory should be embodied in two respects: institutionally, theory should underlie and balance the needs of the professional and educational quality of translation courses; and pedagogically, theory should provide necessary knowledge for more effective training and teaching. More recent advocates, looking at translation from a sociological perspective, seek to broaden the study of the role of translators in a socio-cultural context (Inghilleri, 2005b; Wolf and Fukari, 2007). Thus Malmkjær has viewed the importance of 'input on the sociology of translation' in undergraduate translation programmes (2004: 3).

The new research on the demand of translation theory in teaching put emphasis on three ways: firstly, by applying translation theory to guide and develop students' competence in translating and decision-making (Chesterman, 2005; Lederer, 2007); secondly, by expanding the horizons for analysing the social, cultural, historic and ideological dimensions of translation (Inghilleri, 2005b; Chesterman, 2007; Wolf and Fukari, 2007); and thirdly, by reflecting on what translators are doing and why (Pym, 2001; Chesterman, 2001; Arrojo, 2005; Tymoczko, 2007). In addition, more research contributes to discussing translation pedagogy from different angles with respect to curriculum design, translation theory and practice, translation competence and teaching methods (Colina, 2003; Malmkjær, 2004; Bernardini, 2004; Kiraly, 2000, 2003; Tennent, 2005; Ulrych, 2005; Cronin, 2005; Díaz Cintas, 2008; Li and Hu, 2006, 2009; Li, 2007, 2012). For example, Colina (2003) emphasises the importance of establishing a pedagogic framework of translation education. Kiraly (2000, 2003) and Baer and Koby (2003) pay attention to collaborative teaching and managing translation objectives and curriculum design. Li and Hu (2006) and Li

(2007, 2012) examine translation pedagogy from different facets in relation to curriculum design, translation education and needs assessment in both Chinese and Hong Kong contexts. These indicate that the call for a theorization of translation pedagogy has become increasingly recognizable, which could apply to any or all of the above three applications (see further, Section 2.4). The following sections will review these insights in more detail, theoretically and pedagogically.

2.1.1 Translation theory: towards social-cultural approaches

Regarding the role of translation theory in teaching, many publications tend to veer towards the prescriptive, mainly from the perspective of linguistics or contrastive analysis (e.g. Vinay and Darbelnet, 1958; Newmark, 1988; Baker, 1992; Hatim and Mason, 1990, 1997; as do most current Chinese translation textbooks – see Chapter 1). This does not mean prescriptive translation theory and contrastive linguistics are not useful for translation; on the contrary, they are essential and fundamental for learning translation from the perspective of contrastive linguistics (Malmkjær, 2002). However, based on the recent discussions of translation theories in translation teaching, it is well recognized that translation theory in teaching should not be limited merely to linguistic equivalence and discourse analysis. This may lead students to have insufficient awareness of the broader construction of translation knowledge.

One of the approaches that first sought to provide translation students with a broader theoretical knowledge was Chesterman's causal model. Chesterman applies the principles of causality to translator education (2002, 2005), and categorizes current translation theory used in teaching into three models. The first is a static

model, which focuses on the relation between source and target texts. The second is a dynamic model, which maps different stages of the translating process over time: Chesterman links this model with communication theory. The third is a causal model, which, Chesterman explains, 'shows the various causes and effects of translations, kinds of translations and linguistic features of translations' (2005: 191). He claims that the third model can manifest some approaches in translation studies as causal, like *Skopos* theory, relevance theory, polysystem theory, critical cultural studies, think-aloud protocol studies and the whole of the prescriptive tradition. In my opinion, Chesterman's causal model ideally provides theoretical knowledge which students need in different stages of studying while pedagogic purposes are realized in translation teaching. Pedagogically, he calls for training translation students in a social-cultural context, and he hopes that his causal model will provide translation trainees with an ethical awareness of the translator's responsibilities. The insufficiency in his model, however, is that he does not offer any practical cases to demonstrate how this would be possible.

2.1.2 Advocacy of a sociology of translation

Recent research involves applying the French scholar Pierre Bourdieu's (e.g. 1987, 1992) sociological theory to translation studies (Hermans, 1999; Inghilleri, 2003, 2005b; Gouanvic, 2005; Simeoni, 2005; Pym, 2006; Wolf and Fukari, 2007). This new perspective on translation, and translators' and agents' roles in a wider socio-cultural context, focuses on discussing the application of Bourdieu's key concepts – habitus, field, capital and illusio – and their contribution to theorizing the interaction between structure and agency both sociologically and philosophically. Discussions partially lead to a shift within translation studies away from a

predominant concern with translated textual products towards a view of translation and interpreting as social, cultural and political acts. These acts intrinsically connect to local and global relations of power and control (Cronin, 2003). Michaela Wolf categorizes them into the sociology of agents, of the translation process and of the cultural product (2007: 14-18). In support of examining and analysing the role of translators and agents in translation relevant to their communities, a sociological viewpoint seemingly expands the two past identities of agents active in translation production and translation process. This aids understanding the complex subjectivity a translator would employ in a given socio-cultural context. There are not many empirical studies about the sociology of translation, but some recent works explore a translational and translatorial sociology and employ Bourdieu's sociology in translation studies (e.g. Simeoni, 1998; Inghilleri, 2003, 2005a, 2005b; Hermans, 1999; Gouanvic, 2005; Yannakopoulou, 2008). The arguments presented in these works are partly related to the deficiencies of Descriptive Translation Studies regarding the issues of the norm-based theories and translator's agency. For example, Yannakopoulou argues, 'Whereas norm theory is an invaluable tool for gauging the literary output of a specific period, it is deficient when it comes to explaining deviant translation practices and translation choices that defy the norm' (2008: 4). The application of Bourdieu's theory to translation and interpreting, as Yannakopoulou puts it, has been thought of 'more specifically as part of the re-evaluation of descriptive and polysystems approaches, offering a more powerful set of concepts than norms and conventions to describe socio-cultural constraints on acts of translation and their resulting products' (2008: 6).

Wolf and Fukari (2007) claim that Bourdieu's theoretical insights provide the formulation of a sociology of translation. They believe that this sociology of translation can cause a paradigmatic shift toward more sociologically- and anthropologically-informed approaches to the study of translation processes and products. However, this viewpoint, I think, challenges China's translation teaching: in fact, few teachers in China really look at translation sociologically and anthropologically but rather treat teaching translation at a neutral thing.

2.1.3 Ethics of translation

Another theme in current research is the ethics of translation. Ethical discussions at the beginning of the 1990s tended to be about prescriptive and normative rules which laid down how the translator should translate. The concept of loyalty (Nord 1991b), for instance, was a central one: to what or to whom should a translator be loyal? What if loyalties clash? How can an ethical path be steered between different loyalties between source and target text or between author and audience? These concerns were developed into discussions of the translator's role in initiating translations, selecting source texts, acting as 'patrons' themselves and thus exercising power, as well as being subject to the power of others, to the financial interests of clients, and to all kinds of external constraints (e.g. Venuti, 1995; 1998). Recent enquiry into the role of translators relate to human, political and international contexts. This can be seen in Baker's *Translation and Conflict: A Narrative Account* (2006). By presenting an analysis of translation and interpretation from sensitive political situations such as Guantanamo Bay, Iraq and Kosovo, Baker argues that translators and interpreters in such situations are not, and cannot possibly be honest. Thus, loyalty of being translators has become a major

feature of translation studies and calls for translators to be visible, audible, and ethically empowered agents (Venuti, 1992, 1995, 1998; Toury, 1995; Lane-Mercier, 1997; Arrojo, 1998; Pym, 2001; Cronin, 2006; Pei, 2010). As a marker of the recency of ethical considerations, 'ethics' does not appear as either an entry or an item in the indexes of some major encyclopaedias of translation (Chan & Pollard, 1995; Baker, 1998), nor in a major collection of readings in translation studies (Venuti, 2000), but features quite prominently in the index of a later companion collection of critical readings (Baker, 2010). Indeed, Baker explicitly states in her introduction that 'The ethics of translation and interpreting and the moral dilemmas involved in attempting to 'do right' by various parties in the interaction... This theme runs through most of the articles included in this volume...' (2010: 4). In terms of teaching, three translation educators from a pedagogical perspective provide useful insights into translation ethics for the purpose of teaching (Chesterman, 2001; Arrojo, 2005; Tymoczko, 2007).

2.1.3.1 Chesterman's point of view on ethics of translation

Chesterman (2001) categorizes translation ethics into four basic models. The first is the ethics of representation, which refers to the ideal of the faithful interpreter and to the translation of sacred texts. Its ethical imperative is to represent the source text, or the source author's intention, accurately, without adding, omitting or changing anything. Good examples of ethically dubious representation are 18th and 19th century translations of the Qur'an by Christian ministers from the West, which were not at all concerned with representation of the spirit of the text as scripture: 'The frank purpose of early Koran translators was to refute Muslim religious arguments' (Clive Holes 2000: 142). The second is the model of ethics of service, which

concerns a commercial service, based on fulfilling the aim of the translation as set by the client and accepted or negotiated by the translator. It demands a high quality of translator-servant loyalty. This means translators are loyal above all to the client, but also to the target readers and to the original writer. They should be efficient and perhaps also as invisible as possible. The third model is a more philosophical ethic of communication which focuses on communicating across linguistic or cultural boundaries. From the point of view of communication, Chesterman thinks that the ethical translator is a mediator working to achieve cross-cultural reciprocal understanding. The fourth model is norm-based ethics. This relates to Toury's descriptive translation studies and norm theory (see Fig. 2.3) (see further, Section 2.3.4), in which norms determine or influence translation production and reception. Norms capture what acceptable translation products should look like, and how they vary from period to period and from culture to culture. The norms thus represent expectations, mainly in the target culture, about what translations are supposed to be like in that culture at that time. Chesterman thinks that 'behaving ethically thus means behaving as one is expected to behave, in accordance with the norms, not surprising the reader or client' (2001: 141). In addition, Chesterman thinks that translators should have a commitment to the values of practice. He illustrates this by the examples of the Hippocratic Oath and the Archimedean Oath. For Chesterman, an ethics of 'commitment' is an attempt to define the 'good' ideally attained by translation and embodied in an oath that might work as a code of professional ethics for translators (Havac, 2010). From the pedagogic point of view in constructing students' knowledge of translation, there is no doubt that the five ways of looking at translation ethics can provide a framework for translation teaching in a fundamental

approach to examining ethics of translation, though categories overlap and have problems as Chesterman (2001: 142-144) analyses.

2.1.3.2 Arrojo's points of view on ethics of translation in textbooks

The Brazilian translation theorist Rosemary Arrojo (2005) takes the view that translation teaching should impart or reflect the knowledge of the ethics of translation. She observes in a socio-cultural perspective how the current development of translation studies in the course of globalization has generated a number of publications of translation textbooks, which claim to offer new insights into translation teaching. She examines three representative books which she thinks can still be related to a predominantly essentialist theoretical foundation: Baker's *In other Words: A Coursebook on Translation* (1992), Kussmaul's *Training the Translator* (1995), and Hatim and Mason's *The Translator as Communicator* (1997). She focuses on some of their arguments and reflects on how they could be incorporated into an approach to teaching which would fully fit the implications of the inevitably ideological basis of the translator's task. Her reflection shows that there are few explanations of these implications in these widely disseminated works. Arrojo comments that these textbooks resort to a brand of linguistics which goes beyond the merely linguistic, supposedly taking into account cultural and ideological aspects, and that they neglect the translator's conscious and unconscious circumstances, motivations, and goals by considering translation as the ideologically neutral reproduction of a text across different languages, cultures and times. She argues:

> […] *if translation were fully recognized to be an ideologically marked activity which depends directly on the attitudes, beliefs and value systems which constitute the translator's cultural and ideological universe, such recognition*

would have to be clearly reflected in the pedagogical approaches which claim to entertain such notions. (Arrojo 2005: 231)

Reflecting the route taken by these three books, similar expressions occurred in Chinese translation textbooks, some of which I reviewed in Chapter 1. Few of them featured an ethics of translation which takes into account the translator's inevitable visibility. Translation was presented as neutral or free from ideological and historical constraints. The Chinese Translation curriculum has designed few activities to discipline students in the responsibilities involved in being active translators or interpreters and writers of translated texts. In the translation textbooks used in China's current translation teaching, the ethics of translation seems the last thing to be discussed. In a broad sense, the ethics of translation is neglected in teaching due to either lack of awareness or over-emphasis on the translators' ideal role as that of an invisible mediator equally serving the target and the source texts as well as the languages and the cultures they represent without any consideration of contemporary critical material, say regarding the voice of authority, the voice of the life world of the individual, minority issues, or war and the aftermath of armed conflict – considerations all readily available in Baker (2010).

2.1.3.3 Tymoczko's point of view on training ethics of translation

The view that translation cannot be a neutral activity is also held by the American scholar Maria Tymoczko (2007). When she envisages how enlarging the concept of translation entails the empowerment of translators, she thinks that approaches to the ethics of translation that recommend neutrality are paradigmatic of the tendency to disperse ideology and to efface ethical issues in translator training and professional codes. She calls attention to translators' agency in relation to the ethics and

ideology of translation. She stresses that translation students can benefit from understanding ethical decisions, faced with expanding the conceptualization of translation and developing more empowered practices of translation in an era of globalization, because they aspire to be tomorrow's translation agents. The fundamental aspect that Tymoczko emphasizes is what translators, translation teachers, and translation scholars can do to ensure that such agency is also ethical (Tymoczko 2007: 316). Highlighting Tymoczko's viewpoint means that ethics of translation cannot be achieved merely by referring students to professional codes of translators' and interpreters' practice. It would be more helpful for students to understand the nature of engagement and social change, to know how people think about such topics and how translators understand their own creativity, agency, power, and responsibility as translators. This suggests a broad view is needed to help students to understand the complex cross-cultural concept of translation and to have knowledge of a broad range of translation types and diverse local conceptualizations.

Searching for these insights within China's current translation teaching, they appear not to be considered. Ethical issues of translation have not been emphasised as part of students' construction of translation knowledge, in addition to using the codes of translators and interpreters such as AIIC (International Association of Conference Interpreters), IAPTI (International Association of Professional Translators and Interpreters), ATA (American Translators Association) and ITI (Institute of Translation and Interpretation, United Kingdom). Thus, 'ethics' or related terms are not mentioned at all in Chau (1995), Wang (1995) or Liu (1995). Chau's single mention of the phrase 'familiarity with the ethos of the profession' (1995:195) as an

element that translation courses should provide might, but equally might not, include ethics, but he does not elaborate on it.

2.2 Translation Studies and translation teaching

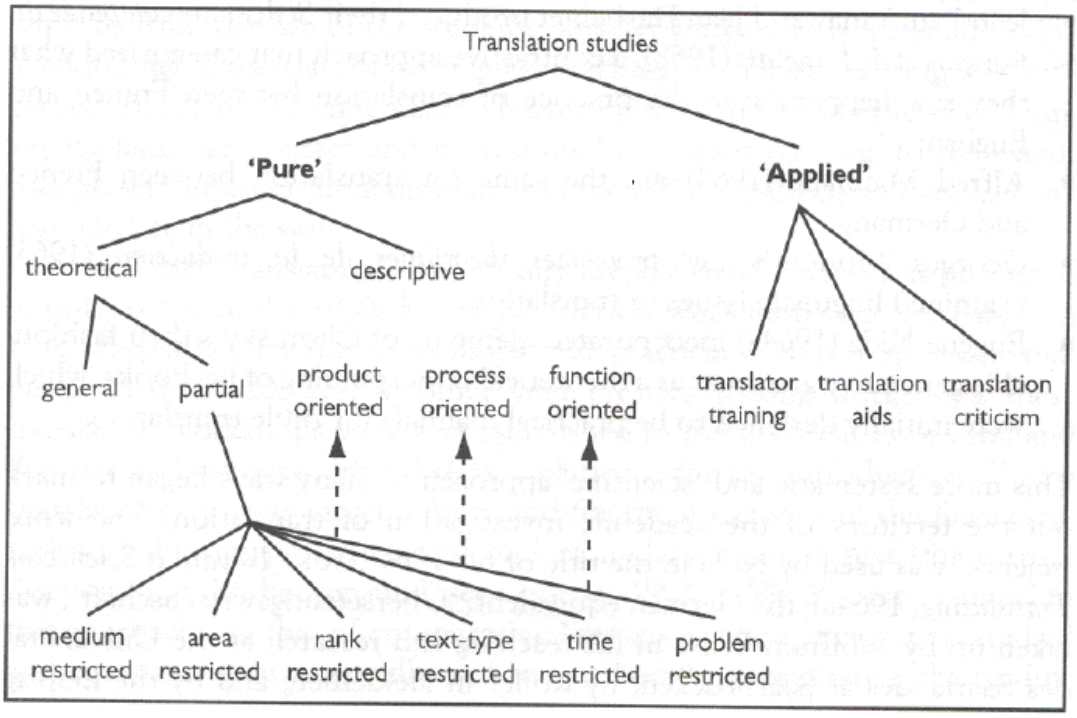
The development of Translation Studies since the 1970s has witnessed two trends: the boom in the study of translation theories and the corresponding proliferation of translation programmes. The conceptualization of Translation Studies stemmed from Holmes' seminal paper *The Name and Nature of Translation Studies* which was initially presented in 1972. In the paper he presented an ideally systematic description of the discipline of Translation Studies, where he attempted to categorize translation theory and build up a framework of combining theory and practice for literary translation. Since Holmes' thought has impacted on China's translation scholarship, the following sections review his framework and its influence on China's translation teaching, which occupies a place in my argument.

2.2.1 Framework of Translation Studies

Reflecting on the dominant definitions of translation theory of the time such as translation as 'science', 'art' or 'craft', Holmes argued that these were not enough to explain the realm of translation, and he put forward the concept of 'Translation Studies', which 'is to be understood as a collective and inclusive designation for all research activities taking the phenomena of translating and translation as their basis or focus' (1988: 71). Holmes (1987, 1988 reprinted from the 1972 original paper) proposed an overall framework for Translation Studies (see Fig. 2.1 which shows Toury's diagrammatic representation of Holmes' ideas) in which he stressed that the relationship between theoretical, descriptive and applied translation studies was

dialectical: each branch provided and used insights from the other two branches. Thus translator training used theoretical and descriptive studies but, by implication, the teaching and learning of translation might also shed light on these studies. The Tel Aviv scholar Gideon Toury discussed Holmes overall conception of Translation Studies (1995: 18), but Toury's position is that applied activities, such as translator training, are not a central component of translation studies but 'extensions' of the discipline in a uni-directional extension (rather than in a possibly reciprocal relationship as Holmes implied).

Fig. 2.2: Holmes' framework of Translation Studies (cited in Toury 1995: 10)



Holmes' framework, sometimes known as the Holmes-Toury map, appears to be a systematic classification. Translation Studies is located on the top. Major categories are 'applied' and 'pure' branches of Translation Studies. Alongside the theoretical and applied aspects of the discipline, Holmes identified a third fundamental

component which he called ‘descriptive translation studies’. The objective of ‘descriptive translation studies’, according to Holmes, is to ‘describe the phenomena of translating and translation(s) as they manifest themselves in the world of our experience’ (Holmes 1988: 71), while that of ‘theoretical translation studies’, or ‘translation theory’, is ‘to establish general principles by means of which these phenomena can be explained and predicted’ (Holmes 1988: 71). This ‘theoretical translation studies’ consists of general and six partial theories. The third branch, ‘applied translation studies’ (ATS) (Holmes 1988: 77), which has a role in this research relating to translation teaching, covers translator training, translation aids and translation criticism. This branch has been expanded by Jeremy Munday (2008: 12). For example, translator training in this expansion includes teaching evaluation methods, testing techniques and curriculum planning, translator aids (e.g. IT applications, dictionaries, grammars, also lexicological and terminological aids) and translation policy and criticism (including revision, evaluation of translations and reviews). From here a gap can be identified concerning how translation teaching goes on in practical and pedagogic terms, and how translator trainees come to understand and appreciate the ethics of translation. An interesting feature of this gap is the possibility, raised by Holmes, that translation teaching might have some unspecified influence on theoretical and descriptive areas of translation studies: to ascertain whether and how this might happens would mean actually investigating the teaching and learning of translation to identify the role of theory and description and, further, to see how translation teaching might influence theory and descriptive areas. However, the later development of Translation Studies was that this concept was wrongly used more by literary or culturally oriented studies, at least in some Chinese translation scholarship. This also causes a blurring of the use of the concept

of Translation Studies in the Chinese context, which may mean 'the study of translation' or 'literary/cultural studies' or both in different people's proposals (see Section 2.2.2).

2.2.2 Translation Studies and teaching in China

Within the considerable history of translation in China, the first identifiable tendency is toward literal renderings of Buddhist scriptures from Sanskrit into Chinese since the 3rd century, consolidated in the 4th- to 7th centuries by teams or forums of often hundreds of translators and student monks working with notable scholars and commentators so that the resultant texts were often much discussed, including discussion of translation principles, and annotated with religious explanations of transliterated terms or textual meanings (Hung and Pollard, 2000). The translation process, for the student monks, thus had a strong element of both translation training and religious training or education in handling key texts and elucidating their meanings and significance. Williams (2013, citing Hung 2006) draws attention to this long Chinese tradition of the collaborative or group work involved in translating these religious and cultural texts, and sees a link with contemporary translators' interpersonal and even electronic networks. Thus the famous scholar Kumarjiva (AD 334-413) produced hundreds of translations through teams but the outstanding Buddhist translator Xuanzang (AD 602-664), working with far smaller teams, modified the previous source text orientation to a more flexible 'principle of faithfulness' that combined fidelity to the source text with fluency in the Chinese translations and separated the functions of translation and explication. In the Song dynasty (AD 960-1279) the government had set up a Sanskrit school for students from various monasteries to develop a new generation

of translators but the decline of Buddhism and a change in policy left translation to individuals rather than to trained groups of translators. English to Chinese translation, initially by Christian missionaries such as Matteo Ricci (1552-1610) working with Chinese scholars, had – perhaps surprisingly – included maths and science texts as about a third of their translations (Hung and Pollard, 2000) which were influential but did not lead to translation teaching or pedagogy. The emphasis in translating into Chinese on readability and faithfulness in this first period held sway for many centuries (Liu Miqing, 1995) but was modified slightly by Ma Jiangzhong (1845-1900) in favour of 'tactful translation' designed to maintain the spirit and tone of the original and to produce a similar effect as the source text. As Chinese translators worked more with European languages and increasingly included science texts as well as literature, Yan Fu (1853-1921) had a marked and long-lasting influence in a second period with his succinct formula of 'faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance' whereby aesthetic elements were highly regarded; however, this triadic principle was introduced by Yan Fu as a goal and it explicitly recognized the three-fold formula as 'three ticklish problems' (Liu, 1995). Liu (ibid.) identifies a third period in which Fu Lei's (1908-1966) influential idea of 'closeness of spirit' rather than 'closeness of forms' was stressed, though both were important. A fourth period influenced by Qian Zhongshu (1910-1998) emphasized 'sublimination' and integrations so that translated texts would show no trace of awkwardness but would not lose the flavour of the original. Overall, pre-modern translation in China had quite a narrow scope, although principles were much discussed; and aesthetics or ideas from linguistics were introduced only much later, so that translation was somewhat reliant on intuition and empathy.

Regarding the teaching of translation in China, a national school of foreign languages was set up in the Yuan dynasty (1279-1368), especially for translators and interpreters for the then significant regional language of Persian, but there are no record of its syllabus (Hung and Pollard, 2000). The Manchu government in 1862 set up a multilingual academy for European languages in which the syllabus included translation, along with geography, world history, international law and economics; these general studies were also part of the similar curriculum offered by the College of Interpreters. However, after 1911 in the Chinese Republic, until well after the establishment of The People's Republic after 1949, there was no established policy for translator training; so most practitioners were self-trained.

In the late 1980s Translation Studies was introduced largely from Europe into Chinese scholarship. Chinese translation scholars, especially those scholars who worked on literature and literary studies, responded and focused on the comparison between source and target texts, taking the long-standing concept of 'fidelity' as their uppermost criterion. New concepts, ideas, paradigms and horizons in Translation Studies challenged scholars and led to heated discussions and debates about issues such as: the position of translation in China, whether Chinese traditional translation should be discarded because some Chinese scholars felt that it fell behind its Western counterparts, and whether the idea of Translation Studies was suitable for the Chinese translation field. Some translation scholars began to study and introduce Translation Studies (Tan, 1987, 1995, 1998). Many scholars considered reforming the status of translation in China. They believed that China's translation should keep up with international trends. They strongly urged that Chinese translation scholarship should consider the position of Translation Studies

(Tan, 1987; Yang Zijiang, 1989; Zhang Nanfeng, 1995; Sun Zhili, 1997; Xu Jun, 1999, 2001; Mu Lei, 2000, 2003). But some doubted Translation Studies (Zhang Jinghao, 1999; Mu Lei, 2000). Some conservative theorists in academia advocated establishing 'Chinese uniqueness of translatology' (Luo Xinzhang, 1983; Gui Qianyuan, 1986). They disliked any ideas influenced by the 'Western touch' unless they were sinicized, since they considered them *Nalai Zhuyi*[1] (literally 'grabbism'). One of the psychological and ideological reasons for this was partly a panic reaction to 'westernisation' for historical reasons. In short, the debates centred on the defence or abandonment of Chinese translation tradition, and the universality and specificity of translation theory. Translation theorists had heated arguments between traditional schools and Western schools, general schools and specific schools, as well as linguistic and literary schools (see Gui Qianyuan, 1986; Tan Zaixi, 1999; Zhang Nanfeng, 1998, 2000, 2001; Xu Yuanchong, 2001, 2003). These discussions have influenced Chinese scholarship in literary and cultural studies. Yet in spite of this influence, there is little general agreement to situate the ideas from Translation Studies within a body of translation theory.

Some scholars suggested that Translation Studies should be applied in teaching, urging that Translation Studies should be treated as an independent discipline (e.g. Tan, 1987, 2003; Xu Jun, 1999, 2001; Mu Lei, 2000, 2003; Yang Zijian, 2003; Sun Yifeng and Mu Lei, 2008; Wang Ning, 2003; Wang Ning and Sun Yifeng, 2008). However, there were confusions and misunderstandings in their proposals. For example, there was a paradox for those scholars who specialized in literary or

[1] The famous slogan put forward by Lu Xun (1881-1936), one of pioneers of the New Literature Movement in China during (1919-1949) at the time is 'grabbism', i.e. grab anything useful to the Chinese practice so as to give thorough critiques of traditional Chinese culture.

cultural studies when they agreed that Translation Studies should be treated as an independent discipline yet they quoted the theories of literary and cultural studies to support their claim for the discipline of translation where translation teaching occurs. Some Chinese translation scholars from literary translation, business translation or translator education confused the concept 'Translation Studies' (literally 'translation study', 'Fanyi Yanjiu' 翻译研究) in their proposals (e.g. Xu Jun, 1999, 2001; Mu Lei, 2000, 2003; Yang Zijian, 2003; Sun Yifeng and Mu Lei, 2008). Some saw this as 'the subject of the study of translation'; some used it to refer to cultural or literary studies. Others used it vaguely either capitalising the first letter of the concept or not. This phenomenon can be seen in the works of Lao Long (1990), Zhang Nanfeng (1995), Mu Lei (1999b) and Liu Miqing (2003) when they urged the demand for translation theory in teaching which might lead the discipline into a bottleneck, causing confusion and unnecessary complexity due to the impact of Translation Studies. However, such voices to establish 'Translation Studies' as an independent discipline in Chinese translation scholarship have become subdued in recent years. This is because the ideas from Translation Studies appear somewhat restrictive and controversial when they are used as the major theory to guide translation teaching.

Section 2.2.2 has briefly reviewed the considerable history of the Chinese translation tradition and considered the influence of Translation Studies on Chinese scholarship. The last three decades (including the period of my research) have witnessed how Translation Studies has minimally affected China's translation teaching. However, though scholars in Translation Studies in China claim that this field embraces interaction with disciplines such as anthropology, psychology and

economics, the theories of Translation Studies are still associated with linguistics, language learning, discourse analysis and cultural studies (Bassnett and Lefevere 1990: vii; Snell-Hornby 1994, 2006 and 2009). This limits translation insights to social and cultural settings and issues such as power, politics, national and regional interests, religion and economics. Less consideration is given to translators and agents – or ethics - involved in the translation process in a given community. Meanwhile, the scope of theories and translation teaching indicate that their contribution of what counts as 'theory' is still limited to notions of what a good translation should be. Inquiries are rarely made about how to deal with cultural issues: whether or how socio-cultural settings of translation should be considered; if the community of translation should be questioned, how the translator and agents work and function in the translation process; and what criteria can control the quality according to the translation brief. This study is designed at least in part as a corrective to this prevailing tendency in Chinese translation theory.

2.2.3 Translation in teaching

Generally speaking, teaching translation includes translation as an aid in foreign language teaching and translation as an end (Delisle, 1988; Mu Lei, 1991a; Cook, 2010). Translation occupies different positions in foreign language teaching and translator (including interpreter) education. In some way, these areas interact in language training. Translation teaching, apart from the fulfilment of academic purposes, emphasises cultivating student translators' competence.

Translation is regarded as a means to facilitate foreign language teaching and second language acquisition. Traditional foreign language teaching mainly matches

vocabulary and grammatical equivalents between two different languages. As stated in the research context, this features China's translation teaching. More recent works have rehabilitated the use of translation in these areas. They emphasise that translation is an inevitable part of foreign language teaching (e.g. Jones, 2001; Cook, 2010; Witte et al., 2009; Leonardi, 2010). Jones summaries how translation in language teaching and learning 'plays three distinct roles as a key to the meaning of new items, as a means of practising, learning and testing production or comprehension and as a skill worth acquiring for its own sake' (Jones 2001: 491). He discusses the incorporation into language teaching of translator or interpreter training, but maintains that professional translator-training should be left to specialist courses, often at postgraduate level. Against the negative views of translation, both Leonardi (2010) and Cook (2010) present their arguments respectively from the views of point of teaching foreign languages and second language acquisition. Cook stresses the differences between translation as an end of learning and translation as an educational and pedagogical means (2010: 73-74). Leonardi agrees that pedagogical translation should differ from translation pedagogy (Leonardi 2010: 81; cf. Delisle 1988: viii, 26, 40; Mu Lei 1999b: 3). They have views in common that translation pedagogy aims to train professional translators, whereas pedagogical translation, as Leonardi says, is 'a means to help learners acquire, develop, and further strengthen their knowledge and competence in a foreign language' (Leonardi 2010: 17). In addition, Cook and Leonardi both emphasise the importance of translation theory. They urge a need for a theoretical framework. The focus for this need, nevertheless, remains on the levels of equivalence.

In the Chinese context, foreign language teaching focuses predominantly on English learning. College English teaching is stipulated in Daxue Yingyu Kecheng Jiaoxue Yaoqi《大学英语课程教学要求》(2007) [*College English Curriculum Requirements*, 2007]: non-English majors are required to study a foreign language, normally English, and in most universities a pass at the College English Test (CET) for Band 4 is required for graduation (many better students pass Band 6 which is well-regarded for future employment). The whole curriculum plan of English subject and college English are modelled nationally (see further, Chapter 6). Significantly, translation in the Requirements is designed as 'the fifth skill' in College English teaching (after reading, writing, listening and speaking).

Therefore, translation as part of testing exists in the College English Test (CET). The compilation of textbooks for College English teaching follows the basic principles of the official requirements. An instructive example can be found in *Real communication* (New Standard College English) Greenall et al., 2009, 2010). This four-level course has multi-media elements, with emphases on students' real and active uses of English, with strong elements of developing intercultural understanding and critical thinking. In this series translation as one of the ways of learning English is designed to help students in language acquisition and, especially, in using language and understanding cultures. Hence, each unit has two or three translation tasks (of increasing length and complexity in later books with a wide range of topics and themes) which are integrated into the materials, while the teacher's books (Jin and Cortazzi, 2009) have not only model answers for these translation tasks but also translations of all the main reading passages so that teachers can easily construct additional translation tasks or use these given

translations to clarify meanings in problematic passages for themselves and for students.

Yet translation teaching is an end in itself as Jones claims, for either academic or professional purposes. Broadly speaking, translation teaching concentrates on training student translators' competence in translation processes (Golden, 2001). In Golden's opinion, the first step in translator or interpreter training programmes involves selecting the candidates to be trained. The above review on the position of translation in foreign language teaching has shown that translation teaching cannot be replaced by the translation in foreign language teaching, though there are some overlapping concerns. More theoretical and practical arguments can be seen below.

2.2.4 Translation tasks and authentic material

Cook (2010), after examining practical issues in pedagogical translation, argues that the selection of teachers, learners and translation task should be differentiated in translation in language teaching (TILT). Translation tasks should range accordingly from corrected close translation to communicative translation with commentary. However, Leonardi (2010) not only regards translation as the fifth skill in language teaching (which is the current Chinese educational position), but thinks that pedagogical translation is student-centred. She follows the theories of task-based language teaching and learning and argues that translation tasks should use authentic texts in foreign language teaching for pedagogical purposes. According to Ellis (2003), the authenticity of a task can bring students into direct contact with real world facts of genuine and content-based language, and provide them with

authentic exposure to language forms and uses rather than to artificially designed features.

In terms of translation pedagogy, which was affected by language pedagogy, task-based practice and authentic translation material are used methodologically as tools to train students' translation competence. They are used for more than identifying language issues and helping students develop their language competence. Kelly (2005) advances both task-based approaches and project-based approaches in translator training, although these approaches are sometimes seen as opposites. To reconcile the two approaches, Kelly suggests that the criteria for the selection of translation tasks should relate to professional realism and pedagogical progression. For professional realism, four facets should be included: authenticity of texts and other material, realism of the translation situation, professional ethics and professional market (2005: 119-122). Regarding pedagogical progression, Kelly's focus is on text types, prototypical discourses, content accessibility, accessibility of reliable documentation, student interest and motivation and also the feasibility of texts and activities selected (2005: 122-127). González Davies (2005) specifically urges that translator training should take place in student-centred and task-based classes, since different tasks can help students experience the exploration of translation processes which are delineated in the syllabus. Also Hurtado Albir (2007) suggests that translation task-based approaches should be designed into the curriculum to promote students' translation competence. Thus there is reasonable support for the inclusion of a translation task as part of an investigation such as the present one into translation pedagogy, since, as shown, there are authoritative advocates of translation tasks as a significant part of teaching translation.

2.3 Approaches of translation in teaching

Looking at approaches to translation in teaching indicates that not all translation theories are suitable to guide translator training. This section will examine some representative approaches or applied theories of translation which are frequently used and quoted in translation teaching, though they may not often be well understood. These approaches are: the interpretive approach, translation as cultural communication, translation strategies, the integrated approach to translation studies, and functionalist approaches. The purpose of this examination here is to introduce their main contents, models, assumptions and contributions to teaching – besides considering some of their limitations.

2.3.1 The interpretive approach

A manifesto of the interpretive approach to translation can be seen in the Canadian scholar Delisle's (1988) *Translation: An Interpretive Approach*. He regarded translation as an intellectual activity located in the process of thinking, language and reality: teaching students how to translate meant teaching the intellectual process by which a message is transposed into another language, ie. the meaning or sense of a message is transferred from one language to another. Establishing a link between theory and practice, Delisle proposed a model which is intended to provide teachers of translation with an original method for training students to translate pragmatic texts[2] from English to French. His basic premise was that 'translation is an art of re-expression based on writing techniques and a knowledge of two languages' (1988: 3). This model worked via two logical routes: an interpretive

[2] Delisle distinguishes 'pragmatic texts' from 'functional texts'. In his view, the term 'pragmatic texts' excludes literary texts, but it does not exclude everyday language (1988: 9)

approach to discourse analysis with emphasis on the manipulation of language; and pedagogical objectives and exercises that are directly related to this approach and its theoretical basis. In his model, two complementary aptitudes of comprehension (to extract the author's intended meaning from the original text [interpretive analysis]) and re-expression (to reconstruct the text in another language [writing techniques]) were required. To train his students to develop them, he provided a heuristic process of intelligent discourse analysis for translation, which involves three stages of comprehension, reformulation and verification. Comprehension requires decoding the linguistic signs of the source text with reference to the language system. Reformulation involves re-verbalizing the concepts of the source language by means of the signifiers of another language, realized through reasoning successive associations of thoughts and logic assumptions. Verification can be described as a process of comparison of the original and its translation.

Notably, Delisle emphasizes is that it is important to differentiate between professional translation and academic (or pedagogical) translation in order to set specific goals for an introductory course. His point in expounding academic and professional translation and the qualities of the translator is that pedagogical translation cannot be equated with the pedagogy of translation: he limits translation pedagogy to 'the manipulation of language' (1988: 81). This raises a fundamental question in translation pedagogy: how the teaching of translation should be structured so that the student emerges mindful of how to go about translating rather than with a mind full of facts. What sounds coherent in Delisle's theory of translation pragmatically is the assumption that the novice translator should focus on the manipulation of language by making use of pragmatic texts before dealing

with more complex processes of translation. This limits his model to training novice translators in the stage of understanding the manipulation of language. In relation to current practices in China, Delisle's approach has a significant element of text organization and discourse, traditionally absent in Chinese linguistics and language teaching, with the key notion of implementing different stages from novice towards more professional levels of increasing complexity. A limitation is that the interpretive approach has been mostly applied between European languages.

2.3.2 Translation as cultural communication

Hatim and Mason (1990, 1997) look at translation as cultural communication by incorporating research in sociolinguistics, discourse studies, pragmatics and semiotics. They view discourse in its wider context and define it as 'modes of speaking and writing which involve social groups in adopting a particular attitude towards areas of socio-cultural activity (e.g. racist discourse, bureaucratese, etc.)' (1997: 216). They limit their texts to three categories - argumentative, expositive and instructional text types (1990: 155-159) - in order to train translation students to pay attention to the realization in translation of ideational and interpersonal functions (rather than just textual functions). In their opinion, texts function as socio-cultural 'signs' within a system not merely of linguistic expression but also of socio-textual conventions. They particularly concentrate on identifying 'dynamic' and 'stable' elements in a text (1997: 27-35), because they use these two key notions to analyse the translation process and the role of the translator as communicator. Accordingly, from the point of view of pedagogy they relate the notion of text type to the actual process of translation and to the translator at work. For this consideration, they put forward a set of the relevant criteria for text

selection, evaluation and assessment. This is useful for training students how to relate an integrated account of discourse processes to the practical concerns of the translator; it promotes translation teaching from a linguistic to a communicative perspective. To attain this, Hatim and Mason propose that 'what is needed is systematic study of problems and solutions by close comparison of the source text and the target text procedures. Which techniques produce which effects? What are the regularities of the translation process in a particular genre, in particular cultures and in particular historical periods?' (1990: 3). From this viewpoint, translation is regarded not as a sterile linguistic exercise but as an act of communication. The translator is viewed as an intercultural mediator who incorporates notions of culture and ideology into their analysis of translation.

Looking at translators as communicators in a Chinese context of teaching translation provides translation students with a situation in which they can know that a translator who works in a particular socio-cultural situation is likely to have an ideological background, and acts in a social context and is part of that context. However, Hatim and Mason's (1990) three categories of text type are narrow. There is no consideration of any hybrid text type. Furthermore, the approach to the analysis of texts starts from source language and text, which leads to a linguistic-centred focus, both in its terminology and in the phenomena investigated ('lexical choice', 'cohesion', 'transitivity', 'style shifting', 'translator mediation', etc.). Besides, this textbook has numerous concepts which easily shift attention from understanding translation, at least for non-European language learners such as those in China.

2.3.3 Translation strategies

As reviewed in Chapter 1, most translation textbooks list different translation strategies, skills and methods which are in linguistic domains. This is because translation strategies and translation skills are necessary in foreign language teaching. Chesterman's (1997) translation strategies was one of main topics in translation teaching. A notable feature is that he presents his view of translation theory metaphorically in a Popperian framework by integrating the idea of 'memes from sociobiology' in cultural evolution studies (1997: 5) with Karl Popper's philosophical concept of the three Worlds[3]. He develops his 'Popperian framwork' from theory to practice by illustrating his five 'supermemes' of translation theory: the source-target metaphor, the equivalence idea, the myth of untranslatability, the free-vs.-literal argument and the idea that all writing is a kind of translating. This frame was displayed as follows:

P1 → TT → EE →P2 (Chesterman 1997: 14)

In this framework, he considered that all knowledge acquisition starts with a Problem (P1). In dealing with P1, people need a Tentative Theory (TT) or tentative hypothesis, which is a trial solution. The TT is subjected to a process of Error Elimination (EE). This is a methodological stage and it is exposed to tests and criticism of all kinds. The result of the EE process leads to a new Problem (P2). In his Popperian framework, Chesterman regards translation strategies as 'memes'

[3] The philosophical concept of the three Worlds has been one of Karl Popper's most influential contributions to the philosophy of science (Popper 1972: 106). According to Popper, World 1 consists of physical bodies, such as stones, stars, plants, animals, radiation and other forms of physical energy. World 2 is about the subjective world of mental or psychological states of processes, 'behavioural dispositions to act' (106). It is the world of our feelings of pain and of pleasure, of our thoughts, of our decisions, of our perceptions and our observations. World 3 is the world of the products of the human mind, that is, 'the world of *objective contents of thought*, especially of scientific and poetic thoughts and of works of art' (Popper 1972: 106; italics original). World 3 is the world of ideas, not as they exist in an individual's mind (World 2) but as they exist objectively (World 1). Chesterman employs Popper's concept of the three Worlds to theorize his thoughts to make translation theory applicable to teaching (see Chesterman 1997: 14-17).

which ‘are ways in which translators seek to conform to norms […] not to achieve equivalence but simply to arrive at the best version they can think of, what they regard as the optimal translation’ (1997: 88). This framework displayed by Chesterman describes the translation process of scientific methodology and in fact describes the acquisition of all rational knowledge. For this reason, Chesterman classifies translation strategies into three categories of syntactic strategies, semantic strategies and pragmatic strategies, which he regards as ‘production strategies’ (1997: 92).

According to Chesterman, syntactic strategies should be regarded as involving purely syntactic changes of one kind or another; semantic strategies manipulate meaning, and they mainly have to do with lexical semantics but also cover aspects of clause meaning such as emphasis; and the pragmatic strategies primarily have to do with the selection of information in the target text which is subjected to the translator’s knowledge of the potential readership of the translated texts. These three categories of translation strategies interact in the Popperian framework, but pragmatic strategies are considered at a higher level. Chesterman argues, ‘if syntactic strategies manipulate form, and semantic strategies manipulate meaning, pragmatic strategies can be said to manipulate the message itself’ (1997: 107). So he sets the pragmatic strategies in groups of cultural filtering, change in explicitness, information change, interpersonal change, illocutionary change, coherence change, partial translation, visibility change, transediting, and other pragmatic changes (1997: 92-112; cf. Chesterman and Wagner 2002: 60-63).

Linking Chesterman's (1997) Popperian framework and his translation strategies to a Chinese context, they provide a scientific method for looking at a translation process of using translation strategies. They were chosen as an exemplar by many Chinese linguistic teachers when they quoted Western translation strategies, because his strategies conformed to their previous linguistic preferences. Though the category of the pragmatic strategies relates to 'the selection of information in the target text', it is an intertextual process which depends on the translator's manipulation of language. Chesterman's Popperian framework and his translation strategies are systematic but hierarchical in terms of the starting point of translating a source text. Little attention is paid to the translator's subjectivity and social-cultural factors. Compared to his causal model (see section 2.1.1), this appears very limited and contradictory to what actually takes place currently in translation teaching and is thus, arguably, less useful for translation teaching in China than might be supposed.

2.3.4 Descriptive Translation Studies: norms

Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS) nowadays is frequently used synonymously with literary translation studies and cultural studies (Schäffner 2004: 37; Snell-Hornby 2006: 42). The Descriptive translation approach is also categorized into Systems Theories by Jeremy Munday (2001: 108-121) and it relates to literary translation. In particular since the late 1970s, scholars (e.g. Even-Zohar, 1978/2000; Toury, 1995; Hermans, 1985, 1999) have increasingly (and more forcefully) pointed out that authentic translations are not faithful and equivalent reproductions of the source texts (ST) as demanded by (normative) linguistics-based translation theories. These findings are related to the socio-historical constraints which

translators face. Scholars working within DTS describe translation as the result of a context-dependent activity, and the resulting target texts (TT) are seen as facets of target systems (Toury, 1995; Hermans, 1999).

Taking his inspiration from the work of Even-Zohar's polysystem (1990), Toury (1995: 13, 36-39 and 102) thinks that translation basically takes up a position in the social and literary systems of the target culture, and this position affects the choice of translation strategies that are taken into account. With this approach in mind, he establishes his view on the polysystem work of Even-Zohar who sees translated literature as part of the cultural, literary and historical system of the target language (TL), and advances his three-dimensional methodology for systematic descriptive translation studies (DTS), integrating a description of the product and the wider role of the socio-cultural system: 1) situate the text within the target culture system, looking at its significance or acceptability; 2) compare the source text (ST) and the target text (TT) for shifts, identifying relationships between 'coupled pairs' of ST and TT segments, and attempting generalizations about the underlying concept of translation; and 3) draw implications for decision-making in future translating. This methodology allows not only the possibility of other pairs of similar texts to build up a descriptive profile of translations according to genre, period, author, etc. but also the norms pertaining to each kind of translation to be identified, with the ultimate aim of stating laws of translation behaviour in general.

In order to distinguish trends in translation behaviour, to make generalizations regarding the decision-making processes of the translator and then to 'reconstruct' the norms that have been in operation in the translation and make hypotheses that

can be tested by future descriptive studies, Toury (1995: 56-59) looks into different kinds of norms operating at different stages of the translation process, such as initial norms (which refer to a decision made by translators to adhere primarily to source text or target culture), preliminary norms (which refer to overall strategy, using existing texts and previous translations) and operational norms (actual decisions during translation processes) in order to express 'the translation of general values or ideas shared by a community – as to what is right or wrong, adequate or inadequate – into performance instructions appropriate for and applicable to particular situations' (1995: 55). His argument is that 'norms always imply sanctions' and 'serve as criteria according to which actual instances of behaviour are evaluated'(ibid.). Thus, norms are not prescriptive but a category of descriptive analysis, for these norms 'determine the (type and extent of) equivalence manifested in actual translations' (1995: 61). Baker comments, 'The notion of norms provides a descriptive category which makes it possible to elaborate precisely such non-random, verifiable statements about types of translation behaviour' (Baker 2009: 190).

What Toury appears to argue through norm theory is that translators cannot avoid the constraints of different norms when they make decisions during the procedure of doing translation. The appropriateness of translational behaviour is determined by a given set of norms in a given community. Further other 'norms' were developed (cf. Hermans 1998, 1999; Chesterman, 1997, 2001) (see Fig.2.3). For example, Chesterman views 'norms' as product or expectancy norms and process or professional norms, which cover the area of Toury's initial and operational norms. He views that product or expectancy norms 'are established by the expectations of

readers of a translation (of a given type) concerning what a translation (of this type) should be like' (1997: 64). Factors governing these norms cover the predominant translation tradition in the target culture, the discourse conventions of the similar target language (TL) genre, and economic and ideological considerations. Professional norms 'regulate the translation process itself' (1997: 67). His ideas of norms are further developed in his consideration of translation ethics (see Section 2.1.3.1).

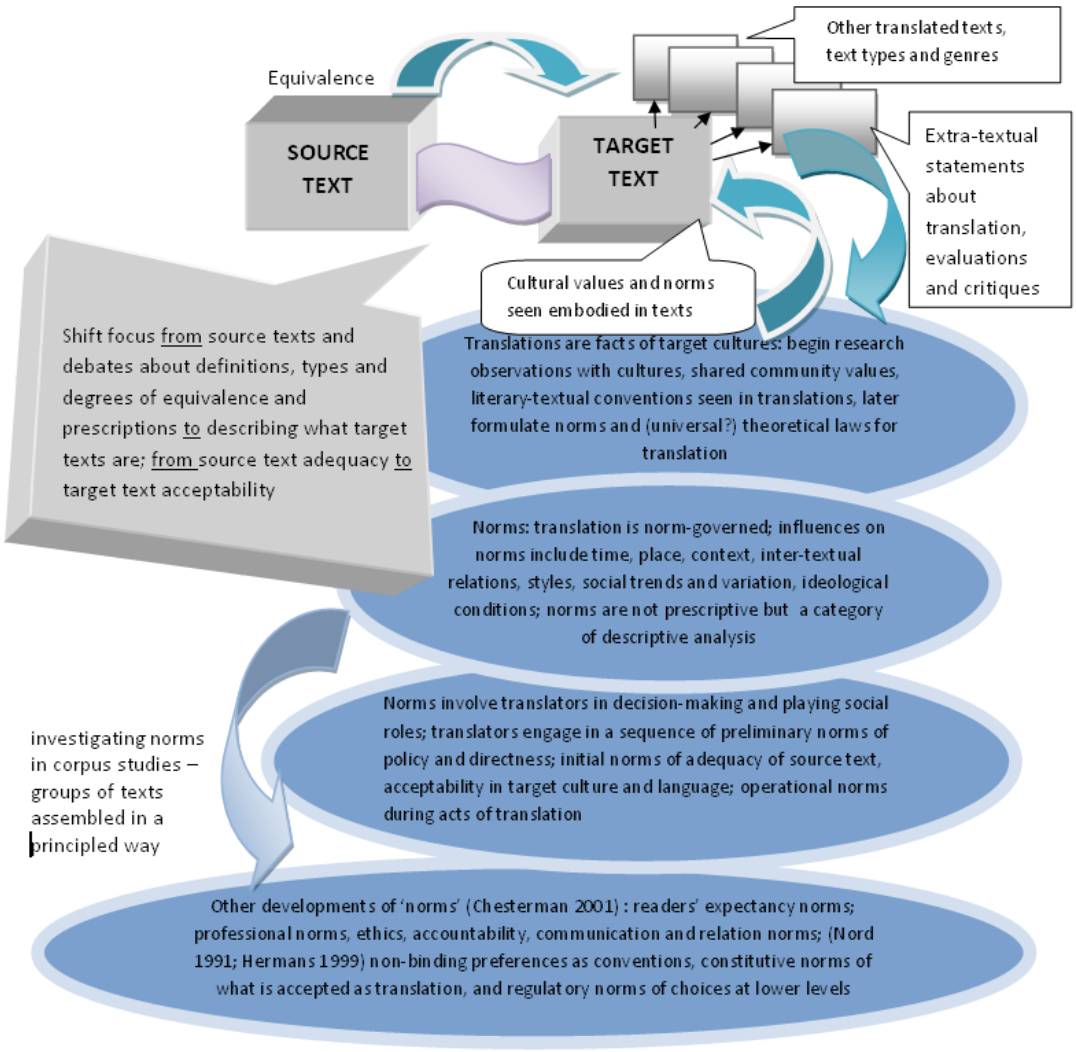
Thus, DTS scholars examine decision-making in translation, translation norms, and the effects of translated texts on the target national literature. They also consider how target texts have been brought into line with the system of norms that govern the literary system in a culture, and how they have succeeded (or not) in competing with original texts and genres for prestige and power in the target polysystem. It is argued that, from the target text (TT) perspective 'all translation implies a degree of manipulation of the ST for a certain purpose' (Hermans 1985: 11 – hence the name 'Manipulation School', see Snell-Hornby, 1988: 22-25). The term 'equivalence' is either rejected or redefined in the controversy with respect to this term in general and also within the framework of DTS. The remarkable point is that source texts have been somewhat 'dethroned' from translation ever since. Recent research on the sociology of translation (Wolf and Fukari, 2007) further develops norms and conventions to describe socio-cultural constraints of product, translator and process in more wide ranging sociological views.

The norm theory of Descriptive Translation Studies is barely reflected in China's current translation teaching: it seems largely absent from textbooks and theoretical

courses; there are few explanations of what and how the norm theory functions in translation, and how this theory can benefit translation students. Yet it seems evident that norm theory will be helpful to cultivate and shape the viewpoints of translation students on socio-cultural contexts of target texts if it is facilitated into translation theory and practice in teaching.

Fig. 2.3: A diagram showing some of Toury's key ideas (after Toury 1995, Hermans 1998, 1999; Chesterman 1997, 2001)

Polysystem approach ⇨ **Descriptive translation studies** investigating norms with implications for pedagogy and translator training



2.3.5 Functionalist approaches

Functionalist approaches to translation appeared mainly during the 1970s and 1980s when both practical translation activities and translator training increased particularly in Germany and Finland (e.g. Vermeer, 1989/2000, 1996; Reiss and Vermeer, 1984/1991; Nord, 1991a, 1997; Hönig and Kussmaul, 1982/1991; Kussmaul, 1995; Holz-Mänttäri, 1984, cited in Schäffner 2001:14]). Translation

theories started to move away from the static linguistic typologies of translation shifts to a functionalist and communicative approach for the analysis of translation. For example, Katharina Reiss (1989) stresses equivalence at text level, linking language functions to text types and translation strategy. Holz-Mänttäri (1984) proposes the theory of translational action which borrows concepts from communication theory and action theory with the aim of providing a model and guidelines applicable to a wide range of professional translation situations. Vermeer's *Skopos* (1989/2000) focuses on the purpose of the translation, which determines the translation methods and strategies that are to be employed in order to produce a functionally adequate target text result. With her critique of Reiss's text type approach and *Skopos* theory, Nord (1991) provides a functional model of translation-oriented text analysis which is applicable to all text types and translation situations. Since the model inherits the other functional concepts, it enables understanding of the function of source text (ST) features and the selection of translation strategies appropriate to the intended purpose of the translation. Thus, 'Functionalist approaches' is a cover term for a number of theoretical reflections in translation teaching and translator training.

Functionalist approaches emphasize the intention of a text, its essential information and business, rather than the static linguistic-based source language (SL) analysis. Functionalist approaches are not based on an opposition between linguistic and cultural aspects. On the contrary, they take into account the systematic relationship between linguistic structures at the textual micro-level and social, cultural, historical conditions of text production and reception (both in the ST and TT cultures). They also accommodate Toury's differentiation between the act of translation and the

translation event (e.g. Toury 1995: 249ff.), i.e. the distinction between the cognitive aspects of translation as a decision-making process and the social, historical, cultural, ideological, etc. contexts of situation in which the translation act is embedded. This is the point for functionalist approaches to be well suited to the systematic training of translators. Nevertheless, whereas for Toury the TT is the starting point for identifying regularities in translators' behaviour and linking them to acts and events and determining norms, the TT is usually (but not exclusively) the end product when functionalist approaches are used for training purposes. As Schäffner argues, for this applied area of Translation Studies, 'functionalist approaches to translation work can describe and explain translation processes and products very well' (2001: 13).

The perspective of functionalist scholars means that the linguistic structures of the ST are no longer seen as the only yardstick with which to judge the quality and appropriateness of the target text (TT). The choice of the linguistic structures of the TT is not determined by the linguistic structures of the ST but by the translation brief; i.e. consideration needs to be given to the intended purpose of the TT, its situation of use, its addressees with their knowledge and expectations, the relevance of genre conventions, etc. In other words, the linguistic structure of the ST is only one in the network of factors determining TT production. This is important for this research since functionalist approaches do not 'dethrone' the source text (ST), but they require the translator to carry out a thorough ST analysis of a text in its source culture to determine the strategies by which the translation brief can be fulfilled most appropriately. Such a perspective was seldom stressed in translation teaching, at least in the circle of my colleagues in China.

Applying the perspective of functionalist approaches to a Chinese context, it will be significant when Chinese teachers of translation come to know the nature of functionalist approaches and employ them in teaching. This can be helped by understanding the 'three aspects of functionalist approaches that are particularly useful in translator training: the importance of the translation brief, the role of source-text analysis, and the classification and hierarchization of translation problems' (Nord 1997: 59). Take the translation brief for example: it can help the translator to compare source text and target text profiles defined in the brief to see where the two texts may diverge; it should offer information for both texts, like the intended text functions, the addressees, the time and place of text reception, the medium and the motive (Nord 1997: 59-62). Hence functionalist approaches can lead to translation as a purposeful activity which is embedded in and determined by other activities. It will be useful for translation pedagogic purposes that the application of functionalist approaches can offer guidelines to translation teaching and point out the complexity of translation which needs to link decisions at the micro level to macro aspects such as the immediate context, the larger context, the function of the ST, and the *skopos* of the TT.

Section 2.3 has reviewed groups of translation theories often used in translation teaching. The insufficiency common among them is that any one of them cannot construct students' knowledge of translation and competence. Accordingly, translation pedagogy and its attention on the translation process seem incomplete. The question now raised is what a solid and constructed body of translation theories should look like.

2.4 Translation pedagogy

Along with the new research of translation theory in teaching, the other related concern for the current research is translation pedagogy (Section 2.2). 'Pedagogy' concerns the methods and practices of teaching, the management of content and learning activities in the classroom, or the science and art of instruction; the term 'translation pedagogy' implies that translation teaching should be systematic, deliberately organized for learners' development of knowledge, skills and translation competence. It should have a theoretical and research basis. This issue has been hugely overlooked in many past discussions. Work in the last decade shows that the discussion of translation teaching has paid more attention to scientific and methodological approaches of translation pedagogy, but far less to individual narratives of the experience of classroom activities.

While there is no lack of literature about translation theory, there remains little practical advice on theorising translation pedagogy. However, current research does show some consensus among scholars that translation teaching is different from foreign language teaching and that 'translation pedagogy can obviously not be equated with or subsumed under language pedagogy' (Malmkjær 2004: 4). The difference was shown in the research during 1980s-1990s. For example, Delisle (1988) distinguished the two concepts but he restricted translation pedagogy to the manipulation of language: he interpreted it as setting a series of teaching objectives (cf. Section 2.3.1). Within the Holmes-Toury 'map' of Translation Studies there is less discussion of translation pedagogy than of translation theory, except for the mention of translator training as a branch of applied translation studies. Holmes put

forward the need for a translation pedagogy which was necessarily normative and important in training translators (1988: 95-96), but a theory of translation pedagogy remained under development. Wilss also regarded translation pedagogy as 'a composite view of the range of translation teaching activities' (1996: 192). In his view translation pedagogy was the key to translation competence: this leaves open the question of how to develop this competence among students and trainees. His somewhat vague suggestion was that translation teachers should know it, as well as the psychology of translation learning. However, it would have been helpful if he had given a theoretically-oriented description of pedagogy for translation teachers. In some books on teaching translation and interpreting syllabi (see Dollerup and Lindegaard, 1992 and 1994; Dollerup and Appel, 1996), the concept of translation pedagogy seems focused mainly on correcting translation errors and presenting individual preferences about ways of teaching and designing. When Michael Cronin reflects on teaching translation and interpreting he comments on translation pedagogy:

> *[...] that it was not until the 1990s, at the end of the twentieth century, that serious monographs began to appear which looked at the teaching of translation not only as a practical but as a theoretical problem. In other words, translation pedagogy needed a theory not only because teaching itself is a worthy object of theoretical speculation but because good theory makes for more effective teaching. Translation theoreticians had in previous decades tended to neglect translation pedagogy for considerations of translation, text, history, abstracted from the teaching process. Presentations on pedagogy at translation conferences were devoted either to scornful repudiations of theory in the name of experience or to thought-deadening outlines of course syllabi which told one little if anything about how courses were delivered or what their deeper theoretical underpinnings were.* (Cronin 2005: 250).

From this criticism of the neglect of translation pedagogy in past decades, Cronin confirms the importance of the need for theorizing translation pedagogy. He thinks that the change in pedagogical emphasis would have profound implications for translation teaching. With an understanding, then, of professional translation work

and of research, translation pedagogy needs to be developed theoretically and methodologically. Recent developments try to make up this gap: this point has been demonstrated in recent collections edited by Malmkjær (2004) and Tennent (2005). Both highlight the importance of translation pedagogy and the need to integrate theory and practice in teaching. Their papers devoted to pedagogical strategies highlight the elements required in considerations of how to teach translation such as teaching policy, planning objectives, curriculum design, teacher specification, teaching method and measurements for assessment.

Recent monographs relating to translation teaching also contribute to looking at translation pedagogy from a more systematic point of view. For example, Kiraly (2000, 2003) focuses on the discussion of process-oriented pedagogy. He views translation as a 'systematic elaboration of the issues underlying descriptive translation pedagogy, a pedagogy based on the accurate theoretical description of translation practice' (1995: 3). He maintains that the lack of clear objectives, curricular materials, and teaching methods actually implies a pedagogical gap in translation skill instruction. This pedagogical gap, which Baer & Koby (2003) and Colina (2003) showed concern for, is an incomplete and unstructured understanding of what steps to take to train professional translators who can produce high-quality translations. This point is significant for translation instructors or teachers to evaluate their curricula designs and teaching assessment. Kiraly's proposal for the incorporation of an innovative social-constructivist approach shows the disparity between what is learned in the classroom and what is practised in the professional field. His adoption of student collaboration in the classroom helps to shift a teacher-centred approach to a learner-centred approach. Especially by using a project

workshop in this innovative social-constructivist approach, students can become more competent, reflective, self-confident and professional. Kiraly's initiatives indicate a welcome move toward broadening translation pedagogy.

Inspired by Cannon and Newble's *A Handbook for Teachers in Universities and Colleges: A Guide to Improving Teaching Methods* (2000), from educational perspectives Kelly (2005) introduces a systematic approach to translator training in which much attention has been given to pedagogy. She views translation teaching as a nexus connecting translator training, education and research. She stresses the importance of planning objectives/outcomes and needs analysis, which Li (2012) emphasises. She thinks that translation courses or programmes should consider regional, national and cultural differences as well as differences between professional sectors. Concerning the curricular content, she does not propose a single set of elements which are valid for all contexts, but rather presents different issues to be considered at the design stage. She depicts the teaching methods and assessment. Apart from passing the limit of language teaching, Kelly is concerned with practical teaching and training. Hence, according to my knowledge and experience in China, I think that applying her insight into translation teaching may be supportive and beneficial to translation programmes with both educational and professional purposes.

Based on his consistent research on translation teaching, Li's work on Chinese-English contributes to different aspects of translation teaching (e.g. 2001, 2002, 2005, 2007; also see Li and Hu, 2006, 2009). His recent work *Curriculum Design, Needs Assessment and Translation Pedagogy* (2012) emphasises the consideration

of translation programmes with social needs. He further advocates considering translation pedagogy with curriculum design in relation to needs assessment. Such insights into translation pedagogy are valuable to reconsider the translation teaching in a Chinese context.

More academic papers contributed to research on translation pedagogy by emphasizing curriculum design, cultivation of translation competence and course content. For example, Kelly's approach is applied by Rico (2010), who exemplifies the reform of the translation degree programme within the Spanish higher education system. Rico argues that a curriculum should meet the institutional requirements, as well as having a rationale for the distribution of curricular contents within the overall degree structure. Hurtado Albir (2007) develops curriculum design for training translators from the perspective of developing competence.

Tan (2008), a Chinese mainland translation scholar who did not mention Translation Studies as an independent discipline as he had previously advocated (e.g. Tan, 1987, 1997, 2003), questioned what the right theory was for translation teaching, and whether to discard 'the old way of teaching' (teaching translation oriented to language pedagogy). He agrees with Widdowson's distinction in language pedagogy between training and education (Widdowson 1984) and Bernadini's 'translator training' and 'translation education' for university translation programmes (Bernadini 2004). For this he appeals for a rethinking of pedagogy in translation, and for working out well designed programmes in translation education, instead of seeking fast but short-sighted translation training. For this reason, he proposes a model built upon the two concepts of the 'whole-

person translator education' and the 'translator-development pyramid'. While the 'whole-person' would be currently interpreted in the west as a welcome holistic and humane educational approach, including an integration of cognitive, affective, social and cultural features, I interpret Tan's model of the 'whole-person translator education' as one based on language learning through the five skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating. Some these skills such as linguistic, pragmatic and transfer competences clearly relate to a linguistics-based approach to translation. Thus, it is arguable whether this is linguistic theory or linguistic competence: in either case, he gives no theoretical basis to his argument – and, anyway, it is questionable to discuss translation pedagogy and competence without acknowledging the importance of translation theory.

These contributions show how translation pedagogy is evolving, but such new approaches reviewed provide a challenge to China's translation teaching, which remains mainly teacher-centred and at the level of 'the question of how to teach translation' systemically and inherently, that is the translation pedagogy which is essentially discussed in Baer and Koby (2003: vii).

The section has outlined the core of translation pedagogy. The insights and new ideas of some representative contributions to this concern from different angles provide detailed thoughts which can help consider current translation teaching in China. They will be part of the literature platform which will be used to raise research questions for examining translation programmes in the UK and China as cases in this study.

2.5 Translation programmes

Translation programmes have proliferated with the development of Translation Studies (see Section 2.2). Undergraduate and Master's courses offer a variety of translation options. The demand for high-quality translation and qualified translators and interpreters increases with the processes of globalization, localization and internationalization of political, economic, educational, and cultural communicative practices, in particular for translations from English (see statistics in Venuti, 1995: 12). Translation theory, translator training and the industrialization of translation have been booming in Indo-European languages and Chinese as well. This section surveys postgraduate translation programmes in the UK and China: these are the context for the case studies in this research, through which it can be judged that the programmes in the case studies, at least in broad outline, look remarkably similar to many other programmes within their respective educational systems.

In the 1970s there were only 49 translation training centres in the world. In the 1980s, the figure grew to 108. This figure was boosted to over 250 programmes of translation and interpreting in the 1990s (see Caminade and Pym, 1998: 280-285). In Spain alone there are over 25 MA programmes (Gentzler, 2008: 112-113). According to a database held at Aston University and the list of universities published in the journal *Translation Today* (January, 2005), there were then 24 institutions in the UK that offer translation and/or interpreting courses, almost all at postgraduate level. Currently in the UK alone, 613 translation courses are listed, 54 of which are postgraduate (source: Learndirect, 2013). Such remarkable growth is evident in many countries. For this study, I searched the information of translation

programmes in the UK and China from different resources such as documentation in the library and the websites of Institute of Linguistics, lexicool.com, American Translators Association (ATA) and Translation Association of China (TAC). The resources from the websites provide links for specific course information relevant to translation programmes. Information about these programmes in the UK and China will be presented below to give a broad context for the case studies researched later

2.5.1 Translation programmes in the UK

According to the ATA website, there are 28 UK universities on their approved list on the ATA website by the time of my survey. Most of them also are cited in the website of lexicool.com. Based on these, I searched for basic information about the courses in 30 UK universities which run 82 different MA or postgraduate translation courses. They are tabulated in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: UK MA or postgraduate translation programmes

No	**Name of university**	**Subject**	**Major feature**
1	Aston University	MA in Translation Studies in a European Context (member of the EMT Network)	Develops translation expertise within an understanding of European integration
		MA in Translation studies	Study the social role and function of translation for intercultural communication, representation and perception
		MA in TESOL & Translation Studies	TESOL, translation theory and practice
2	University of Bath	MA in Interpreting & Translating	Prepare linguists for careers as professional interpreters and translators
		MA in Translation & Professional Language Skills	Training linguists for specialized language settings, translation
3	University of Birmingham	MA in Translation Studies	Training professional translators
		MA Translation Studies Open Distance Learning	Online study

4	University of Bristol	MA/Diploma in Translation (e-learning programme)	Facilitate translation practice in distance learning technology
5	Durham University	MA in Translation Studies (member of the EMT Network)	Prepare candidates to work as translators
6	University of East Anglia	MA in Applied Translation Studies	Focus on non-literary translation; train in-house professional translator or work as freelance translators
		PhD in Translation	Doctoral study
		MA in Literary Translation	provide an academic qualification for professional translators and a good basis for further research.
7	Heriot Watt University	Translating And Conference Interpreting MSc/Dip/Cert	
		Arabic-English Translating & Conference Interpreting MSc/Dip/Cert.	
		Chinese-English Translating & Conference Interpreting MSc/Dip/Cert	
		Translation & Computer-Assisted Translation Tools MSc/Dip/Cert	Translation and MT
		Arabic-English Translation & Computer-Assisted Translation Tools MSc/Dip/Cert	Translation, computer
		Chinese-English Translation & Computer-Assisted Translation Tools MSc/Dip/Cert	
8	University of Edinburgh*	MSc/Dip in Literary Translation as Creative Practice	Literary translation and writing
9	University of Essex	MA in Translation & Comparative Literature	Translation and literature
		MA Translation, Interpreting & Subtitling	Written translation, oral interpreting and film, video subtitle
		MA Chinese-English Translation & Interpreting	
		MA Translation	
10	University of Hull	MA in Translation Studies	
		MA in TESOL with Translation Studies (general translation theory & practice, here referring to cultural studies)	Language teaching, translation theory and practice
		MA in Translation Studies with TESOL	
11	University of Leeds	MA in Applied Translation Studies	Translation and project management skills; a route to doctoral research into translation studies, esp. machine translation
		MA in Conference Interpreting &	Training translators and interpreters for

		Translation Studies	different language pairs
		MA in Translation Studies & Interpreting	
		MA in Audiovisual Translation Studies	audiovisual media, subtitling for the deaf, theatre captioning
		MA in Interpreting: British Sign Language-English	
		PG Diploma Conference Interpreting	Training interpreter
		PG Diploma Applied Translation Studies	translation
12	Leeds Metropolitan University	Vocational Diploma in Interpreting	
13	University of Leicester	MA in Translation Studies	prepare students for the translation professions and for advanced professional or academic research
14	Chartered Institute of Linguists	Diploma in Public Service Interpreting (DPSI)	Language skills required for interpreters in the UK Public Service context.
15	City University (London)	Audiovisual Translation MA/Diploma	Media like telephone or interview translation
		Legal Translation Diploma/MA	Document translation in legal contexts
		Institute of Linguists Educational Trust Diploma in Translation	
		Postgraduate Certificate in Translation Skills (PGCTS)	
16	Imperial College London*	MSc in Scientific, Technical and Medical Translation with Translation Technology (member of the EMT Network)	Grant MSc degree Translation and technology
		PhD in Translation Studies	Doctoral study
17	London Metropolitan University	MA Applied Translation Studies(member of the EMT Network)	
		Postgraduate Certificate, Postgraduate Diploma, MA Interpreting	
18	Middlesex University (London)	MA Theory and Practice of Translation	
19	Roehampton University	MA/PGDip Audiovisual Translation (member of the EMT Network)	Media and translation
20	University College London	MA Translation Theory & Practice	
		PhD/MPhil in Translation Studies	Doctoral study
		MA in Conference Interpreting	
21	University of	MA in Translating & Interpreting	Prepare for entering interpreting and translating, especially in marketable fields

	Newcastle		such as technology, commerce, international relations and journalism.
		MA in Professional Translating for European Languages	Translation relates to European contexts
22	University of Portsmouth	MA/PgD Translation Studies (member of the EMT Network)	
		MA Translation Studies (Distance Learning) (member of the EMT Network)	Online study
		MA Translation & Technical Communication	Translation, technology and communication
23	University of Salford	MA/PgDip in Translating (member of the EMT Network)	Translator training
		MA/PgDip in Interpreting & Translating	Training interpreters
		MA/PgDip in Arabic/English Translation with Interpreting	Pair language for Arabic-English
		MA/PgDip in Chinese/English Translation with Interpreting	Pair language for Chinese-English
		MA/PgDip Translating for International Business	Business
24	University of Sheffield	MA in Translation Studies	Theory and practice
		MA in Screen Translation	Media
25	University of Surrey	MA in Translation (member of the EMT Network)	
		MA in Audiovisual Translation	Translation and media
		MA in Business Translation with Interpreting	Business
		PG Cert/PG Dip/MA in Public Service Interpreting	DPSI training
		PG Diploma / MA in Translation Studies	Translation and theory
		PG Dip/MA in Translation Studies with Intercultural Communication	Translation and communication
		MA in Monolingual Subtitling & Audio-description	Subtitling and Audio trans. And inter. training
		MA Business Interpreting in Chinese and English	Specialized in Chinese contexts
26	Swansea University	MA in Translation with Language Technology (member of the EMT Network)	Translation and language engineering
		Two-year European Master's in Translation with Language Technology (member of the EMT	For European orientation

		Network)	
		MA in Literary Translation	Translation and literature
		Postgraduate Certificate in Translation Technology	MT and TM
		PhD in Translation	Doctoral study
27	University of Warwick	MA in Translation & Transcultural Studies	Translation and culture
		MA/Diploma in Translation, Writing & Cultural Difference	Translation, writing and culture
28	University of Westminster	MA in Bilingual Translation (member of the EMT Network)	Train translators and interpreters
		MA in Technical and Specialised Translation (member of the EMT Network)	Technology and translation
		MA in Interpreting	Training interpreters
		MA in Translation & Interpreting	
		MA in Translation & Linguistics (member of the EMT Network)	Translation and linguistics
		MA in International Liaison & Communication	Translation and communication
29	University of Manchester	MA in Conference Interpreting MA in Intercultural Communication MA in Translation & Interpreting Studies MPhil in Translation & Intercultural Studies PhD in Interpreting Studies PhD in Translation & Intercultural Studies	Provide for translator education and training and research
30	Universities of Manchester, Edinburgh, University College London	The Translation Research Summer School	Short translation sessions for research purpose and meeting scholars from different places

Evidently in Table 2.1 MA postgraduate translation programmes in the UK universities offer a variety of size, scope and emphasis. Many programmes present different features in order to be distinct though I could not provide details for each. Among them, ten universities run MA programmes in *Translation Studies*. Eight universities mix *Translation Studies* with other areas like *TESOL*, *Intercultural Communication* and *Audiovisual Translation*. Seventeen universities focus on practical and professional translator training. Three universities manage an MA in

Applied Translation Studies. Fifteen universities manage *Translation and Interpreting Studies* with interdisciplinary specialist subjects such as *comparative literature*, *linguistics*, *writing*, *law*, *business*, and *scientific*, *technical* and *medical* domains. Six universities develop their programmes in *Audiovisual Translation and Interpreting*. Some universities open translation and interpreting specialized in the use of computer and other kinds of technical software. Examples can be seen in the MSc in *Translation And Computer-Assisted Translation Tools* at Heriot Watt University, the MA in *Translation and Technical Communication* at University of Portsmouth and MA in *Translation with Language Technology* at Swansea University. Five institutions offer translation research programmes such as doctoral studies in *Translation Studies*: Imperial College London and University of Manchester, MPhil /PhD in *Translation Studies* at University College London and PhD studies in *Translation* at Swansea University and at University of East Anglia. The University of Manchester also offers MPhil/PhD in *Translation and Intercultural Studies* and a PhD in *Interpreting Studies*. While many programmes focus on a range of specific languages, or engage in *Translation Studies* predominantly illustrated through specific case languages, some programme titles show particular language specification in relation to English: thus four programmes deal with Chinese-English, three with Arabic-English, one with British sign language, two with European languages with a further 8 linked to the EMT network which implies they tackle a range of European languages.

British higher education allows institutions relative independence in what programmes are offered and, according to the university strategy, perceived market and employment needs nationally and internationally, each may decide the focus of

a particular programme. Programme planning or designs in the UK institutions are audited by the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA), which I will discuss further in the complementary data in Chapter 7.

Viewing those programmes tabulated above, I find that most are located in departments or schools of modern languages and linguistics, or in language centres. However, most have their own academic and administrative team: they are relatively independent of foreign language teaching and cultural studies. Usually the postgraduate translation programme is a taught course of one-year's full-time or two-year's part-time study. The teaching style comprises a mixture of lectures, seminars, workshops and tutorials. The programme of each university is based on its own chosen features and strengths. Curriculum design is varied and depends on individual objectives and assessments, as approved by relevant university committees. The assessment system varies according to the institution, but tends to reflect its quality control of teaching and learning. The applicants should have a good degree and excellent command of one or two foreign languages. International students should have a certificate of English language such as IELTS 6.5 minimum or TOEFL 600 (Paper Based) or TOEFL 250 (Computer Based Test). More details of teaching method and assessment courses will be explored in chapter 6.

2.5.2 Translation programmes in China

The proliferation of translation programmes in China also follows the global trend of the development of translation studies since the end of the 1980s. Based on the 1989 official statistics of *Important Events of Foreign Language Teaching in China 1949-1989*, there were then nearly 400 universities and colleges with foreign

language departments, in addition to 10 foreign language institutes located in Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Tianjin, Xi'an, Chongqing, Dalian and other cities. Most of them offered courses in translation and interpreting to undergraduates. By 1990, more than 50 foreign language universities or departments offered MA degrees in English language and literature, according to the statistics of the State Commission of Education (cf. Mu Lei 1999b: 24-26). Of those universities and colleges only 8 could actually give a named degree specifically in *Translation Theory and Practice*; the others offered translation alongside the subjects of *English Language and Literature*. Guangdong University of Foreign Studies was the only one to have a translation department with undergraduates. Only Beijing Foreign Studies University offered interpreting as a degree discipline.

By the end of the 1990s, impacted by globalization and the introduction of Translation Studies, most Chinese universities and colleges had integrated or merged their own English departments into translation and interpreting departments or schools, which were mostly subordinate to a foreign language department or school. However, with the increasing need for practical translators and interpreters and pedagogical demands, universities upgraded the field of interpreting and translation by establishing institutes. For instance, Beijing Foreign Studies University established an institute of interpretation and translation in 1994. Its predecessor had been a translator and interpreter training unit commissioned by the government and the UN in 1980, which trained the elite for translation and interpretation. The first Graduate Institute of Interpretation and Translation founded in 2003 at Shanghai International Studies University was widely seen as the beginning of professional translation teaching, and this example was followed by

other premier universities, e.g. Fudan University. Guangdong University of Foreign Studies upgraded its translation department into the School of Interpreting and Translation Studies in 2005.

These Chinese schools of translation and interpreting usually have relatively specialist translation courses designed for training translators and interpreters in their translation programme. The departments of English, Linguistics/Applied Linguistics and Foreign Language and Literature as well as Comparative Cultural Studies set up schemes of translation oriented to appeal to students' taste and the market need. More widely, now around 500 universities and colleges have a translation focus, since translation as a fifth language skill, is taught within College English courses which are arranged for one or two years' study in university and involve all university students (except English majors who have their own more advanced translation courses). Thus several million undergraduate students engage in at least a certain level of Chinese-English translation development annually, whatever their degree specialization will be. More specifically, at postgraduate level in order to meet international globalization, the Academic Degree Committee of the Ministry of Education authorised 15 universities to open up an independent translation programme of Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI) in 2007. In addition, various certificate tests of translation and interpreting aptitude have been established, such as the Shanghai Foreign Language Interpreting Certificate Examination in 1999, National Accreditation Examinations for Translators and Interpreters (NAETI) in 2001 and China Aptitude Test for Translators and Interpreters (CATTI) in 2003. Though these tests are in the name of the (local) government, they are organised and examined by universities. These developments

highlight the quantity, in breadth and depth, of the full blossoming of translation programmes in China.

Based on the TAC statistics by December 2011, 159 universities in mainland China are allowed to open a programme of Master of *Translation and Interpretation* (MTI). Other statistics on this TAC website also show that there are 27 centres for Translation Studies or translation education, 8 schools/institutes of Translation and Interpreting and 42 universities have launched undergraduate programmes in translation. The information of the translation programmes in China's universities on the ATA website showed, at the time this research, that only 17 universities in mainland China are approved by ATA Education and Pedagogy Committee, excluding Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan (see Table 2.2). Obviously this information is not complete in the Chinese context: many other top universities which run translation programmes do not register on the ATA website, for example, Nanjing University of Science and Technology (南京理工大学), Sun Yat-sen University (中山大学), Central South University (中南大学), Tongji university (同济大学) and Hunan Normal University (湖南师范大学). However, the 17 China's universities listed in Table 2.2 can be considered as a sample. The table - which does not pretend to be a comprehensive survey of all current programmes - is intended to give a clear idea of the representativeness of the two Chinese university translation programmes under study. The names of these programmes reflect their respective features.

Table 2.2: MA translation programmes in China

No	Name of university (mainland China)	Subject	Feature
1	Beijing Agricultural Administrative College 北京农业管理学院		Translation
2	Beijing Foreign Studies University, Beijing* 北京外国语大学	翻译硕士专业学位 Master of Translation & Interpretation (MTI)	Training interpreters
3	Beijing Institute of Light Industry 北京轻工学院		Translation
4	Beijing No. 2 Foreign Language Institute (also known as Second Foreign Translation Institute), Beijing* 北京第二外国语学院	翻译硕士专业学位 Master of Translation & Interpretation (MTI)	Linguistic translation
5	China Foreign Affairs University, Department of English & International Studies (formerly Foreign Affairs College), Beijing 中国外交大学		International communication and translation
6	East China University of Technology 华东科技大学		Translation and science & technology
7	Guangzhou Institute of Foreign Languages, Guangzhou* 广东外语外贸大学	翻译硕士专业学位 Master of Translation & Interpretation (MTI)	Professional translator and interpreter training
8	Nankai University* 南开大学	翻译硕士专业学位 Master of Translation & Interpretation (MTI)	Translation and literature
9	Ocean University of Qingdao 青岛海洋大学		
10	Shandong Teachers' University, Beijing* 山东师范大学	翻译硕士专业学位 Master of Translation & Interpretation (MTI)	Translation
11	Shanghai International Studies University* 上海外国语大学	翻译硕士专业学位 Master of Translation & Interpretation (MTI)	Translator and interpreter training, translation and cultural studies
12	Shenzhen University 深圳大学		Translation
13	Sichuan International Studies University, Chongqing* 四川外国语学院	翻译硕士专业学位 Master of Translation & Interpretation (MTI)	Translation and cultural studies
14	Tianjin Foreign Languages Institute, Tianjin* 天津外国语学院	翻译硕士专业学位 Master of Translation & Interpretation (MTI)	Translation studies
15	Tianjin Normal University* 天津师范大学	翻译硕士专业学位 Master of Translation & Interpretation (MTI)	Translation
16	Tsinghua University, Beijing 清华大学		Translation and publication
17	Xiamen University, Foreign Languages Department, Xiamen* 厦门大学	翻译硕士专业学位 Master of Translation & Interpretation (MTI)	Interpreter training, language and culture studies
No	**Name of university (Hong Kong)**	**Subject**	**Feature**
1	Chinese University of Hong Kong	Master of Arts in Translation	Translation

		Master of Arts in Computer-Aided Translation	Machine translation
2	City University of Hong Kong	Master of Arts in Language Studies with specialization inTranslation & Interpretation	Translator and interpreter trainiing
		MPhil/PhD in Translation & Interpretation	Research degree in trans. And inter.
3	Hong Kong Baptist University	M.A. in Language Studies	Translation and langauge
		M.A. in Translation & Bilingual Communication	Translation and communication
		PhD/MPhil in Translation	Research degree in translation
4	Lingnan College- Hong Kong	MPhil in Translation	
		PhD in Translation	
No	**Name of university (Macau)**	**Subject**	**Feature**
1	Macao Polytechnic Institute	Higher Diploma in Chinese-Portuguese Translation & Interpretation	Translation
2	Macao Polytechnic Institute	Higher Diploma in Chinese-English Translation & Interpretation	
3	University of Macau	MA in Translation Studies	Translation
No	**Name of university (Taiwan)**	**Subject**	**Feature**
	Fu Jen Catholic University	MA in Translation	Translation
		MA in Conference Interpretation with translation	Conference interpreter training
	National Taiwan Normal University	MA in Translation & Interpretation	Training translators and interpreters
		Ph.D. in Translation & Interpretation	Research degree in Translation & Interpreting.

Note: * stands for those universities which are authorized to open Master of Translation and Interpretation (MTI).

Seen from Table 2.2, most of translation programmes in Chinese contexts, in particular in mainland China, are general or not specified. The reasons for that might vary in different universities. Speculatively, one of the reasons might be a lack of academic and professional translation teachers.

2.6 Translation process

Translation teaching in the university classroom should not only apply translation theories (see Section 2.3) but also focus on task knowledge by practicing text production and analysing and discussing the quality of products (see Section 2.2.4).

Both teaching and learning institutionally involve different processes. Recent publications in the field of translation teaching show that translation process studies have developed a great deal. The research paradigm of the translation process has been transformed from the procedure that leads from ST analysis to TT production to 'the processes of intercultural text transfer' (Nord 2006: 5, Footnote 2) and includes the cognitive processing of a translator's mind as well. As for the translation process, numerous findings of investigations into the translation process are particularly found in Think-aloud Protocols (TAP) experiments (e.g. Königs, 1986; Lörscher, 1986, 1991; Hatim and Mason, 1990; Neubert, 1991; Kiraly 1995; Stamenov, Gerganov and Popivanov, 2010; Zhou and Lin, 2012). In these TAP experiments subjects are asked to verbalise their thoughts and actions while translating the task at hand. Their verbalisations are audio and/or video recorded and then transcribed. Transcriptions are treated as data which may provide information about mental processes; thus TAP studies focus psycho-linguistically and cognitively on verbal report experiments in translation processes. However, in TAP studies participants often need training to make their thoughts explicit and to verbalize them because few translators would talk aloud in detail about what they are thinking during normal translating processes. For example, Göpferich and Jääskeläinen (2009) find that the subjects actually could not perform well in translation processes under TAPs experiments. So there remains a question about the authenticity of TAP tasks and therefore of research validity (see further information in Section 3.3.1).

Now access to computers and other technical equipment makes it possible to make precise and detailed observations of translators' or writers' behaviour and activities;

these devices may provide information about specific parts of the writing process without the need for verbalization. Thus, empirical studies of the translation process have also become methodologically sophisticated. These methods include video recording (e.g. Dam-Jensen and Heine, 2009; Göpferich and Jääskeläinen, 2009; Christensen, 2011), eye tracking (e.g. O'Brien, 2006, 2008, 2009; Göpferich, Jakobsen and Mees, 2008), keystroke logging (e.g. Jakobsen, 2006; Miller and Sullivan, 2006) and screen capture (e.g. Degenhardt, 2006; Geisler and Slattery, 2007). There is no doubt that these methods have expanded translation process research in spite of some constraints such as research time, funding and use of human resources (e.g. O'Brien, 2006; Geisler and Slattery, 2007).

Considering process research more broadly, together with research about translation as product and research concerning the translator, little attention is paid to studying the whole process of product-process-translator activities in learning environments in which translation is taught at MA level (or similar degree courses) to groups of students studying linguistics, language and communication or translation. At these levels, evaluation of how students use translation strategies and theories in a task, how they perform in producing the product, and how they incorporate relevant socio-cultural elements or awareness of the translator is required in teaching and learning to improve students' translation knowledge and competence. Hence, there should be a holistic translation process to reflect what students do in translation before the evaluation. Relevant reflection on the individual's translation task and translation performance should be an integral part of the course process. Such thoughts can be interpreted from Williams' *Theories of Translation* (2013). Adopting the information and structure she provides, I have derived a chart showing

a holistic translation process of product-process-translator activities in which different theories are involved (see Fig. 2.4).

Specifically, in my illustration derived from Williams, three columns respectively cluster the theories relating to translation as product, as process and to the translator. Graphically, it readily emerges that these theories are not independent of each other either within each column and, especially, across the columns; rather they might be seen to interact and interweave during studying stages as students progressively encounter them. This may indicate that, overall, translation actually involves the three different processes as a whole – although researchers naturally have individual preferences or styles of investigation and usually work within one or more research traditions or emerging trends, and many will affirm how they use theory according to what is relevant to a particular research question. At the level of teaching translation theories, the Williams'-derived (2013) chart suggests the notion of a repertoire of theories. This chart design implies that there is no particular 'search for the right theory' (see Section 2.3.4), but rather there are different theories for different purposes or alignments to research problems. Pedagogically, I think that this chart can provide postgraduate students with a picture of translation theories and encourage them to become familiar with the full range of available theories and modes of research with detailed knowledge of some of them. In a sense, this chart covers and broadens the range of the theories I mentioned in above sections. It may bring a balance of teaching and learning to expand students' repertoires of translation theories.

With the above considerations, adopting a case study to analyse text production may provide a practical opportunity to examine how the participants handle some issues in the translation process; it may be an acceptable alternative to explore and analyse pedagogic issues which may occur in teaching, especially if methods are triangulated so that multiple data sources complement each other (see Chapter 3).

2.7 Aim, purpose and nature of the research

I have presented a critical review of the literature relevant to translation teaching in a Chinese context drawing on current theoretical research, approaches of translation in teaching, the contexts of current postgraduate translation programmes of the UK and China, and some relevant empirical studies of translation process. One of the most important conclusions drawn by this literature review is that new insights into translation teaching demand a solid body of translation theory and pedagogy which need to be incorporated in teaching. Current trends from a sociological perspective seem to move the debate from considering approaches of translation to the consideration of dynamism, subjectivity and ethics in translation teaching. Regarding my concern for translation teaching in China here, I want to know whether China's translation programmes are run differently from those in the UK and to ascertain the nature and extent of any differences. Hence, this research will not focus on the debates, doubts and controversies of translation theory; rather it will aim to explore students' performance on a translation task and to ascertain the nature if any qualitative differences between and across different cases. The exploration within three selected cases of translation courses will:

a) examine how students apply translation theories in their task;

b) evaluate curriculum design;

c) explore pedagogic issues.

Therefore, within this exploration two research questions will be addressed as follows:

1) What is the nature of any qualitative differences within and across of the three groups of cases?

2) What are the likely explanations for such qualitative differences?

This study is designed to start with a translation task and examine students' performance in doing a translation task in order to explore and analyse the outcome of applying translation theories, course curriculum and pedagogy. The overall purpose is to produce transferrable and applicable recommendations for translation teaching in China.

Since this research is exploratory and therefore examines the case studies in some detail, clearly any general statements about how the results relate to other universities can only be made with great caution since there are translation programmes in most of China's universities including around 159 Masters of Translation and Interpreting (MTI). This study was not intended to be a general study of these. However, I have impressions of other programmes from meeting teachers at conferences and academic events. Hence, very tentative general statements might include that translation teaching needs a solid body of translation

teaching and pedagogy. The methodology for this study is detailed in the following chapter.

Fig. 2.4: A chart derived for this thesis from categories and concepts in Williams (2013): An overview of product-process-translator theories of translation (for references see Williams 2003)

Chapter 3 Methodology

Research questions

⇩

Research rationale and choice

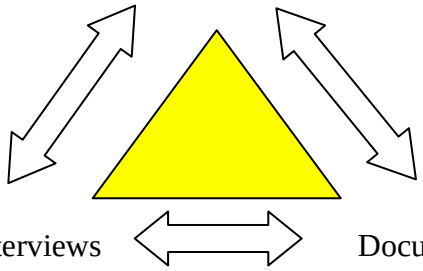
⇩

Constructivist paradigm → qualitative research → case study

⇩

Research methods: triangulation

Translation task



Interviews Document analysis

⇩

Site visits and data collection (→Ethical issues)

⇩

Presentation of data types (→Evaluation of quality)

⇩

Data processing and analysis

(including translation and transcription, extraction of themes, coding and categorization)

⇩

Analytic technique: Qualitative content analysis

⇩

Examples of handling data types

Fig. 3.1: Diagram showing organization of Chapter 3

Fig 3.1 shows how this chapter demonstrates the methodological approach of this study. First, it presents and explains the research questions which drive the present project. Second, it shows the rationale of my research, that is, the constructivist paradigm in which the current project is positioned and the qualitative multiple case study it adopts. Then it mainly displays the triangulating methods for data collection, specifies the practical steps I took to access the site visits, and details the different types of data generated during the course of data collection. Fourth, Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA) as the main analytic means is adopted. Some examples are provided here to show how the data were handled and how the analytic categories, themes and codes were developed. The data analysed through these categories and themes in turn become the main findings of this study. These results are discussed in detail in Chapters 4, 5 and 6, which are strengthened by the analysis of supplementary data in Chapter 7.

3.1 Research questions

This research project is an exploratory inquiry within three postgraduate translation programmes. It aims to explore the answers to the two research questions, for which chapter 2 has presented the rationale. The first one is to find out the nature of any differences within and across the three programmes; the second is to explore and evaluate differences. The two research questions not only drive this research but also lead to an exploration of a number of elements of a translation programme. These elements of translation programmes are used as guides in designing the methods for data collection during the inquiry process and in forming interview questions, and in providing the overall orientation for data extraction and coding.

For example, categories of translation unit approaches were extracted from the translation task, and key themes of perceptions on translation from the participants emerged inductively from the data analysis (see Sections 3.9 and 3.11). Since the inquiry focuses on the scope of translation teaching, exploring these two questions may lead to an in-depth understanding of the complex phenomenon and relationship of knowledge constructed in social contexts of translation programmes.

3.2 Research rationale and choice of approach

My research aims to explore and develop an understanding of translation teaching and the knowledge students receive in their learning. This calls for me, as a teacher of translation, to ensure that this inquiry is socially situated within the three translation programmes to be explored, one in the UK and the other two in China. Then I want to explore how translation students from the three translation programmes use their knowledge in dealing with a translation task. Further, by looking at relevant documents such as course syllabi and assessment methods, I want to ascertain how their knowledge is constructed both practically and professionally within their translation pedagogy. Finally, I want to explore any differences which may affect the students both in the construction of knowledge and translation competence. In particular, I am interested in looking at the theoretical elements the students encounter in their courses, because they are claimed to be core and compulsory courses. This feature of my inquiry is complex; for example, not only are the three translation programmes managed under different higher education systems, but teaching plans also may vary from one programme to another in numerous ways. Accordingly, the students may vary in knowledge and competence due to what they learn, in addition to individual differences such as

their language proficiency and cultural background. To explore within this complexity, it seems essential to follow a research paradigm which embraces multiple perspectives. Moreover, a detailed description and interpretation of the social situation (i.e. the circumstances and course curricula the students encounter in the translation programmes) are of utmost importance in capturing the complexity. The research therefore is developed within the constructivist paradigm and I have chosen to adopt a qualitative multiple case study, as detailed below.

3.2.1 Constructivist paradigm

The use of research paradigms depends on different researchers and their research purposes. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2005), a research paradigm is viewed as a researcher's basic belief system or world view comprising ontology, epistemology and methodology. Ontology concerns the nature of reality, and what is considered accessible to knowledge, while epistemology deals with how we know the nature of such knowledge, and methodology focuses on the ways to understand the world and on justified approaches to investigating it. In terms of constructivist paradigms, social constructivists take the view that reality is socially constructed and pluralistic, and that knowledge as a human product can be socially and culturally constructed (Richards, 2003). Constructivists hold a transactional or situated cognitive epistemology, claiming that our knowledge, meaning and understanding of this world are constructed by the means of transactions such as through events, documents and interaction which are embedded in the relationships between people and their environments (Guba and Lincoln, 2008). This inevitably historically and socio-culturally constructed knowledge means that researchers also (re)construct their interpretations against a backdrop of constructed shared

understanding and interactive practices in research and in the field (Schwandt, 2003), which therefore includes presuppositions and practices about one's own knowledge and interpreting participants' interpretations of what is investigated, giving a role for researcher reflection and reflexivity (Alvesson, M. & Sköldberg, 2000). Researchers within this paradigm often focus on describing and interpreting the richness of a world that is socially situated from participants' perspectives. Since context is crucial, researchers try to provide an in-depth understanding of the construction of reality and its pluralities in context. Methods such as using interviews, focus groups and case studies are often used to produce rich data and allow good understanding of the research environment and the participants' experience and of their interpretations of their situation.

It is noteworthy that constructivism as a general approach to learning in education leads naturally to more interactive and student-centred classroom pedagogies, which the three universities in which the case study translation programmes are situated emphasize and increasingly expect to be demonstrated in such programmes: thus a constructivist research approach to explore features of learning translation is congruent with the expected or idealized orientation to learning for students in the case study research sites. Furthermore, this constructivist paradigm is not merely an orientation to research and higher education pedagogy. According to Williams (2013), translation itself in several influential contemporary theories is not simply exchanging one word for another, nor does it simply convey meaning, but is constructing meaning: translators construct the meaning in their heads and then help the receivers to reconstruct it through another language. Translation does not present its target text as identical to the source text, but it can be an authentically

appropriate reconstruction. From this viewpoint, translation fits this constructivist paradigm. Thus, I am not only taking constructivism as a currently dominant perspective in social science, but it also fits translation research because of the kind of orientation about translation processes.

Therefore, applying the constructivist paradigm to this current research, I aim to explore the complexity of translation teaching and understanding translation students in natural settings, though the focus I set is not on inquiring how the reality and the professional knowledge of translation students are constructed in their contexts but rather on how the practical and professional knowledge are constructed in students' studying and whether translation students can apply them in practice. Guided by this paradigm, I believe that this knowledge which formulates translation students' values and competence is constructed and emerges through teaching and learning activities as well as through social and professional interactions with others in the contextual environments.

3.2.2 Qualitative approach

Based on the nature of the constructivist paradigm cited above, the inquiry developed by adopting a qualitative approach. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2005), a qualitative research study is

> *a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them*. (2005: 3)

Denzin and Lincoln further specify that qualitative research 'involves the studied use and collection of a variety of empirical materials', including 'case study; personal experience; introspection; life story; interview; artifacts; cultural texts and production; observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts that describe routine and problematic moments and meanings in individuals' lives' (ibid.). Hence, major features of qualitative research are given in this definition: researching in socially-situated natural settings, attending to the representational nature of data, with a focus on the interpretative nature of analysis, and the notion of preserving and voicing individuals' meaning and experience.

A Socially-situated natural setting

The current research has been undertaken in the natural study settings of the participants from the three different translation programmes in the UK and China. The interviews and survey of perceptions are conducted in the socially-situated environments where the participants are naturally located. These social environments comprise the locations of their universities and the academic environments where they study or work. For student participants, it is anticipated that sometimes they interact not only with their teachers and classmates in their study contexts but also possibly within a wider physical environment (e.g. meeting professionals or working on a project or as interns in a translation company). The main social interactions studied here are nevertheless those between students and their teachers, department heads and myself as a researcher and a teacher. For example, I met the students and teachers in China, but I also met the Chinese-speaking students from different cultural backgrounds (e.g. Hong Kong, Macau, Taiwan and Singapore). The investigations achieved in this research include

intensive and prolonged contact with the university teachers of the UK and China and a reasonable immersion in their settings (Dörnyei, 2007). Besides, visiting the universities provided me with first-hand experience with the participants. Meeting the teachers and the students and giving them a presentation further helped me know more about their learning contexts. This helped locate myself in their worlds during the survey.

Nature of the data

Qualitative research allows a variety of empirical data to be collected and used as the representation of the world in order to make the world visible. The methods for data collection include interviews, use of focus groups and analysing various types of texts (e.g. documents and field notes). In the field of translation research, translated texts produced by translators are widely used for data analysis (Dam-Jensen and Heine, 2009). The data from these multiple resources can capture rich and complex details of information which can elicit an in-depth understanding of people in the relevant environment. For example, interviews allow the collection of different accounts or utterances from those with similar sets of experiences. They can reflect different perspectives on an event. There are no 'correct' or 'wrong' versions of the event: each account represents the opinions, perspectives of that speaker (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). Here, these multiple perspectives are gained inductively by triangulating the methods of using a translation task, and interview and document analysis (see Section 3.3.1). Participants' performance in the task provides them with factual accounts of the same experience. The analysed accounts from interviewing participants and translation teachers as well as the department heads of translation programmes contribute to examining their experiences in

learning and teaching, and comparing the perspectives of different stakeholders, for example, their perceptions of the theoretical elements in their translation courses. Document analysis contributes to comparing and analysing the differences in the translation courses considered, which may differentiate students' knowledge and experience. The data types extracted from the collection process, such as categories extracted from the translated texts, interviews and reflections as well as course-based documents, will be documented and described in Section 3.7.

An interpretive approach

Qualitative research is fundamentally featured as being interpretive and subjective. It is concerned with analysing subjective opinions, experiences and feelings of individuals (Dörnyei, 2007). Qualitative research essentially focuses on the human behaviours and meanings participants bring to situations, and seeks to obtain an in-depth understanding of these behaviours and the causes by employing data derived from subjective experience (Sarantakos, 2005). Hence, interpretivists (in parallel to constructivists) regard human behaviour as meaningful and emphasise the contribution of human subjectivity to knowledge. The meanings that the researcher as interpreter reproduces or interprets can be constructed as the original meaning of the behaviour and can be cross-checked through subsequent participant validation (see Section 3.3). This is achieved by using methods which enable the researcher to participate in the life worlds of people and to step outside the researcher's own historical frame of reference (Schwandt, 2003) and thus seek to interpret participants' experience from their point of view, thereby as far as possible reducing personal subjectivity. Research of this kind inevitably has some subjectivity, though, since it is ultimately constructed by both the participants' subjective views of their

social world and the researcher's background and position, which are recognized as an integral part of the process of producing data. The researcher can make claims which are subjective but wholly based on the evidence; further, the researcher can strive to make personal subjectivities explicit (see Section 3.10). I explained in the introduction how my own experience of study as a student in Applied Translation Studies in a UK university and my working experience relevant to translation teaching motivated my interest in this topic. Clearly my choice of focus was influenced by my professional and personal background and the literature studied. I am aware that the exploration and interpretation throughout the research process are based on my role as researcher but also of finding ways to listen to the participants' voices in so that I can convey their thinking as it is lived and make this thinking available for wider exploration and discussion. I put myself in this position to make their worlds 'visible' (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005: 3). This orientation, closely aligned to ethnography (Fetterman, 1998; Brewer, 2000), will be featured in this present study.

3.2.3 A multiple case study

Stake argues that case studies have become 'one of the most common ways to do qualitative inquiry' (2000: 435). Adopting a qualitative approach to this study allows me not only to describe the events and behaviour related to the participants from different translation programmes, but also to explore underlying reasons. Yin also affirms that 'the distinctive need for case studies arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomena' (2009: 4). Here it is essential to distinguish a case from a case study before I justify this study as a multiple case study.

A case and a case study

A ‘case’ can range from the study of an individual or small group, to a community, organization or institution, to larger entities: ‘In fact, almost anything can serve as a case as long as it constitutes a single entity with clearly defined boundaries’ (Dörnyei, 2007: 151). A case study is the study of ‘the particularity and complexity of a single case’ (Stake, 1995: xi). Yin specifies the scope of a case study as ‘an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident’ (2009: 18). In other words, a case is studied holistically in its context, complexity and normally in depth, but it is not always distinguishable whether a phenomenon should be considered as a context or a particularity within or across cases. Hence, the ‘case’ here meets Richards’ basic characteristic that it is in some sense fundamental (Richards, 2011: 208): in this research because translators, as students, study as specialists on translation courses, usually at postgraduate level on the basis of previously acquired graduate skills, and the three cases here are three such translation programmes; they belong to the larger category both within a university of postgraduate courses and within translation practice as the academic and professional basis for professional practice. In addition, Richards (2011) draws on a wide range of literature to give four characteristics of cases. Using his terms, the present cases are ‘bounded’ (it is clear what is and what isn’t the case), ‘contextualized’ (within particular universities and within postgraduate programmes) and are studied ‘within their natural context’, and draw on ‘multiple data sources’.

It is argued that a case study actually 'advances the concept that complex settings cannot be reduced to single cause and effect relationships' (van Wynsberghe and Khan, 2007: 84). The research setting in this study is the individual translation programme on which the students were enrolled. I paid attention to the wider education contexts where the students were situated in examining the cases. Since students' worlds include, as salient examples, their teachers, classmates, curricula and learning environment such as the library, translation resources and computer rooms, the decision of what and what not to study sometimes is problematic because 'the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident' (Yin 2009: 18). For the purpose of this project, I am primarily interested in the students' professional knowledge world, in which I want to explore how they think of their translation studying; I am open to the possible exploration of course syllabi and perceptions from students and teachers on translation studies, in particular the theoretical elements in studying translation, which may help understand and explain some aspects of their translation knowledge and competence development, and challenges they face.

A multiple case study

In the selection of case study design, Yin (2009) recommends that multiple case designs may be preferred over single case designs. He holds that researching 'more than two cases can produce an even stronger effect' than a single case design (2009: 62). It depends on the researcher's determination – and feasibility of site and participant access - how many cases should be studied. Different researchers classify the range of different types of case studies in different ways, according to the specific purpose of the study: for instance, Berg (2007: 292) lists three types,

while Robson (1993: 147) lists five, using completely different labels. This present study can be called a ‘multiple case study’ since the three cases of programmes of teaching translation in China and the UK are examined qualitatively to explore overall patterns, although each case has intrinsic interest. This fits Yin’s indication that such multiple case studies are frequently ‘considered more compelling, and the overall study is therefore regarded as more robust’ (2009: 53). In this sense, characterized as case studies, there is no argument that multiple methods for data collection can be used in this multiple case study: the rationale is one which is well recognized in research literature.

3.2.4 Screening sample case

Yin argues that screening the candidate ‘cases’ that best fit in the design of ‘literal or theoretical’ replication (2009: 91) in doing a multiple case study is an important procedure for producing either similar results or exploring results but for anticipatable reasons. Since this project is a qualitative multiple case study, selecting appropriate cases for this study is essential to purposefully fulfil the research aim and research questions. Dörnyei (2007) suggests that a purposive sampling in case studies, a careful selection of some particular cases, is the key, in particular to gain insight and in-depth understanding into a general community. For this, two things were necessary: one was to look at specific similar programmes and the other was to find out cases. After conducting an overview of similar current translation programmes in the UK and in China (see Section 2.5), I selected the three programmes (see Table 3.1) according to the following criteria which I pre-set for the purpose of this study: they should be legitimate and national institutions; there should be research access both to the sites and their websites; they should be

institutions which provide a Chinese-English translation programme at postgraduate level, and there is availability of formal documents, such as programme descriptions, curricular documents, course syllabi, teaching and assessment methods as well as the background knowledge of translation teachers.

Table 3.1: Three case translation programmes

Case	*Location*	*Case code*	*Mode of study length and programme*
Case one	China	C1	Two-and-half years' full time postgraduate programme in Conference Interpreting and Translation Studies
Case two	China	C2	Two-and-half years' full time postgraduate programme in English and American Literature with translation orientation
Case three	UK	UK3	One-year full time taught postgraduate programme in Conference Interpreting and Translation Studies

In this research, because multiple cases are involved, there are inevitably potential comparisons within and across them. However, any kind of educational comparison between institutions and programmes is complex and is even more challenging across two countries with different education system. This study, as the research aims and questions make clear (see research questions, Sections 2.7 and 3.1), is designed to explore students' performance on a translation task and ascertain the nature and extent of any qualitative differences between and across the three case programmes.

In this study, the UK university for the main British case is known to be one of the best in Britain: as a highly ranked institution and with a good international reputation and specifically in the field of translation and interpreting it is considered by some as outstanding and can therefore be assumed to attract good or outstanding

students to its programmes, including international students who will have high English language scores (IELTS, TOEFL, etc.) prior to admission. Further, for the international students on the translation programme, it may be assumed that after some months in the UK (sometimes before the course begins - in pre-sessional courses or settling-down visits - or certainly after some months into the programme), they have developed at least some improved awareness of culture with relevant knowledge and skills in relation to living and studying in the West, besides having good opportunities to improve their English language abilities. Obviously such developments are not made equally well by all Chinese-speaking students and exceptions in the best universities can be encountered; many Chinese students in the UK tend to socialize within Chinese student networks and thus self-limit these social and cultural opportunities, nevertheless as a group the UK case study participants clearly have enhanced opportunities compared with students in the two Chinese case study programmes, which claimed that they were different each other.

In contrast, while many participants in the two Chinese case study programmes have travelled briefly and made visits to other countries, most are unlikely to have had any extended study period in the west. Although they also need high English language scores for post-graduate admission, their opportunities to practice academic and social English and to develop socio-cultural knowledge and awareness are restricted in China. While the two Chinese case study programmes are certainly located in reputable universities with good standing, they are not among the very top universities in China, as ranked or commonly perceived.

While the British case study programme enrols students from areas including mainland China, Hong Kong, Taiwan besides the UK or other places like Singapore, the Chinese case study programmes enrol participants from China. Chinese universities of course increasingly enrol international students, mostly from neighbouring countries or the region, but these particular programmes rarely receive international students, since by definition participants must speak advanced Chinese and be literate in Chinese before they are admitted to these courses. Hence, whereas the British translation programmes tend to one academic year in length, those in China take two or two and a half years to complete and are thus clearly substantial and participants can be assumed to reach high levels of expertise within their field. Details of each case programme can be seen in Appendix 8. Section 3.5.1 will present the selection of the participants for this research.

3.2.5 Representativeness and generalizability

In addition, a particular case study can be constructed within what Richards terms an 'axial context', where 'a single case can throw light on features of the larger class of cases to which it belongs' (2011: 209). He suggests that the relationship between the particular case and its larger family need not depend on notions of typicality or representativeness (ibid). Small (2009) argues that no single case can satisfy the criteria of an adequate representative sample; hence representativeness regarding selected cases in research is always problematic. The present cases were selected because they were accessible to me and it was feasible for me to obtain data on these sites. Moreover, I can show, in broad terms, how these translation programmes relate to others in China and in the UK by listing current similar programmes in both countries with some of their key characteristics (see Tables: 2.1

and 2.2) This enables me to make a reasonable claim that a detailed exploratory study of these three cases is potentially relevant to many other programmes in China and the UK and beyond, since although each programme may have its own particular features, their broad characteristics, aims and major course content are visibly quite similar. These cases in recognized institutions are therefore worthy of study and the value of each case should lie in its potential contribution in understanding a broader issue related to a large number of translation programmes. Even so, it should be noted that exploratory and explanatory results of analysing the relevant cases must not necessarily be regarded as generalizable, though the study should provide relevant insights.

This consideration is that case study research *'generalization'* means that results, interpretations, or insights can be generalized to other comparable cases which lie outside the immediate study. First, there are different kinds of generalization, ranging from 'naturalistic generalization' (Stake, 2000: 22) or 'fuzzy generalization' (Bassey, 1999:51-54) to the notion that what really matters is 'particularization' rather than generalization (Stake, 1995) or that case study researchers can 'give up on the idea of generalization' (Khan & Wynsberghe, 2008: 25, cited Richards, 2011:215). Here, the limits of the particular translation task mean that a straightforward generalization of results is not likely to be transferable; however, some features of the research outcomes should be generalizable at the level of insight into how translation theory is applied and how students and teachers think about such theories. Outcomes drawn from the rich particularity of the cases might generate 'illustrative outcomes' (Richards 2011: 216). Their strength and impact can be judged by readers in respect of

- the resonance with other researchers or professionals (e.g. colleagues of mine);
- the constructive recommendations they make;
- the contribution to the development of theory.

These aspects will be illustrated in Chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7. Chapter 8 which evaluates principal findings and applications will further provide the details in relation to the specific analysis of the socially-situated contexts of the cases and refer back to the broader literature. The reflectivity and limitations of this research project will be presented in Chapter 8.

3.3 Methods

This section presents the triangulating methods of the use of a translation task, together with interviews and document analysis, which I have used to explore the research questions in order to gain understanding of the translation students' worlds, supplemented by further data. The translation task by students provides a 'snapshot' approach as one feature of the exploration, plus interview analysis to glean what participants say about the translation task and their studying of translation. In order to plan the data collection from the translation task and post-task interviews, a pilot group was conducted (see Appendix 3 and Table 3.3). A documentary analysis corroborates them, along with research diaries and notes as supplementary data. In addition, the other supportive methods such as using a survey for seeking opinions and comments on the findings are presented.

3.3.1 Triangulation of methods

'Triangulation' is used in different contexts in research. In terms of case study, triangulating multiple sources of evidence and data is a major strength in which different data sources all relating to the central cases complement each other. Yin (2009) argues that researching through such triangulation can strengthen the process of converging lines of inquiry: the findings based on this process of triangulation and corroboration of several different sources of information are likely to be more convincing and accurate (Yin, 2009: 115-117). This triangulation can benefit by addressing 'construct validity' (Yin, 2009) and thus improve the quality of the analysis. This strength through focused complementarities in triangulated methods is the basis for my using triangulation in this study to explore students' performance and knowledge in doing translation and examining the relevant pedagogic issues. Since there is no single core data collection method within case study research, the strategy adopted here is a multi-method approach which triangulates the analysis of data from a translation task performed by translation students, interviews with students, and documentary analysis related to the translation programmes on which the students study. The translation task, which provided a snapshot approach as one feature of the exploration, was performed by students on translation programmes, interviews were with teachers and students of such programmes while the documentary analysis related to both the three programmes and other similar programmes elsewhere as specified (see Table 3.8). The triangulating methods I have used serve to gain understanding of the translation students' worlds. These multiple methods for data collection are triangulated as shown in Fig. 3. 2.

Research methods: triangulation

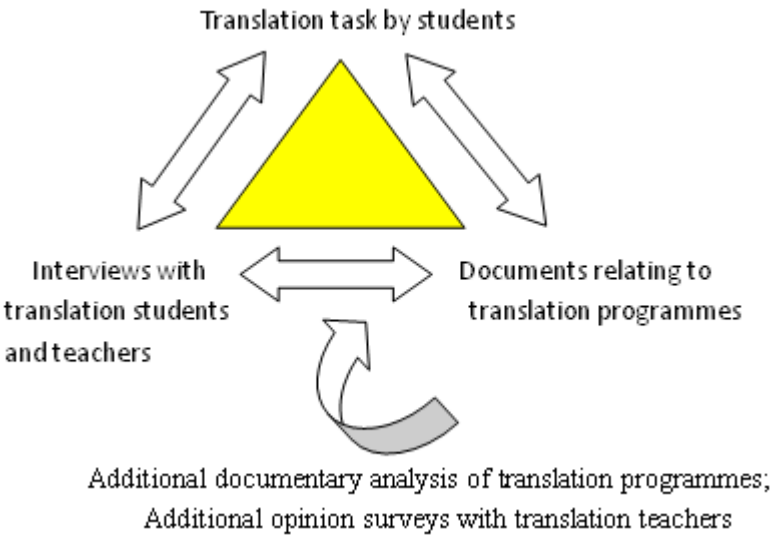


Fig. 3.2: Triangulation of the research methods and additional methods

I believe that these multiple methods for data collection can provide a holistic picture of understanding how participants perform their tasks and think of their translation studies in preference to the use of Think-aloud Protocols (TAP) as the research method, which would involve some participant training, artificiality, and itself could influence the translator's behaviour (Williams, 2013: 68-71; also see Section 2.6). Though TAP has been widely used in translation process research since the mid-1980s, its weaknesses in validity and reliability are questioned, in particular for computer keystroke logging and eye tracking (Dam-Jensen and Heine, 2009; Göpferich and Jääskeläinen, 2009). House (2000: 152) finds that TAPs experiments interfere with subjects' mental processes. Jääskeläinen (2000) recognizes that TAP data are not identical with the underlying cognitive processes. Bernardini comments, '*a major problem with TAP studies has been the lack of an established research paradigm, resulting in a rather loose treatment of methodological issues (research design, data analysis, research report)*' (2001:

251). Dam-Jensen and Heine (2009) point out that 'the use of TAP suffers from shortcomings': first, it cannot help researchers to get direct access to people's minds, and the data they get are indirect - the researcher cannot know whether verbalizations are a reflection of what goes on in the mind; second, the data the researchers have are incomplete, because only active processes can be verbalized and subconscious processes are not verbalized (Kiraly, 1995: 41; Kovačič, 2000: 98; Hansen, 2005: 513); third, the claim that the very act of producing verbalizations influences the writing activity and then the sequence of thought entails doubt. This leads to the question of whether subjects or respondents are able to perform two cognitive activities simultaneously. Thus, as Jääskeläinen (2000: 74) puts it, this may be the case if the translation task requires a lot of attention. Similar reservations might apply to retrospective studies in which translators comment on the process in relation to previously completed work (e.g. about what they were thinking and how they approached a given translation), which might contain an element of rationalization.

With the above considerations, therefore, adopting a case study to analyse text production may provide a practical opportunity to examine how the participants handle some issues in the translation process; it may be an acceptable alternative to explore and analyse pedagogic issues which may occur in teaching, especially if methods are triangulated so that multiple data sources complement each other.

3.3.1.1 Translation task

Translation tasks are authentic materials selected from the real world (see Section 2.2.4). University-level teaching of translation tends to focus on task knowledge by

practicing text production for two reasons. Firstly, by analysing and discussing translation, students can be trained as translation thinkers and problem solvers (Dam-Jensen and Heine, 2009). Secondly, one of the purposes of translation tasks in teaching is to provide students with experience of professional realism: text production can help display students' knowledge of acquired translation skills, strategy, expertise and self-efficacy. Hence, I chose an authentic English text with the title of *Manual Handling Guidelines -- from Sit to Stand Transfer* from the 2006-2007 translators training for the Diploma in Public Service Interpreting (DPSI). The protocol of this task was presented on three pages (see Appendix 4). The cover page contained three parts: first, a greeting and appreciation of the respondents involved; second, the brief of the translation task, which offered information for users and the quality of the translated text and indicated that the translated text was to be used in a socio-cultural context; and third, the English text to be translated into Chinese. The second page was a blank page for participants to write the translated text. On the third page there were five open-ended questions for the participants to answer after finishing the task. These five open-ended questions aimed at getting an idea of how the participants understood and applied some basic concepts of translation theory. An example of handling of the data can be seen in Example 1, Section 3.11.

I selected this pedagogically 'authentic' text for three reasons. First of all, to my knowledge, students from Chinese contexts who learn linguistics or translation tend to take interest in the DPSI programme. To counter the possible criticism that a single task risks unrepresentativeness or may be idiosyncratic, a good range of other translation tasks was examined in the three case institutions and other institutions

(see Tables 2.1, 2.2 and 3.8). The level of English text selected was accessible to students who study in the UK and China – international students on postgraduate programmes in the UK should have a minimum 6.5 points in the International English Language Testing System (IELS) before they start a postgraduate programme in the UK, while postgraduate students in China should pass Band 6 of the College English Test (CET). Second, the register of English in this text was informal, which required that the students should identify this before translating. Last, the 'Translation brief' of this translation task should be assessed and negotiated by translators before decision-making, for it required professional knowledge with social-cultural considerations. One purpose for choosing this text was to ascertain if students would notice its informal register and whether they would improve or correct it as required when they translated it.

This translation text was to be translated by participants from English into Chinese (For the selection of participants see Section 3.5.1). The translated productions in this study would provide a snapshot - not a longitudinal study - for the participants' performance on a translation task. Specifically, the exploration of the translated texts was to provide a general idea of how the participants would manage the task, how they would deal with translation problems and how they would use translation theory. The data serve in conjunction with the other two methods of interview and document analysis. The categories which were extracted from each of the translated products, with students' written submissions and translation notes, were to be used to link with the literature review, research questions and discussion of results.

3.3.1.2 Interviews

One of the most important sources of case study information is interviews (Yin, 2009). Interviewing is often regarded as verbal questioning (Sarantakos, 2005: 268). It is a procedure used for gathering oral data according to particular categories. The major advantage of using an interview as a data collection method lies in its strength as a strategy to find out from people things that we cannot directly observe; it also provides potential access to understanding what people know, what they like or dislike, and what they think (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000: 268). In terms of a case study, Yin argues that 'interviews are an essential source of case study evidence because most case studies are about human affairs or behavioural events' (2009: 108). In his view interviews are 'verbal reports only' (ibid). The researcher, throughout the interview process, can follow his/her own line of inquiry, as reflected by the case study protocol, to obtain responses to actual questions in an unbiased manner that also serves the needs of the line of inquiry (Yin, 2009).

With this in mind, three different types of interviews were conducted in order to understand translation students' worlds from different angles. They were post-task focused-group interviews with students, focus group interviews with Chinese teachers and individual interviews. Relevant interview questions were developed for these different interviews. They were predetermined and drafted in the case study protocol. These interviews served first, to gather information and opinions or perceptions from interviewees; second, for further exploration and interpretation; and third, the interview data were analysed in combination with those from the translation task and document analysis. Themes and details were to be explored

according to the research questions (See Section 3.11). They are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5.

Table 3.2: Interview types and questions

Interview types	Central questions	Main issues
Post-task focused group interviews with students	1. How do you feel about the translation task? Is this translation task difficult for you?	Students' retrospective views of the task, their feelings and attitudes
	2. Can/Do you apply the theories of translation you have learned in this task?	Students' knowledge of theoretical elements of translation in application
	3. Do you think that your curriculum reflects what you need in your study?	Students' opinions on their study of translation
Focus group interview with Chinese teachers of translation	1. I would like to know the role of translation theory in your teaching. Would you please describe it and link it to your practice?	Teachers' pedagogical opinions in teaching translation theory and practice
	2. Can you tell me what theoretical content you have for your students in teaching?	Theoretical elements in pedagogy
	3. What are your examinations and assessment in the courses of theory?	Assessment methods
	4. How do you think of theory in translation teaching?	Translation as 'a subject'; role of theory
Individual interviews with - department head	Some relevant questions are chosen and listed as follow:	
	1. Can you tell me some information about the translation courses in your school?	General comments on translation course
	2. Have you any problem arranging theoretical courses?	Teaching and staffing in relation to theory elements
	3. How about your teaching staff in translation?	Staff deployment for translation courses
- librarian	1. What are the translation textbooks you have?	Teaching materials
	2. Do the translation students use resources, like books and journals?	Sustainable learning environment
- secretary	1. Do your students take interest in choosing courses relating translation practice?	Curriculum design
	2. How do you know how many students choose translation courses?	Students' interest and attendance

Amongst all kinds of interviewing techniques, I took a standardized semi-structured format. Interview questions were developed in relation to the research questions and literature review. A preliminary list of questions for each type of interview was developed to explore the meaning which may relate to the students' construction of

knowledge (see Table 3.2). Though the format allowed flexibility and freedom, carefully worded and considered interview questions were written in advance exactly as they were to be asked during the interview (Patton, 1990). Each question was checked to ensure that it was free of jargon, idioms or syntax likely to cause interference with the participants' understanding.

All interviews were semi-structured, in particular with the student participants and teachers. On one hand, semi-structured interviews were designed to follow up what the participants thought of translation, in particular about the translation theories they had encountered in their courses. This would lead to finding out principally what they thought of translation theories embodied in their programmes. On the other hand, semi-structured interviews were designed to find out the opinions of the teachers who taught the participants. The structured elements allowed me to cover similar areas with the participants of the three different groups in this study. This is important as the case study is a multiple case study (see Section 3.2.3): gaining equivalent coverage and obtaining similar contributions for each case can ground the exploration and analysis. This can help analyse the results meaningfully and enhance understanding of the participants in different contexts. Each interview took an approximately similar length of time and common topics and areas were covered from different perspectives.

In addition, some less structured elements which may take place during interviews are considered valuable. For example, I predicted that some questions would be open in the group interviews with Chinese teachers. It would be at my discretion whether I should probe for more details or not. This is particularly necessary as

qualitative interviews explore deepening understanding instead of merely accumulating information (Richards, 2003). I assume that allowing a respondent 'narrative' rather than seeing the interview as a 'question-and-answer' in some way provides more opportunity for the teachers to foreground their thoughts and to articulate complex understandings. To conclude, a semi-structured interview was employed because it can 'facilitate a strong element of discovery, while its structured focus allows an analysis in terms of commonalities' (Gillham, 2005: 72). There are more specific descriptions of each interview in the following sections.

3.3.1.3 Document analysis

Yin (2009) argues that documentary information of likely relevance to every case study topic can be in variety of forms, including agendas, corresponding letters including emails, personal diaries and notes, or administrative documents and articles. No matter what form such information takes, in Yin's opinion, its object should be explained explicitly in the data collection plan. This is because 'documents are not just a simple representation of facts or reality. Someone (or an institution) produced them for some (practical) purpose and for some form of use' (Flick, 2009: 257). Since this study concerns translation teaching, I intended to obtain documents relevant to the cases so that their analysis would illustrate and support the data of the group-based translation task and follow-up interviews. The documents here include postgraduate translation programme information (including its website information), curricula, course syllabi (in particular, for courses in translation theory), translation tasks covering assignments and translation projects, staff portfolios, and teaching and assessment methods. All relevant emails exchanged during the process of this study were also potential data. In addition,

possible parallel documents may be snowballed to display if necessary. For the purpose of this study, the documents were chosen in the light of the four criteria of authenticity, representativeness, meaning and credibility (Scott, 1990, quoted in Denscombe 2010: 222). That is, they are seen as socially constructed, reflecting aspects of their socio-cultural context; they are official, presumably free from error and distortion; they are typical representatives of their kind. The documents are collected in this study with two specific goals: first, they should explicitly show their inherent function within each case; second, they should be used to illustrate strengths and weaknesses between the three cases. Throughout the documentary analysis, it is intended to gain insight into the cases, particularly regarding the implications of a solid body of translation theory in teaching (Specific documents are in Table 3.8).

3.3.2 Opinions on translation theory from UK teachers

The exploration of the opinions on translation theory from UK teachers took place after I had analysed the data collected from the group interviews with the Chinese teachers of translation. Their opinions on translation theory in teaching was discursive: though I could examine their opinions with my experience and knowledge of studying theoretical elements in the UK or provide some canons of translation theory from UK translation academics, it would be more convincing to obtain participating teachers' opinions by survey, written for the exploratory purpose. Therefore, I sent out 21 survey letters by email to my former UK teachers and those in other UK universities which run translation programmes between December 2012 and January 2012 (shown in the Data Collection Section 3.5).

3.3.3 Reflections from focus group of Chinese teachers

After ascertaining the findings through data analysis, I made an easy-to-understand summary of the more significant research results and briefly shared them with my Chinese colleagues who teach translation courses. I asked for their comments and interpretations and we had two informal discussions about the data on the 9th and 23rd January (see the diary notes 09012013 and 23012013). They reflected on and interpreted what they thought these results meant to them and how they might be applied in Chinese classrooms for developing translation programmes. Six colleagues as a focus group were willing to contribute their reflections and perceptions in written submissions once I sent the summary of the results by email. It was valuable to have their submissions for this study because they may be considered to have expert opinions on this topic and not only provide 'collective experience of group brainstorming' but also 'yield high-quality data as it can create a synergistic environment that results in a deep and insightful discussion' (Dörnyei, (2007: 144). My colleagues thus participated as a focus group giving their reflections and perceptions. This plays an important role for this study in three ways. First, they provided an opportunity for 'member validation' (ibid). It is reasonable to iteratively gather further data through, in this case, second level participants (i.e. the translation experts who are teachers of the first level of student participants) for further and deeper understanding. Second, the interaction among my colleagues and I was another source of rich data to deepen the understanding during this study. Third, this supplementary group of comments and interpretations serves to enhance the results from the triangulated methods. This group was a little different from the other group interviews conducted in this study. The main findings were summarized

and open in that each of my colleagues would comment on and interpret the findings based on their preference and knowledge.

3.3.4 Research diary and field notes

As further supplementary data, I kept a research diary where field notes, impromptu comments, memos, my annotations, feelings and thoughts were written down throughout this study. Yin argues that a good case study investigator should keep notes 'as done in good journalistic accounts' (Yin, 2009: 108). I kept the entries either in English or in Chinese, making notes in whichever language first occurred to me, this preserving immediacy. There were no special patterns to indicate when each language was used.

Silverman (2005) suggests that keeping a diary can inform of the researcher well; it shows the readers how the researcher's thinking is organized and developed, how time is managed and how reflection and reflexivity develop. Further, the information in a research diary, as itself data, should become part of the analysis and interpretation process itself (Duff, 2008). For this study, the field notes were made in the research diary as part of the research process. They were used as a supplementary method to corroborate the other methods when it was necessary. Other notes in my diary included a daily working plan, memos of communications and interactions by email and telephone, and individual interviews with the department heads, teachers and librarians I met at the research sites, plus the observations, ideas and impressions which occurred during the time I was conducting the research. These notes were organized in chronological content files to make it easy to record the procedures for data collection at each of the schools.

Each file contained information every time it was developed and collected, and it was processed conceptually and filed in appropriate folders. Since these files served as a supplement to the other data, they were referred to all through the process of analysis in two ways: first, they were used to fill in information gaps; second, they served as pathways into the coding steps and analysis processes. In fact, though I experienced some changes, this research diary was maintained till I completed the project; it kept me focused on the analysis and interpretation which involved different reflections.

3.4 Issues of language

Language choice in this study, particularly for interviews and surveys, is an important determinant for ensuring the quality of the resulting data. Since the study refers to translation teaching in the UK and China, the student and teacher interviewees and I myself had access to either English or Mandarin (Putonghua) or to both languages. Hence, language decisions needed to be made to consider different participants in their socially-situated contexts. Cortazzi, Pilcher & Jin, (2011), having studied their Chinese interviewees, find that the data they obtained were tremendously different in quality because of the language choice for the medium of interviews. They point out that this issue is complex and not simply tied to the ethnicity of the interviewer or participants. The participants, for example, were expressive and flexible when using their own language (Mandarin). Issues of ‘face’ were concerned when the participants used their own language so that they could keep self-esteem.

The participants involved in my study included Chinese and English teachers, librarians and student participants from different Chinese ethnolinguistic or social groups such as Taiwan, Singapore and Cantonese. So I handled interviews and the survey in different languages. For example, I interviewed Chinese students and teachers in Chinese. Some student participants, particularly those from the UK university used names and terms in English while expressing themselves mainly in Chinese such as 'Nida', 'Text Type' (see original notes P9) and 'DTS' (see original notes p16, p23). For unifying the Chinese characters in this study, the participants who used traditional Chinese were allowed to employ free online tools to convert traditional to simplified Chinese (see Chinese-Tools.com). I surveyed opinions on translation theory from British teachers of translation in English. To gain the reflections and perceptions of the findings from my colleagues, I documented part of them bilingually in both English and Chinese and sent them to my colleagues (see Appendix 2). I let participants choose which language they would use for two reasons. Firstly, it helped build rapport and establish confidence between the interviewees and researcher; both the interviewees and I could exchange ideas and communicate smoothly. Secondly, it gave the interviewees freedom to use their own languages; I considered it ethical to let the participants have confidence and freedom expressing themselves; thus, participants' choice of language medium has an ethical function.

3.5 Data collection

Data collection was in different phases, as shown in Table 3.3. In the initial phase, I searched for the institutions which ran postgraduate level translation programmes. Then I contacted each of them by email, telephone and personal contacts. Though

most of institutes offered a polite welcome, the number of feasible case institutes declined for reasons of inaccessibility. Finally, the selection of cases was made on the basis of the lists provided by personal contacts of appropriate institutions which were able to allow access to their sites and facilitate the survey according to the selection criteria stated in Section 3.2.4.

Table 3.3: Research design and data collection procedure

Phase	**Time**	**Items**	**Data collection**
Phase 1: Preparatory stage	Nov 2006-Oct 2007	Found postgraduate level translation programmes from the universities of the UK and mainland China	Searched for relevant information and documentation
	Nov 2007-Jan 2008	1.Screened candidate cases from possible institutions by email, telephone and personal contacts; 2. Worked out a survey plan	Conduct a pilot group to rehearse the methods of the task translation and the post interview.
	Jan-Feb 2008	1.Confirm the sample cases; 2. Produce a manageable itinerary.	1. Filed documents, notes and emails 2. Photocopying and printing
Phase 2: site survey	March 2008 Case1 (C1)	Visited the school of T&I, China	1.Translation task; 2. Interview; 3.Documents
	April 2008 Case2 (C2)	Visited the Faculty of Foreign Language and Culture, China	1.Translation task; 2. Interview; 3.Documents
	June 2008 Case 3 (UK3)	Visited a Centre for translation studies, UK	1.Translation task; 2. Interview; 3.Documents
Phase 3: Opinions survey	December 2012-March 2013	1. Sent a request letter by email to some universities of China and UK	1. Responses by emails 2. Collection of assignments/translation projects/tasks
		2. Organized a focus group for reflections and perceptions on the findings from my colleagues at a major Chinese university	5 written submissions for comments on the findings

3.5.1 Selection of student participants

The participants (see Table 3.4) were three groups of postgraduate translation students (N=24) from the three programmes. Each group comprised eight voluntary

participants. According to Patton (1990), a focus group interview is a highly efficient qualitative data-collection technique, for eight people instead of only one person can be interviewed within a limited and controlled period of time; besides, because participants tend to provide checks and balances on each other's comments, false or extreme views can be avoided (Patton 1990: 335-336). Thereby, the three cases with 8 participants for each were set for exploring in detail within and across the cases.

One group from China (C1) had four male students and four female students. Three of them had work experience; the others had not. The other group from China (C2) had two male and six female students. Similarly, half of them had work experience; the other half had not. The participants of both these groups studied a translation programme in China. Their average age was 27. None of the participants of these two groups had experience of studying abroad, but they had studied English in China for some eight years. Also, none of them had experience as a professional translator or interpreter. The participants of these two groups were in their second year of postgraduate study when they took part in the survey. The participants in the third group (UK3) were studying a postgraduate translation programme in the UK. They ranged in age from 25 to 34. They came from different national backgrounds: Singapore, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Macau and mainland China, but they all spoke Chinese as a first language. There were four females and four males. Five of them lived in a bi-lingual community, five had work experience and one was a professional interpreter. They were in the third term of a one-year postgraduate translation programme. All the participants of the three groups had attended a course in translation theory when they took part in the research.

Table 3.4: General information of the participants

Case Code	Participant Code	Age	Gender	Country/ Area	Mode of study	Work experience	Translator/ interpreter
C1	**C1-1**	26	Male	China	2 years	No	No
	C1-2	27	Female	China	2 years	No	No
	C1-3	30	Female	China	2 years	Yes	No
	C1-4	28	Male	China	2 years	Yes	No
	C1-5	25	Female	China	2 years	No	No
	C1-6	27	Male	China	2 years	No	No
	C1-7	29	Female	China	2 years	Yes	No
	C1-8	26	Male	China	2 years	No	No
C2	**C2-1**	28	Female	China	2 years	Yes	No
	C2-2	25	Female	China	2 years	No	No
	C2-3	27	Female	China	2 years	No	No
	C2-4	24	Male	China	2 years	No	No
	C2-5	26	Male	China	2 years	No	No
	C2-6	28	Female	China	2 years	Yes	No
	C2-7	29	Female	China	2 years	Yes	No
	C2-8	29	Female	China	2 years	Yes	No
Uk3	**UK3-1**	26	Female	Taiwan	1 year	No	No
	UK3-2	31	Male	Hong Kong	1 year	Yes	No
	UK3-3	30	Male	Singapore	1 year	Yes	No
	UK3-4	27	Female	Macau	1 year	No	No
	UK3-5	28	Female	Hong Kong	1 year	Yes	No
	UK3-6	34	Male	Taiwan	1 year	Yes	Yes
	UK3-7	25	Female	China	1 year	No	No
	UK3-8	29	Male	Macau	1 year	Yes	No

3.5.2 Accessing the sites

As shown in Table 3.3, I entered the sites of investigation in order to gather data from March to June 2008. This was in the second phase. The on-site data collected related to the triangulating methods, that is, the translation task, group interviews with the participants and their teachers as well as some individuals. Meanwhile, relevant documents were collected.

In respect of China, as planned by protocol in advance (see Appendix 3), I first met the heads of the schools. They arranged for me to meet the appointed facilitators who would help me during my survey in the sites. All my survey activities at their sites were subject to their agreement. They helped to arrange times and venues to meet their students and teachers. They were present when their participant students

would carry out the translation task and be interviewed. My survey in the Chinese cases was performed with the assigned facilitators or assistants. I discussed and made plain to them each process of the survey, including the participants, the time and venue for conducting the translation task and interview, the time to meet some teachers of translation and visiting their schools. These were notable contextual features of accessing participants, without which the research would not have been possible. In return, I offered a one-hour talk on 'Translation Theory in Teaching: from the Chinese Perspective'. Compared to this, the atmosphere in the UK was more flexible and a teacher of translation in the school assisted in the process of collecting data. In return, I gave a seminar on Chinese Tradition Translation Theory in the school. The procedure of the main data collected from the sites was specified as follows.

3.5.3 Data collection procedure

I collected data successfully from the three cases on 27 March, 15 April and 24 June 2008 respectively (fieldnotes_21032008). A similar process of data collection for the translation task and interviews were carried out, though it took place at a different time, in different institutes and different countries. Meanwhile, I collected relevant documents at each site; in some cases I downloaded the necessary information. The following provides further information about collecting data.

3.5.3.1 Data from the translation task

As stated in Section 3.3.1.1, the translation task was to provide a 'snapshot' approach to understand the participants' performance. The protocol of this task was presented on three pages (see Appendix 4). The cover page contained three parts:

first, a greeting and appreciation of the respondents who contributed to the survey; second, the brief of the translation task, which offered information for users and the quality of the translated text and indicated that the translated text was to be used in a socio-cultural context; and third, the English text to be translated into Chinese. The second page was a blank page for participants to write the translated text. On the third page there were five open-ended questions for the participants to answer after finishing the task. These five open-ended questions aimed at getting an idea of how the participants understood and applied some basic concepts of translation theory (see Appendix 4). An example of handling of the data can be seen in Example 1, Section 3.11.

Within the procedure for undertaking the translation, the participants of each group took their seats and I gave instructions on how the survey would be carried out, explaining what the translation task was for, how the results would be used, why the individual respondent's data were important to the whole project, and the level of anonymity or confidentiality with which the data would be treated. I further confirmed that all the participants present took part voluntarily after they understood the instructions clearly. Second, each participant was required to write down his/her name, the time and venue where they attended. Third, I gave an hour for each group to do the translation task. The participants could use any dictionaries and could exchange ideas when necessary, but they were not allowed to talk aloud while doing the translation task. Copying was forbidden. The facilitators or assistants and I did not make contact with the students throughout the process. We did not answer any questions relevant to translating. However, I observed and curtailed some students who talked a bit longer. Fourth, we announced the time to

finish after one hour when I required the students to stop and hand in all the task papers. The facilitators or assistants helped collect all the translation task papers. After counting the copies and confirming the information on each copy, a total 24 copies, we told the students to come back for the post-task focused interview in ten minutes' time. The 24 copies of translation products from the task were to be double-marked to provide a reference for looking at the participants' performance (see for an example of marking of a translation task in Example 1, Section 3.11). Different categories of translation unit approaches, translation errors and translation theories were to be produced (see Appendix 1). The open questions were to be sorted out and synthesized (see Section 3.9). These data will be further discussed in Chapter 4.

3.5.3.2 Data from the post-task focused interviews with the students

After finishing the group translation task, a follow-up interview was conducted in each group, which took over half an hour. The facilitators or assistants helped to ask the questions. The participants gave individual or collective opinions. Since tape-recording was not a feasible option in this situation, as far as possible I noted down the answers verbatim, ensuring the collection of all data for future analysis. An example of interview question 2 with students is given as follows (see Table 3.5; see the sample of original interview verbatim notes in Appendix 12). For ethical reasons, I coded each participant under a pseudonym. One reason why tape-recording would have been difficult, in the opinion of the facilitators which had to be adhered to, emerges (in a comment by 34) where the spontaneous laughter shows sensitivity to comments which if reported may be seen as inappropriate by some officials. On the other hand, participants could freely express some critical thinking

on some points, evidenced (in contributions by 31, 34, 41, 25) by comments about 'mysterious' theory, 'narrow' theory, 'superficial' textbooks and 'not understanding' what teachers said.

Table 3.5: Example of the second interview question with students

Case code	Interview question 2 and examples	
C1	Assistant	Let's see the second question: Can/Do you apply the theories of translation you have learned in this task?
	30 All	No, I don't think so (most said 'No')
	Researcher	Why? Can you give me some examples of what kind of theories you have learned?
	31 Lin (C1-2)	We did learn many theories, but when we did translation, we couldn't remember what we should use when necessary. What we could use was grammatical equivalence. Nida's theory of equivalence seems universal. We learned Yan Fu's 'three-word' translation theory, but we feel that it is mysterious. It seems little help to do translation.
	32 Xiao (C1-1)	In the lecture of Translation Studies, the teacher talked about literal translation, meaning translation, text type. I know that the English form is different from that of Chinese text. When I dealt with this English text, I found that I easily followed the form of this English text. I am not sure of the translated text and form. The teacher also talked about functionalist theories. I understood at that time when we had them in lecture, but I feel that I don't know how to apply them in practice.
	33 Lei (C1-4)	Venuti's domestication and foreignization can be used to translate this short text. However, I feel ease to use grammatical equivalence. I think that Chinese translation theory is not concrete. Translation skills and strategies are practical. My problem in this translation is that I was easily bound by the original source text. I translated its meaning. We learned some literary theory, like *Shenyun*, foreignization and domestication, formal equivalence, correspondence, etc. We know not much but superficially such conceptual knowledge. Sometimes the teacher did not explain clearly.
	34 Xiao (C1-1)	You should be careful for what you say. Somebody may report your saying (All burst into laughter).
	35 Fang (C1-3)	Teacher, can you tell us of some programmes of Translation Studies in the UK? What kind of translation theories do the students there learn? Do they study Chinese translation theory?
	Researcher	I shared some information when I gave the talk at 2.30, if you were there. I am willing to talk to you when we finish this interview. I

		want to know if some others want to discuss what you have learned.
	36 Hai (C1-5)	Although we have learned many theories, for example, Yan Fu's '*Xin, Da, Ya*' and Fu Lei's '*Shensi*'. These are too general. I only had their basic concepts. In my opinion, making the scope and content of translation theory are not an easy thing. ……
C2	Assistant	I am glad that you have talked very well. I want to stop this question for a while. Let's see the second question. Can/Do you apply the theories of translation you have learned in this task?
	29 Song (C2-8)	Linguistics and literature is our focus in our study. We learned Chinese translation theory, Western translation theory and literary theory.
	Researcher	Can you describe them specifically?
	30 Shi (C2-6)	For example, '*Xin, Da, Ya*', '*Shensi*', and '*Huajing*'. However, they are very abstract. Nida's theory is useful.
	31 Jian (C2-4)	We think that we should not only learn Chinese translation theory but should have a systemic and multi-dimensional theory. ……
	34 Song (C2-8)	I agree with Jian and Yang. This means that literary translation theory is not singled out as the only theory we learned, but it should be combined with theories of other disciplines. We believed that the literary translation theory we learned was very narrow.
	35 Shi (C2-6)	In the light of the translation course, we had modules of theories of modern literary criticism, translation theory, theory and application of translation, theories of traditional literary criticism. Our teachers presented them in Chinese. We understood them in Chinese. ……
	41 Feng (C2-1)	Cultural difference certainly needs different ways or have this ability. My understanding of translation competence was that it should be good for dealing with culture-bound words. For example, a kind of Chinese tea is called *Huacha* 花茶. It is actually a kind of green tea mixed with jasmines. I got several options here: flower-scented green tea, Jasmine tea. I feel that they are acceptable in Chinese. However, I would take it as a culture-bound word. //I would like to have some translation textbooks of good quality and worthy of keeping as my handbooks. However, I bought them, and I found that they were not much used because their contents were superficial and repeated. I wonder why we were required to buy them. ……

UK3	Assistant	Can/Do you apply the theories of translation you have learned in this task? ……
	21 Willam (UK3-7)	We didn't have to wait for what a teacher taught us but we could initiate our steps with the clear and transparent instructional objectives. If I have a good preparation each time before starting the module, I can understand more.
	22 Mike (UK3-2)	However, in terms of translation theory paradigms, I couldn't often understand.
	23 Gaby (UK3-5)	Me too. Sometimes I only had some terms, but there were close connections between courses. Our assignments can prove this.
	24 Sheila (UK3-1)	Of course. Among them, the compulsory courses were fundamentally basic.
	25 Lewis (UK3-6)	I agree with you. Though I felt that compulsory and optional modules are difficult for me, I insisted that I should go on because I knew that I could obtain something through each of the modules. I personally appreciated the thoughts which came from the teachers. They were inspiring me. //I can't deny that sometimes I couldn't understand what the teacher said. ……

3.5.3.3 Data from the focus group interviews with Chinese teachers

While visiting the Chinese universities, I conducted two group interviews on 25 March and 15 April 2008 with some Chinese teachers who taught the participants from C1 and C2 respectively. These group interviews took place in the teachers' meeting room. They were carried out with the help of the department head or Chair in each case. The main language used in the group interviews with the teachers was Mandarin. I did these group interviews for two reasons. First, I anticipated that the teacher interviews would provide expert opinions or professional perceptions from teachers' perspectives in terms of teaching translation theory and practice as well as their opinions for their teacher circumstances. Second, I believe that their opinions or perceptions would provide references to support findings among the students. The analyses of their perceptions were contributed partly to demonstrate the nature

of each translation programme. The example of the arrangements for the group interview with the teachers from C1 and the questions can be seen as follows.

Time: 21 – 25 March 2008
Survey site: C1
Preparation: Meet the Dean Professor Mu Lei, Dean assistant James (Zhan Cheng) and relevant people on Monday, 24 March, at 2pm. The things we decided

- the specific arrangement for the survey
- the time and avenue for the translation task and interview
- the students and teachers of translation for the survey
- appointing James as the facilitator, responsible for informing the teachers of translation and the students for the survey and necessary support in the survey.

In return, the researcher would give an hour and half talk to the teachers and students in the School.

Arrangement:

- Monday, 24 March, James informed the teachers of translation of the interview time. He would inform the time and avenue. He would inform the students of the time and avenue. He would let the students know that they would allow taking dictionaries.
- Tuesday afternoon, 25 March at 2.30-4.20, the researcher gives a talk of 'Application of Translation Theory in Teaching', answers questions and provides information relevant for reference
  Objects: All the students and teachers in the school (undergraduate, postgraduate and doctoral students, visiting scholars and those who are interested in the topic)
  Place: Conference Hall in the School
- Tuesday afternoon, 25 March at 4.30-5.30 at the teacher's meeting room, interview with the 6 teachers of translation
- Thursday afternoon, 27 March at 4.10-5.50, at the meeting room of the T&I School, the volunteer students for the translation task and followed up interview.

Questions to be discussed:

1. I would like to know the role of translation theory in your teaching. Would you please describe it and link it to your practice?
2. Can you tell me what theoretical content you have for your students in teaching?
3. What are your examinations and assessments for the courses of theory?
4. How do you think of theory in translation teaching?

Event: Interview with the teachers of translation from the School of Translation and Interpreting of C1
Time: Tuesday, 25 March, at 4.30pm-5.30pm
Number: 6 teachers of translation, who teach translation theory and practice. Among them, four are male and 2 are female.
Name: The 6 teachers of translation named anonymously as Zu, Kang, Guo, J, Wang and Zhang

PROCEDURE

1. Circle the questionnaire
2. Answer three questions (give opinions, suggestions or raise questions)
3. James assisted the interview

After the talk at 4.25pm, the 6 teachers of translation and I came into the teacher's meeting room. We talked to each other and the atmosphere was harmonious. The secretary served tea to each of us and left. I gave a brief introduction about my research, and then I explained the purpose that I needed them to do. I told them that the interview was an open and informal talk. They could talk what they think about following the questions to be asked. After reconfirming that they were willing to be for this talk, the researcher passed down the questionnaire and asked to finish in 5 minutes. The interview started after collecting the questionnaire.

(TS: see the original notebook, Page 2)
Note: TS > translation scripts

3.5.3.4 Data from other interviews

Some other individual interviews took place during the site visits. As indicated in the research diaries, I met the department Heads or Chairs during my site visits. Apart from offering their assistance for my investigation, they answered some of my questions (see the Table 3.5). They also gave an introduction and perspective on the translation programmes they ran. In addition, I visited their resource rooms and had informal talks with the librarians about the translation resources, including translation textbooks, audio and video materials for translation practice and the frequency of the students' resource room visits. I also talked to the secretaries in charge of teaching administration when I collected some documents, such as curricula, course syllabi and other relevant materials. These individual informal interviews provided further field notes which would support other data. They may help in bridging information gaps or suggesting routes leading to the coding and analysis processes (see Section 3.11).

3.5.3.5 Documents collected at the sites

With departmental permission, I collected the relevant documents and read documents relating to the national assessment of the translation courses and some marked translation examination papers. However, permission to photocopy these was withheld so I tried to collect as many available ones as possible. The following are the main similar types of documents collected from the three case programmes (see a full list in Section 3.7):

- Translation Studies programmes
- Course syllabi and assessment methods
- Translation Projects/Tasks/Assignments

These documents are analysed and discussed within the cases to ascertain the nature of their differences. This was to contribute to understanding the input related to the students' knowledge construction and their translation performance (see research questions). In addition, other documents regarding teaching policies were also collected (see Table 3.8).

3.5.3.6 Opinion survey on translation theory from British teachers

Opinions on translation theory in teaching by British translation teachers were collected (see Section 3.3.1.4). Three questions in the survey letter sent by email were asked (see Appendix 5). I received 11 significant responses from translation teachers in 11 universities through the 21 email survey letters, two of which requiring Chinese perspectives had no responses (see the research diary_28012013). Some teachers were unable to respond themselves but they showed a degree of participation by recommending the survey to relevant colleagues; some asked for further information so that they could provide appropriate information. Many who responded did so by email late at night or in the early morning – an indication of how busy these university teachers were, which may show their commitment to support research and also indicate why some others were unable to respond. Three stated they desired to share opinions but did not actually do so – perhaps an indication of respondent caution or, again, of their workloads. The overview of the responses can be seen in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Responses to the opinions survey from the UK teachers

Sending date	**University**	**Response**	**Ways and times of exchange**	**Initial reply date**	**Main points**
07/12/12	Aston University	Yes	3 emails	08/12/12,	Questions and answers offered
07/02/13	Bath University	Yes	3 emails	12/02/13,	Promised to reply but did not do so
07/12/12	University of East Anglia (UEA)	Yes	3 emails	11/12/12,	Recommended me to colleagues
07/12/12	Heriot-Watt University	Yes (Auto Reply)	email	07/12/12,	Was away
07/12/12	Hull University	Yes, but undelivera ble	email	07/12/12,	The recipient's mailbox was full
07/12/12	University of East Anglia (UEA)	Yes	4 emails	10/12/12,	Offered rich information
07/12/12	University of East Anglia (UEA)	Yes	2 emails	07/12/12,	Not teacher of translation but recommended to colleagues
07/12/12,	Leeds University	Yes	3 emails	23/12/12,	Provided the website about the programmes
07/12/12	University of Edinburgh	Yes	3 emails	10/12/12,	Brief introduction of the programmes; recommended to colleagues
07/12/12	Heriot-Watt University	Yes	5 emails	07/12/12, -16/12/12,	Pass my email to her colleagues and had the information
07/12/12	Imperial College	Yes	6 emails, Skype and telephone	08/12/12,	Desirable to offer information
07/12/12	City University	Yes	4 emails, Skype	07/02/13,	Desirable to offer the information

The responses provided a limited number of useful resources for understanding the role of translation theory in teaching from the expert perspectives of British scholars. They were to be used to evaluate parallel perspectives to those from the Chinese teachers. They were also to be used to support the interpretation and evaluation of the student data and analysis (see details in Chapter 5). All detailed responses by

emails are categorized (see an example in Appendix 5). An example response to the researcher's letter of request from a teacher from the UEA is as follows.

07 December 2012 06:49
Dear Professor (the name is anonymous),
My name is Meilan Zou from China, a research student in translation teaching at the University of Warwick. I met you on a postgraduate conference at UEA.
I am writing to ask for your kind favour. I want to obtain some opinions about teaching translation theory and practice for your postgraduate students: do you think that it is necessary? What kinds of theories do you teach to your students, for example, linguistic, cultural, literary, or philosophical aspects, etc.? Please say what you want to say.
In addition, would you kindly forward an example of translation task relating to theoretical modules in your course?
I would appreciate that I have your kind help. Your contributions are invaluable to my research project. Your comments are treated as confidential as well as anonymous.
Thanks for your time and help.
I look forward to hearing from you soon.
Kind regards
Meilan Zou
To:
M
Zou, Meilan
Attachments:
(4)Download all attachments
LDCEM043 MALT Translati~1.docx (15 KB)[Open in Browser]; LDCEM043AS12Essay.doc (29 KB)[Open in Browser]; LDCEM043AS12Sept27.doc (75 KB)[Open in Browser]; Who Needs Theory earlier v~1.doc (75 KB)[Open in Browser]

Dear Meilan Zou,
Yes, I remember – didn't you talk about Chinese novels in translation?
I am not sure whether you are asking about MA or PhD students. The MA students do Translation Theory as a compulsory part of their programme, and many of our PhD students have either done their MA with us or they attend the Translation Theory module as part of their compulsory PhD training.
To answer your questions:
Yes, I do think knowledge of theory is important. To talk about translation with no knowledge of theory would be like being a geographer but not knowing whether the world is round or flat, and why people have thought different things at different times.
We teach students a historical overview of translation theories, so they know what people have said at different times. We also teach them non-Western views as far as we can, so that they see that not everyone sees things in the same way. We teach them to be historically aware, that is, to know why Jakobson thought language was a code whereas no scholar writing about translation today could possibly think this, and so on. (Well, maybe some do think this, but we also teach them why this is wrong.) And above all, for my own part, I teach them the importance of stylistics and specifically cognitive poetics and how it relates to translation.
Furthermore, we focus specifically on the theory –practice link and ask: does theory come first? If so, how is it translated into practice? Or does practice come first? If so, how does a description of existing practice help the practising translator? Can it and should it help?
I am not sure what you mean by a translation task relating to theoretical modules. A theoretical module on the MA would not have a translation task attached to it. I have put our essay handouts for that module, and also the overall handout and reading list in the attachments, so you can see what we do.
I hope this will give you the information you need. I have also attached an article of mine, which addresses the question of theory, as in fact does my recent book, which you can see by following the link below my signature.
Best wishes
XXX (anonymised)

We can see from the example above, how a professor not only responded to this survey in detail but also helpfully attached relevant documents with the response.

3.5.3.7 Collection of reflections from the focus group

With the purpose for collecting the reflections and perceptions of expert Chinese teachers of translation as I have stated in Section 3.3.3, the focus group of six of my colleagues responded. I gave them a summary of the student data in a bilingual form in both Chinese and English so that they could choose which language to provide their opinions (see Appendix 2). The results are given in two orientations, one regards the students' performance in the translation task and the other is about their perceptions of their translation study experience. This data collection was between January and May, 2013. Table 3.7 shows an overview of the colleagues who submitted their reflections on the findings, using pseudonyms.

Table 3.7: Submission of the reflections of the focus group

Name	Position	Degree	Teaching interests	Date submitted
Jiao	Lecturer	MA	Translation/interpreting	3 Jan
Wu	Lecturer	MA	Chinese-English translation/interpreting	13 January
Xiong	Lecturer	PhD	Translation theory	28 February
Zeng	Professor	BA	Written translation	2 March
Fanyu	Associate Professor	PhD	Translation, Business negotiation	2 March
Zhang	Lecturer	MA	Translation/interpreting	4 March

3.6 Ethical issues

Under the requirements such as the ethical approval from the Centre for Applied Linguistics (see Appendix 6) and the Graduate Progress Committee of the

University of Warwick, written consent was obtained from participants and the precautions detailed in relevant sections were heeded, some ethical practices and strategies were taken into consideration to ensure that this study was conducted in an ethical research environment for all parties involved (BERA, 2012; Gubrium et al., 2012, Part 4).

At the outset, a detailed protocol of the proposed research methods was forwarded to the three universities respectively. Before the launch of the survey in the institutes, a mutual agreement was that the names of the institutes and information relevant to the survey would not be disclosed without permission. In China, the site survey would not start if the facilitators or appointed assistants were not present. As the researcher, I provided all the participants with clear instructions, listened to their questions and clarified them before the start of the translation task and interview. For the empirical work, all the participants expressed their consent to participate voluntarily and cooperate as required. For example, on the front page of the translation task materials a declaration stated that any comments would be treated as confidential and anonymous for student participants. Through the entire process of the site survey, the principles of anonymity and confidentiality were emphasised to reassure participants, specifically with regard to the fact that private information such as names, addresses, contacts and translated text scripts would be protected exclusively for the purpose of this research. Besides, their personal emotions, opinions and experiences involved in the site survey were completely respected. Once the empirical work of each group was complete, all the original translated scripts and the notes taken down were reviewed by the facilitators in an attempt to check any inappropriate words which might harm the school's reputation:

potentially these could be censored. If necessary, relevant translations of notes and reports from the research would be sent to the facilitators to examine if there were any inaccuracy, misinterpretation and distortion. After initial examination, I coded and filed them. I kept all the originals in hard copy from the very start.

In addition, the survey took place on the sites in a reciprocal arrangement to minimize any perception that the research process was exploitative or that respondents and their institutions would not benefit from participating. I, as both teacher and researcher, provided a talk to both the Chinese universities and a seminar to the UK translation centre where the UK cohort studied. I delivered a talk of 'Application of Translation Theory in Teaching' (see research diary_3 March and 25 April 2008). The contacts with the universities were regularly maintained briefly through email during the study to build rapport and maintain continuous links. Sharing my research with my colleagues was deemed to be mutually beneficial.

3.7 Presentation of the data types

In sum, the data collection methods took place in different phases, in which the following data types were generated:

Table 3.8: Data types collected in different phases

Data	Method	Description	Number	Phase
Main data	***Translation task***	Translated texts (three groups)	(N = **24**)	1
		Written submissions (three groups)	(N = **24**)	1
	Interviews	Answers noted verbatim of interviews with student focused groups (three groups)	(N = **24**)	1
		Answers noted verbatim of interviews with Chinese teachers of translation	(N = **12**)	1
		Notes of individual on-site interviews with the department heads, librarians and secretaries	(N = **10**)	1
		Email survey on the opinions of translation theory in teaching from UK teachers of translation	(N = **5**)	2
		Reflections and comments on the findings given by my colleagues	(N = **5**)	3
	Documents	A. *University-based postgraduate translation programmes and syllabi in China and the UK*		1,2
		1. Postgraduate translation programmes, China 2. Course syllabi in translation, China 3. Postgraduate translation programmes, UK Course syllabi in translation, UK	(N = **6**) (N = **17**) (N = **7**) (N = **22**)	
		B. *Translation tasks/assignments/projects, or exercises/exam papers*		1, 2, 3
		1. Translation exercises and examination papers, China 2. Translation assignments/projects, UK 3. Five-point scale of global quality assessment of translation 4. Marking sheet with assessment criteria and feedback, UK 5. DPSI Assessment Criterion Statements of Institute of Linguistics (IOL), UK	(N = **15**, **26** answer sheets) (N = **12**) (N = **1**) (N = **5**) (N = **3**)	
		C. *National-based requirements relevant to English and translation teaching in China and the UK*		1
		1. 《大学英语教学要求》，2007 College English Curriculum Requirements (2007) 2. 《高等学校英语专业教学大纲》，2000 English Teaching Requirements for China's Higher Education (2000) 3. 《翻译硕士专业学位设置方案》，2007 Master of Translation and Interpretation (MTI) Programme (2007) 4. Programme design requirements in the UK, see the website of the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA)		
Other data	***Research diaries***			
	Translation assessment scripts			
	University visits	**(N = 3)**		
	Translation task field observation notes			

3.8 Quality evaluation of this qualitative multiple case study

This section presents the different means I have applied in assuring the research quality in terms of authenticity, credibility and trustworthiness. Considering the accuracy and appropriateness of the data and the consistency of the methodological procedure, the verification of qualitative research is different from the validity and reliability which are used conventionally in quantitative research. Instead, according to the nature of qualitative research, qualitative researchers prefer using 'credibility' to indicate that 'the findings are trustworthy and believable' (Corbin and Strauss, 2008: 30). They do not consider 'reliability' an important criterion of research; instead they use methods that are completely different from those used in quantitative research in order to achieve the necessary rigour. The process of this study aims to provide qualitative research with 'trustworthiness, credibility, authenticity and dependability' (Seale, 1999: 42-48; Sarantakos, 2005: 86-90; Flic,k 2009: 389-392; Denscombe, 2010: 298-303).

Since the nature of interpretive research is unavoidably subjective (as opposed to the data of quantitative research, which is verifiable by replication or statistical calculation), I established the credibility of the qualitative data in this study mainly through its research design. While different researchers may derive different interpretations of similar qualitative data in similar contexts (since an exact replication is difficult or impossible), a strong attempt is made to offset this possible limitation by describing the research contexts and participants in some detail, by making the research processes explicit (including acknowledging difficulties and admitting constraints encountered), and by making representative examples of both

the data and the ways of analysing them available. Further, through reflection and reflexivity, I strive to make explicit my subjectivity and my thinking processes as the research proceeded (drawing on field notes, diary entries and email correspondences). As an ethnographic researcher describes it, the criteria are 'whether or not a particular interpretation permits the formulation of grounded theory or generates findings that are trustworthy, persuasive, plausible, coherent, credible, generalizable, and internally reflexive' (Denzin, 1997: 238).

Because the scope of the data in this study was small, given the multiple case study nature of the research design, I expected to have in-depth access to these samples with rich data full of examples as well as providing a context-bounded 'thick description' (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000: 106). The purpose was to argue convincingly that the findings in this study were based on a systematic and critical investigation of all the data. Therefore, I would specify that the principles of communicative validation (Sarantakos, 2005: 86; Flick 2009: 388-389) were the main strategies used in order to pursue the trustworthiness, credibility, authenticity and dependability of this study. Trustworthiness in Schwandt's Qualitative Research dictionary is defined as 'that quality of an investigation (and its findings) that made it noteworthy to audiences' (2007: 299). And it is bound by a set of criteria 'for judging the quality or goodness of qualitative inquiry' (ibid.). This set of criteria includes credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. I specify the credibility and dependability of this study as follows.

1. Credibility

Following Schwandt's terminology (2007) along with conventional and naturalistic perspectives, credibility parallel to internal validity addresses 'the issue of the inquirer providing assurances of the fit between respondents' view of their life ways and the inquirer's reconstruction and representation of same' (Schwandt, 2007: 299). Thus, the credibility of the data in this study was achieved through the use of multiple sources and methods for data collection, triangulation and checking accuracy of data (Sarantakos, 2005: 86; Flick, 2009: 388-389), in addition to the explicitness mentioned above. As Flick puts it, qualitative research 'is inherently multi-method in focus' (2002: 226-227). Using multiple sources of evidence and conducting multiple methods for data collection contributed to looking at the research questions from different, complementary angles. This concurs with Yin's tactic of construct analysis (2009: 41). The data analysis, the explanation and description helped to build up the internal coherence. Besides, based on the evidence collected, analytic tactics of theme matching were established to explain, describe and analyse the data inductively. This strengthened the internal credibility of this study. Though multiple small-scale cases were used and did not provide possibilities of statistical generalisation as in survey research, the analytic generalisation in this study provided a clear, detailed and in-depth thematic description according to the case study protocol so that it may be replicated in another context and the insights derived here can be tested for relevance and applicability in such other contexts: that is, it is transferrable.

The application of triangulation in this study aided a better understanding of the study from different positions and enhanced the rigour of the research, because it

refers to ‘the use of different methods, different sources of data or even different researchers within the study’ (Denscombe, 2010: 346). First, triangulating data methods was employed in this studying the use of multiple data sources which impinge on the same research focus and can be easily related to each other. The translation task material was chosen from authentic materials. The students’ opinions from the follow-up interviews were reviewed by the appointed supervisors of the site schools. The documents used in this study were authentic and authoritative. The case samples were legitimate and trustworthy. Their websites were recent with the date of last updating visible. Suitable disclaimers and explicit statements about the purpose were evident.

Second, the strategy of investigator triangulation was used specially during the site survey and data analysis. During the site survey, trained assistants helped to ask questions during the interviews in a communicative way, while the researcher was taking notes. The notes taken from the interviews were approved, and to this extent validated, by participants. All the data and notes were re-examined by the appointed inspectors of the site schools before they were coded and filed, and to this extent validated by experts who were very familiar with the students and their learning environments. The translation task papers were marked both by a UK translator trainer and the researcher.

2. Member validation

Member validation refers to returning provisional or tentative results to the participants and having them refined or reflected in the light of participant reactions. Using it is highly considered ‘to be an important procedure for corroborating or

verifying findings or of assuring they are valid and meet the criterion of confirmability' (Schwandt, 2007: 187). This was done in two aspects throughout the course of data collection. One aspect related to student and teacher respondent validation. As mentioned in Section on data collection, the answers were noted verbatim from the post-task focused group interviews with the students as well as from the group interviews with the Chinese teachers at the site visits were examined. Then part of them were translated into English and checked by the students and teachers. The other aspect involved the reflections and comments on the findings I shared with my colleagues as insider experts on translation who were familiar with the students' translation programmes of study and with the students themselves. Six of them gave comments (see Table 3.7). At the very beginning, one colleague did not quite understand the findings. She was initially impressed that the findings from the Chinese cohorts were not 'decent'. She said that she felt 'shameful' to read the findings (see the research diary_23 February 2013). In other words, she doubted the Chinese students' poor performance with her study experience at postgraduate level. After I explained to her my research and showed some originals, she understood that my research was small-scale and happily provided her comments.

3. Dependability

The emphasis of dependability which is parallel to reliability is set 'on the process of the inquiry and the inquirer's responsibility for ensuring that the process is logical, traceable, and documented' (Schwandt, 2007: 299). The enhancement of the procedural dependability was considered in two ways in order to ensure the consistence and accuracy of the research procedures. A reasonable case study protocol was first built up to fit the research aims and design (Appendix 3). In the

process of this study, the case study protocol helped to make an explicit account of the methods, analysis and decision-making. It posited formulating and improving the research design clearly and explicitly. It ensured all data collection and analysis procedures were carefully carried out and examined precisely at each step. Meanwhile, a detailed record of the process of the research decisions was made so that it was possible to check whether the data collection procedures were coterminous with the results, and whether the procedures described in the case study protocol were observed.

A further way in which the procedural dependability was enhanced was by conducting a pilot group before the actual data collection, as indicated in Appendix 3 and Table 3.3. This pilot group helped me to examine, particularly with the students, relevant data collection procedures and issues in the site survey. The information obtained from it assisted in developing the protocol. It provided some conceptual clarification for the research design, e.g. the change of type of interviewing. It contributed to detailing the protocol content and allowing me to observe different phenomena from many angles and trying different approaches on a trial basis. The lessons obtained from this pilot group served to formulate the way of choosing case samples, to gain access to the survey sites and envisage how to do the follow-up interviews. Scrutinizing the data collection from the translation task and the post-task focused interviews was particularly beneficial. Thus, conducting the pilot group study enabled the research procedures to be kept coherent and systematic.

3.9 Data processing and analysis

As shown in Table 3.8, the data collected were multiple and rich. This section will present some discussion and decisions made especially while categorizing elements extracted from the translated texts and the written submissions of the five open questions and translating interview data. The opinions on translation theory extracted from Chinese teachers will be presented with those of the UK teachers when necessary. Features, procedures and issues were discussed in the processing.

3.9.1. Quality evaluation of the translated texts

The 24 copies of translated texts were evaluated by two independent markers through a five-point scale of quality assessment of translation, which I used to assess the DPSI translator training and for my tutorial for the 2009-2010 MA translation project in Translation Studies of Birmingham University (cf. Kiraly 1995: 83). Second, they were evaluated by a rating scale I used to judge the functional acceptability of the target text solution for each translation unit. Both of the quality assessment markers were native speakers of Chinese with a near-native command of English. One of the markers was a professional DPSI translator and the other a Chinese teacher in the UK who had translation training. The markers independently read all of the translations and then went back and indicated the quality of each one on the five-point scale shown in Table 3.4. The average mark given by the two markers in the global assessment is shown in the categorised data analysis report for each participant (Appendix 1). The average marks given for each participant group will be discussed (see Chapter 4, section 4.1).

I evaluated each translation unit according to its formal accuracy with consideration for the norms of English and its functional adequacy within the translated text. Each unit was judged to be either acceptable (+) or unacceptable (-). These marks were shown at the end of each source unit assessed in the script protocols. The number of acceptable unit solutions was indicated at the bottom of each script protocol.

Table 3.9: Five-point scale of global quality assessment of translation

Scale rank	**Description**
1	This is a totally unacceptable translation.
2	This is a poor translation. It would require major improvements before it could be submitted to an employer.
3	This translation is marginally adequate. It has several errors and would require a moderate amount of work to prepare it to be submitted to any employer.
4	This is basically a good translation. It does have some minor error, but they could be eliminated quite easily.
5	This is a very good translation. It contains no errors with respect to the norms of the TL and it is a functionally acceptable translation of the source text.

3.9.2. Assessed script protocols of the translated texts

The raw data from the translation task totalled 72 pages of hand-written data. The evaluation of the 24 copies of the translated texts contributed to 40 pages of assessed script protocols (Appendix 1). Because of the volume of the data produced and the scope of the present study, the analyses included only the segments of the script protocols corresponding to the translation brief and the translated texts of the English passage. I then developed codes and categories to present the script protocol data (see the full script protocol data in Appendix 1)

My desire to present the phenomena of handling translation unit solutions was influenced by the advocacy of current research for translation teaching and translator education (e.g. Malmkjær, 2004; Tennent, 2005; Chesterman, 2005; Wolf

and Fukari, 2007; Arrojo, 2005; Tymoczko, 2007; Pym, 2010; and Li, 2012), and also based on my work experience both in translation teaching and professional practice. These data were not derived deductively from considering pre-specified sets of the participants' translation processes or process classifications, for example those identified and described by Lörscher (1991) or Kiraly (1995). Instead, the descriptors of the phenomena of translation unit solutions used in this study evolved inductively from the data. The phenomena of translation unit solutions found in the data are narrow generalizations of events that appear to be occurring subjectively, and they reflected individual participants' competence in the production of the translations.

The data from the translation task from the translated texts for all participants in random order were coded and categorized in the protocols, which displayed the information of how the data and categories were produced. The main units of each source sentence were assessed. Each translation unit event identified in the data was categorized according to the concepts of the translation approach commonly identified and used in applied translation studies, i.e. lexical, phrasal, syntactic and textual approaches (Chesterman, 1997 and 2005; Pym, 2010). Descriptions of the translation unit indicators were modified to account for the phenomena of the translation unit solutions. The number of translation unit solutions appeared in the assessment of the translated texts. The number of each translation unit solution was counted for further analysis.

The participants appeared to search for translation solutions for the four types of source text elements: word, phrase, syntax and text. These are linked to codes of

apparent or potentially conscious strategy use. The following are the major categories of the phenomena of translation unit solutions: a combination of the apparent expressions given by the participants and indicators of assessing the translated texts in the script protocols. The codes of translation unit solutions are as follows:

- *Word units*: This type categorizes the codes of word unit solutions to translation. Word units are the smallest and basic units of translation in inter-lingual systems. The codes collected in this translation task cover lexical words, word equivalents, linguistic and grammatical equivalents at word level and include word-for-word translation, literal translation and transliteration. In addition, changing or keeping word speech, word addition and omission are often considered in this basic strategy.
- *Phrase units*: This type categorizes the codes of phrasal unit solutions to translation. Phrase units are comparatively small and also preliminary units of translation. The codes of phrasal units collected in this translation task include various phrasal units such as word strings, compounded units of words, collocated phrases, meaning groups and prepositional phrases. In this research, the options of word and phrase unit solutions varied in groups in translating the English text into Chinese.
- *Syntactic units*: This type categorizes the codes of syntactic unit solutions to translation. Using syntactic units as translation solutions can be treated as part of macro-level translation strategies. The codes of syntactic units cover not only understanding sentences and clauses in a source text, but also translating them into accurate and communicative target sentences. Referential, connective words and syntactic coherence must be considered in

syntactic unit solutions. Syntactic reconstruction or reordering needs considering. In the Chinese context, this category also includes those phrases which contain syntactic functions and can be modulated into Chinese sentences. Examples are taken such as infinitive phrases, gerund phrases and participial phrases which function as times, reasons and causes syntactically.

- *Text units*: Using text unit solutions to translation is a macro-level approach to translation. This type indicates processing at the textual level which refers to translation expectation structure, language form and register in transfer. It includes textual cohesion, the use of punctuation and understanding the translation brief, along with considering social-cultural elements in the translation community and if there is the right to make improvements or corrections in a text.

In addition to these four indicators, two other categories were coded: translation unit errors and the use of translation theory. Translation unit errors follow the definitions of Chesterman (1997) and Nord (1997). Chesterman took the view that a translation error is 'anything in the form of the translated text that triggers a critical reaction in a reader' (1997: 121). This means any linguistic mistake, wrong rendering or an inadequate choice a translator makes. Nord gave a broader definition for translation errors from a functionalist perspective. She thinks that 'the concepts of the translation problem and the functional translation unit can also be used to define translation errors' (Nord, 1997: 73). She classified translation errors into four categories: pragmatic translation errors, cultural translation errors, linguistic translation errors and text-specific translation errors (Nord, 1997: 75-76).

In what follows, thus, I define a translation error as a failure to carry out the instructions implied in the translation brief and as an inadequate solution to a translation problem.

Translation errors fell into two categories, as detailed below – a 'micro' category of translation unit errors; and a more global, 'macro' category of use of translation theory.

- *Translation unit errors*: Translation unit errors were collected from the evaluation of the participants' translated texts. The categories of translation unit errors appeared to reflect problems the participants met in the translation task. They were marked by the application of translation strategies, that is, they are categorized by word, phrase, syntax and text level errors. This varied from participant to participant.
- *Use of translation theory:* This category was collected from the individual participant's written submissions of the five open questions in the third part of the translation task. It was indicated by linguistic/grammatical, lexical, syntactic, textual, functional and social-cultural aspects of translation theory. This category shows how different students from different groups indicate what theories of translation they used in their translation task.

These categories were quantified except the text unit solutions, because using text unit solutions in this translation task was a process (which covers elements such as form, title correspondence and register). Those categories which were quantified would be analysed.

Some issues of analysis remain: in terms of distinguishing word level or phrasal level, there are some blurring areas. For example, the prepositional phrase ‘along the chair arms’ is presented by some students as a ‘phrasal error’, some are assessed as a word-level problem. No matter whichever it is, I counted them as micro-level issues.

3.9.3 Translation of the answers verbatim from the interviews

As explained, the data were collected from different perspectives. They would ‘promote insights into technique and content’ after the data were transcribed (Richards 2003: 112). Although the interview data were not audio taped individually (this procedure, conventional in many contexts, was simply not feasible in these research sites), the opinions given in groups were noted down verbatim by hand. Since the level of analysis I was pursuing was only at a general level to get the meaning of what the participants said, I did not feel that it was essential to actually look at the frequency of precise words or turn-taking mechanisms or similar interactive features that the participants individually used. Rather, I was concerned with the content expressed, but precise details of their interaction (which would have been significant in a discourse or conversational analytic procedure) were not relevant to my line of inquiry. Therefore, I decided to translate the data of the interviews of each group of students and teachers into English in full and take notes on the rest. I believed that this would sufficiently represent the central content of the feelings and thoughts of each group of participants at the time and would capture features of how meanings were co-constructed.

The translated scripts or notes according to themes were coded to form categories which referred either to *a priori* grounded ideas from the research questions, literature reviews and documents such as translation course curricula and syllabi, or to features emerging from the analysed data. The other data such as documents, the survey on translation theory from some UK teachers and the reflections on the findings from my colleagues in China can be seen in Section 3.11, where examples of the analytic procedures will be given.

3.10 Analytic technique

The main analytic technique I work with in analysing the triangulated data from the translation task, interviews and documents is Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA). Kohlbacher (2006) highly recommends using this as a method in analysing triangulated data in case study research. According to him, in the case of using QCA in case study research, triangulation plays an important role on a twofold level. On the first obvious level, data are triangulated by integrating different material and evidence, collected by using various methods. This fits my current multiple case studies. As stated, I used triangulating methods mainly comprising the translation task, interviews and documents. The data from the translation methods may provide a multiple-dimensional perspective to look at the event and its context within the case translation programmes being studied. On a second level, Kohlbacher (2006) holds that QCA may be an appropriate analysis of triangulation data and interpretation method for case study research. Since case studies characteristically offer the 'opportunity for a holistic view of a process' (Patton and Appelbaum, 2003: 63), analysing data becomes the heart of building theory from case studies. Using QCA can attain this purpose because it can provide a theory or theoretical

framework which ‘emerges through the inductive approach of studying an empirical case or object, not through a deductive process’ (Kohlbacher, 2006: Section 5.2). For further discussion, I will detail the nature of Qualitative Content Analysis and the procedures adopted here. Also I am going to draw on features of analysis in the demonstration of its theory building for this study.

Qualitative Content Analysis

Content analysis has been known primarily as ‘those methods that concentrated on directly and clearly quantifiable aspects of text content, and as a rule on absolute and relative frequencies of words per text or surface unit’ (Titscher et al., 2000). It is believed that Content Analysis is one of the ‘major coding traditions’ and coding is ‘the heart and soul’ of (whole) text analysis (Ryan and Bernard, 2000: 780). Researchers use Content Analysis as a technique to reduce ‘texts to a unit by variable matrix and analyse that matrix quantitatively to text hypotheses’ (Ryan and Bernard, 2000: 785). Some researchers believe that the meaning of text is constant (Hardy, Harley and Philips, 2004). The results from Content Analysis are amenable to statistical analysis (ibid.). Hence, the analysis is fundamentally quantitative.

However, a counter-argument is that the quantitative orientation in Content Analysis neglected the particular quality of texts and the importance of reconstruction of contexts. For example, it is contended that ‘patterns’ or ‘wholes’ in texts can be demonstrated not by counting and measuring but by showing the different possibilities of interpretation of ‘multiple connotations’ (Titscher et al., 2000: 62; Gläser and Laudel, 2004: 192, quoted in Kohlbacher, 2006: Section 4.2). Mayring (2000) criticizes Content Analysis as a ‘superficial analysis without

respecting latent contents and contexts, working with simplifying and distorting quantification'. He urges that not only the manifest content of the material is analysed, but also so-called latent content as well as formal aspects of the material (Mayring, 2000). He defines Qualitative Content Analysis as 'an approach of empirical, methodological controlled analysis of texts within their context of communication, following content analytical rules and step by step models, without rash quantification' (ibid.). Hsieh and Shannon (2005: 1278) also provide a definition of Qualitative Content Analysis as 'a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patters'. This obviously shows that the strength of QCA from the two definitions lies in the fact that it is strictly controlled methodologically and the material is analysed step-by-step.

As opposed to its quantitative counterpart mentioned above, Qualitative Content Analysis focuses on an integrated view of speech/texts and their specific contexts instead of focusing on counting words or filtering objective content from texts. It emphasizes 'the meanings, themes, patterns that may be manifest or latent in a particular text' and 'the unique themes that illustrate the range of the meanings of the phenomenon' (Zhang and Wildermuth, 2009: 1). According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005), QCA aims at providing knowledge and understanding the phenomenon under study. Applying these ideas here, I intend to foreground the postgraduate students from the three cases of translation programmes and the relevant elements which occurred in translation teaching, such as course syllabi, theoretical elements and pedagogic approaches,.

The goal of using Qualitative Content Analysis is to validate or enact the theoretical framework in this study. Combining with the existing theory and research methods, QCA helps focus on the research questions and 'provide predictions about the variables of interest or about the relationships among variables, thus helping to determine the initial coding scheme or relationships between codes' (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005: 1281). This technique to analyse content is suitable for the nature of my methodological approach in that the categories of translation solution units and theories extracted from the translation students' performance in the task are commonly referred to in translation research literature. Most of the semi-structured interview questions which were designed with pre-set themes such as translation performance, translation theories and pedagogic methods were informed by the research questions. The themes and subthemes were also available in existing literature, and they have been coded in order to describe the phenomenon relating to its context. In terms of the supplementary data of opinions on translation theory from the UK teachers and the reflections on the findings from translation teachers in China, I have chosen to label them in the preliminary codes in order to avoid possible biases and increase trustworthiness. Since the analysis to be done in this study is qualitative in nature, it should be clear that not all the supplementary data are coded but examples are chosen, first, to support and exemplify the results from the main triangulated data analysis, using these additional data sources; second, to seek counter-evidence or counter-examples as a cross-check that the researcher is not simply finding confirmatory evidence and to avoid overlooking exceptions or alternatives; third, to explore possible variation within and between the groups of the translation expert participants and thus to avoid treating all groups as homogenous.. This follows the step model of inductive category development made

by Mayring (2000). Fig. 3.3 below shows the steps taken in approaching the data sources.

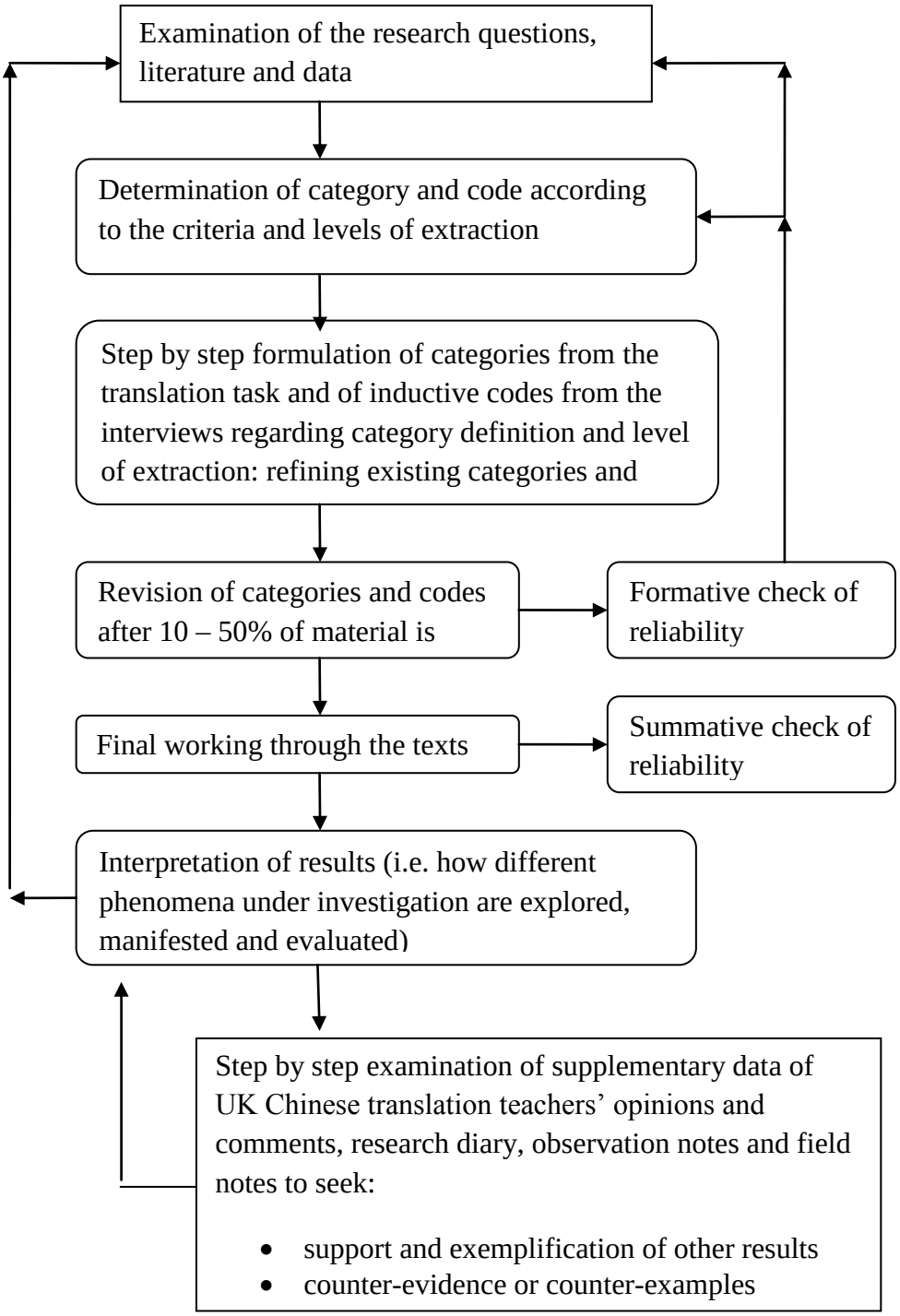


Fig. 3.3: Step model of inductive category adapted from Mayring 2000

As shown in Fig. 3.3, the first and foremost step for me to deal with the coding is to closely look at the data, research questions and literature including documents. This provides a start point for the determination of the orientation and focus of investigation. For instance, in my actual coding, I chose to consider the issue of 'translation theories' as it refers to the questions, and quite a large part of the other data such as students' performance in the task, interviews, documents and surveys related to this category.

Then the criteria of codes and categories need to be set. Taking the example of the issue of 'translation theories', which appeared in the data of the translation task, interviews, documents and surveys, in order to analyse this consistently, two criteria are covered in determining which parts in the data should be considered and therefore categorized respectively as 'Use of translation theories' in the task, 'Perceptions of theoretical concepts' in the interviews and 'Content of translation theory' in the course syllabus. In addition, surveys on translation theory from some UK teachers and reflections on the findings from my colleagues were intended to pay attention to the issue of 'translation theories' in translation teaching. The first criterion, stated in Section 3.9.2, emerged and was synthesized in the task performed by the participants. The second straightforward one was what was stated and admitted by the participants as strategies or theories. In addition, theoretical elements which appear in course syllabus or surveys are counted. Further details for the criteria and categories will be seen in the next section.

Following the criteria, inductive codes and categories were developed step by step and formed by examining the data. Section 11 will provide the information of how

codes and categories are formed, with examples. When a substantial part (10-50%) of the coding for the material was done, a formative check of reliability was used to refer back to the research questions, literature and data itself. After that the coding was finalized through the whole texts. A summative check of reliability was carried out. These two checks ascertain the trustworthiness of the codes and categories which are carefully established and revised in the process of analysis. The main categories are eventually formed, organized and presented. The following section deals with examples of how the codes and categories were actually developed from the data.

3.11 Examples of handling the data types

The following examples demonstrate how the core data types were dealt in extracting categories and theme codes. As shown in Mayring's model (2000), categories and codes can be developed in two ways. They can be developed directly with the help of existing documents and academic literature. As Braun and Clarke (2006) put it, this is driven by the researcher's conceptual or analytic theory in the area. Otherwise they can be derived inductively from the data, where the data are coded not necessarily to fit into a pre-existing coding system or the researcher's analytic interest (ibid.). Therefore, for each core data type (see Section 3.7), namely translation task, interviews and documents, a sample is chosen and general steps in data processing and analysis will be presented. Besides, the other supplementary data, that is, survey on opinions of translation theory in teaching from UK teachers and reflections of findings from some of colleagues will also presented as preliminary data. They will be used in the evaluation and interpretation of data analysis.

Example 1: Translation task – students' translation performance

Appendix 1 presents with the details of the participants' performance in the translation task and handling the 24 translated texts and developing categories. To explain how the categories of translation unit solutions were generated from the script protocols in assessing the participants' translation tasks, an analysis of a translated text from a participant Andrew, coded as 'C1-3' is presented in Appendix 7. Each sentence of the source passage including the title are boldfaced and numbered from ST1 (source text 1) to ST8 (source text 8). All source text units are numbered sequentially in the script protocols. An explanation goes after the display of the source sentence, its target sentence and back translation. In this case, the back translation relevant to its target sentence is neither grammatical nor does it have the correct case, number and tense, because these expressions in Chinese are markedly different. The use of back translation is aimed to better understand the target units. An acceptable unit is indicated with a sign '+', and an unacceptable or problematic unit is with a sign '-' (see the detailed explanation in Appendix 7). The translated text made by Andrew and the extraction of categories and theme codes from his task are displayed in the following.

Subject code: C1-3

Translated text:

手册指南

---- 如何从座到站

1、 用你的臀部向前慢慢地移动. 用手沿着扶手椅推动.
2、 借椅子扶手或者椅座帮助站起来.
3、 保证双脚的姿势与下肢一直. 站起来之后靠双脚站稳.
4、 当你的臀部移到椅前时，使用韵律与时间记数来帮助你从椅子上

站立：平衡 – 站稳 – 站立.

5、 当你前后摇动时，只需向前倾.
6、 一旦站起，把你的双臂放在上面.
7、 尽管在完成这个运动的同时，一直保持头部向前。

Script protocol:

Source text code	No	Items	Unit solutions	
ST1	1	Manual	Word	(+)
	2	Handling	Word	(-)
	3	Guideline	Word	(+)
	4	From Sit to Stand	Phrase	(-)
ST2	5	shuffle forward	Phrase	(+)
	6	Bottom	Word	(+)
	7	through using your hands	Phrase	(-)
	8	Pull	Word	(+)
	9	along the chair arms	Phrase	(+)
	10	this can help	Syntactic	(-)
ST3	11	the base of the chair	Phrase	(+)
	12	push ... up	Phrase	(-)
ST4	13	Feet	Word	(+)
	14	in line with	Phrase	(+)
	15	Hip	Word	(-)
	16	stay steady	Phrase	(-)
	17	once standing	Syntactic	(-)
	18	on your feet	Phrase	(-)
ST5	19	RHYTHM AND TIMING	Word	(-)
	20	Once ... STAND.	Syntactic	(-)
ST6	21	do the rocking	Phrase	(-)
	22	Forward	Word	(+)
	23	start ... finish i.e. forward.	Syntactic	(-)
ST7	24	Frame	Word	(-)
ST8	25	Whilst	Word	(-)
	26	Always	Word	(-)
	27	lead with your HEAD	Phrase	(-)
Text		Unacceptable		

Data analysis summary

Translation unit	*Total*
Word	12
Phrase	11
Syntactic	4
Text	Unaccepted

Translation errors	*Total*
Word	6
Phrase	7
Syntactic	4
Text	Unaccepted

Global evaluation		
Rater A	Rater B	Average
1.8	1.8	1.8

Translation theories and strategies used					
T1	**T2**	**T3**	**T4**	**T5**	**T6**
1	0	1	0	0	0

Note: T1 = linguistical/grammatical; T2 = lexical; T3 = syntactic; T4 = textual
T5 = functional; T6 = social-cultural;
0 = No; 1= Yes

As exemplified above, all the other students' performances in the translation task were dealt with the similar procedure (see Appendix 1). The nuance is that some word-level and phrase-level issues demonstrated in some scripts were vague. For example, some students considered the expression of 'on your frame' as a prepositional phrase, but some others translated it word by word. No matter which way they dealt it, I regard them as a 'micro' category of translation unit (see Section 3.9.2). Different categories developed from the translation task will be seen and discussed in Chapter 4 in detail.

<u>Example 2: Interviews with students – Perceptions for their translation course</u>

The data from the post-task focused group interviews with the participants from the three groups provided multifaceted information of understanding what the participants think of their studies in translation. Coding themes and subthemes is condensed from what the participants said. Five themes, with their accompanying respective subthemes, are chosen to be discussed according to the research questions. The summary of themes codes is presented in Chapter 5. Part of C1 group interview scripts with the first question is exemplified below. It shows how the themes are inductively extracted from the content. Then the categories of theme coded as 'Opinions on the translation task' from the three groups are summarized in Table 3.9. This detail will be explored in Section 5.1.

5.15pm	All the participants were seated.	Extraction of theme code
Assistant	How do you feel about the translation task? Is this translation task difficult for you?	
1 Zhao (C1-6)	It seems not difficult, eh, but I did feel that my translation was not smooth after I read it. I had little confidence in this translation. There were several words which I could not handle well.	Performance Reaction: negative
2 Fang (C1-3)	I feel the same. It seems that each sentence is simple. However, I couldn't translate them with confidence.	Ditto
3 Lei C1-4)	It is little helpful even if I looked up those difficult words in the dictionary. After I translated it, I doubt if I am a student learning translation. (**Notes show that she was observed to have tears in her eyes**. Fieldnotes_20080327)	Reaction: disappointed, uncertain
4 Xiao C1-1)	I feel that I could have translated the task better if I had had experience of working in nursing or some recovery hospital. I am not quite sure of how to translate those words written in capital letters.	Reaction: negative Background Performance
5 Hai C1-5)	I wondered where I should start when I had the task. It seems to me that each English sentence has a few difficult words. I couldn't understand the background. Some words have several meanings. It was difficult for me to choose the appropriate meaning. I was very hesitant and anxious.	Uncertain, performance, the problems of the ST
6 Zhao C1-6)	What's more, I feel that my translated text seemed not to have the flair of Chinese. When I read it, I doubted if the translation came from me. I can't believe it. I feel the problem but I wonder how to overcome the problem that my translation is not readable; at least I can't accept it myself.	Problem in translating, performance, lack of confidence

Table 3.10: Student responses to the first interview question

Case code	Comments on the translation task	Reactions to the translation task	Understanding of the translation task	Attitude to translation theory
C1	- seems easy - long sentences - specialist English - some problematic words	- overall down to earth - practical - enthusiastic - positive in a way	- can't understand or confuse some concepts such as brief, translation strategy, translation problems	- necessary - important - practical -prefer pragmatic to pure translation theory
C2	- easy to read but difficult to translate - feel some sentences too long	- overall pessimistic - disappointed - have no	- feel it's difficult - busy to find out meanings of individual words	- necessary - important

	- specialist - can't grasp some words	confidence	- pay little attention to text as a whole - not know the word 'brief'	
UK3	- informal English - not good English - specialist	- positive	- down to earth practice -pay attention to social communication	- important - positive - necessary

<u>Example 3: Interviews with Chinese teachers – opinions on translation theory</u>

This example shows how some C2 teachers think about translation theory in teaching when I asked the following questions. The words bolded display different opinions for teaching translation theory. The example below gives a glimpse of how they think of translation and deal with it in teaching.

R:	Then could you tell me what theoretical contents you teach to the students? How do you assess this course? i.e., in what methods do you test your students after they have this course? Which courses does this connect with?	
Ch	We have our textbooks stipulated each term. We teach usually **following the textbooks**. **There are allocated exercises.**	C2teacher_tramslation textbooks
R:	What kind of translation theories are there in these textbooks? (Yang passed a textbook to the researcher)	
He	Translation skills, strategy, **Yan Fu's translation criteria**, Nida …	C2teacher_Chinese translation tradition
Mao	Some teachers also made **supplementary materials to the theoretical elements and translation exercises** when necessary, or they edit or make up part of them for the students …(see Zeng's reflection)	C2teacher_supplementary material
He	I demand the students to study by themselves and require them to make notes in class. The reason is that I often extend the theories I talk about, **e.g., Herman, Toury. Televes**. There are the central areas for the examination. I ask the students to **write an essay about analysing theories in the final examination**.	C2teacher_Wertern thoughts C2teacher_assessment
Yu	I specialise at teaching translation from Chinese into English. So actually **this requires higher translation skills and strategies.** I ask students to do translation exercises as much as they can. You know the saying that **'Practice makes perfect'.** The final examination focuses on translation from Chinese into English.	C2teacher-Translation theory is not important

Zh	Translation theory has developed quickly. We had **translation theory in Buddhist scriptures, Yan Fu, Fu Lei etc., Lu Xun**. Now we have Western theory like Translation Studies. **Sometimes we don't know how to follow this development**. When I prepare the lectures, I feel very limited. If only there were some textbooks of translation theories. That would make the preparation easier. …	C2teacher_Chinese translation tradition C2teacher_dillemas

(TS: see the notebook of the originals, Page 18-19)

Example 4: Documents – Theoretical content of course syllabus

The collected documents relevant to this study are various (see Table 3.8). I choose a course syllabus of Translation Theory as an example to show which aspects I am concerned with. Since some samples of course syllabuses are attached in the appendices, the following items or topics are the key points for the content analysis. These points are detailed in Chapter 6.

- Course objective
- Theoretical content
- Pedagogic method
- Assessment method

Example 5: British's teacher's opinion

An example of a British expert on translation theory has been given in Section 3.5.3.6. She emphasizes the importance of translation theory. She says:

> Yes, I do think knowledge of theory is important.
> To talk about translation with no knowledge of theory
> would be like being a geographer but not knowing
> whether the world is round or flat, and why people
> have thought different things at different times.

This point is opposite to that of a C2 teacher, which I highlight in yellow in Example 3. Such counter examples will be explored more in Chapter 7.

Example 5: Reflections on findings

The reflections on the main findings from my colleagues indicate that they have a real concern for my study. The thoughts and ideas given in their submissions provide a valuable contribution to this research. Here I display comments from two colleagues who comment on the result of 'They did not know the translation brief very well'. Xiong is the only one who contributes her reflections in English. Though she did not give a direct answer, she displayed her thought clearly. However, Fanyu answered explicitly. Regarding the concept of 'Translation brief', both these participants of C1 and C2 were concerned in their interviews. This will be followed up also in the discussions of Chapter 8.

Name	**Comments on the findings**
Xiong	1. 他们不太了解什么是'任务简介' They did not know the 'translation brief' very well. 你的看法和评论： Your comments: Based on the program, students who have strong initiative and potential in translation and interpreting can get access to professional study in schools that are allowed to enrol candidates. In colleges and universities of China, for quite a long time students have been taught translation before they know what translation is and how they are supposed to do translating. Translation theories were not taken into consideration in teaching since teachers believed that theories couldn't give a rewarding guide to the practice, and translation strategies proved to be futile in most cases. Translation is a bilingual and bicultural transformation, in which a perfect command of two languages and two cultures are urgently needed, but most of our students are not conscious of them when they do translation, which gives rise to the misconception that the job of translating can be fulfilled if only one has acquainted the skills or knowledge of a foreign language. In the class of C-E translation, say literary translation, our students pay no attention to the author's style, the textual typology and the cultural elements. What they do care about are avoidance of grammatical mistakes, and the accuracy of vocabulary. "Translationese" is featured typically in their translations. Perhaps the reason(s) stems from the students' language competence, which can pave the way for good translations. But most importantly, translation teaching is still incorporated into traditional language teaching in a great number of schools' syllabi, especially those of polytechnic schools. The reform of teaching methods merits our profound rethinking.
Fanyu	2. 他们不太了解什么是 '任务简介' They did not know the 'translation brief' very well. 你的看法和评论： Your comments: 是的，我也不十分清楚。 (Translated: Indeed, I myself don't know it clearly).

3.12 Summary

Chapter 3 has demonstrated my research rationale and choice of approach for this qualitative multiple case study, which has been pre-determined in three cases of postgraduate programmes of teaching translation in China and the UK. Directed by the research aim and questions, for an in-depth understanding of the construction of reality and its pluralities in context I have provided multiple data collected from the triangulated methods composed of translation task, interviews and documents relevant to translation teaching, along with the additional data from the opinion survey of British teachers, extra documents offered by them and other Chinese teachers and the reflections on the findings from some Chinese teachers. The purpose of each dataset has been stated to provide different facets for looking at the world in which how the knowledge of translation students was constructed. Because I believe that translation and teaching translation are not a matter of rendering words and meanings between different language systems, the multiple data resources used in this study inevitably makes it sense to explore and understand the nature of the knowledge construction socio-culturally. By examining what is investigated here and in the field, as a researcher I assume that the interpretations can be reconstructed based on interpreting the students' performance in the translation task, the perceptions from both students and teachers and the analysis of documents of translation programmes referred to. Hence, Chapter 4 will contribute to the analysis and discussion of the data from the translation task in that the participants' performance in the task and translation unit solutions can be examined. Chapter 5 will present the analysis and discussion of post-task focused interviews with the students of the three groups, in particular focusing on participants' voice, stance and value through individual or group's opinions. Combining the data from

the translation task and interviews, the analysis of documents relevant to the three programmes in which the students located respectively will be detailed in Chapter 6. Complementary data for Chapter 7 will further consolidate the discussion of the findings. There is no doubt that the comments, insights or conclusions from the exploration of the results are tentative and provisional, though they might be established well by the research methods applied in this research, because of the limited nature of the multiple case study.

Chapter 4 Findings and discussion: translation task

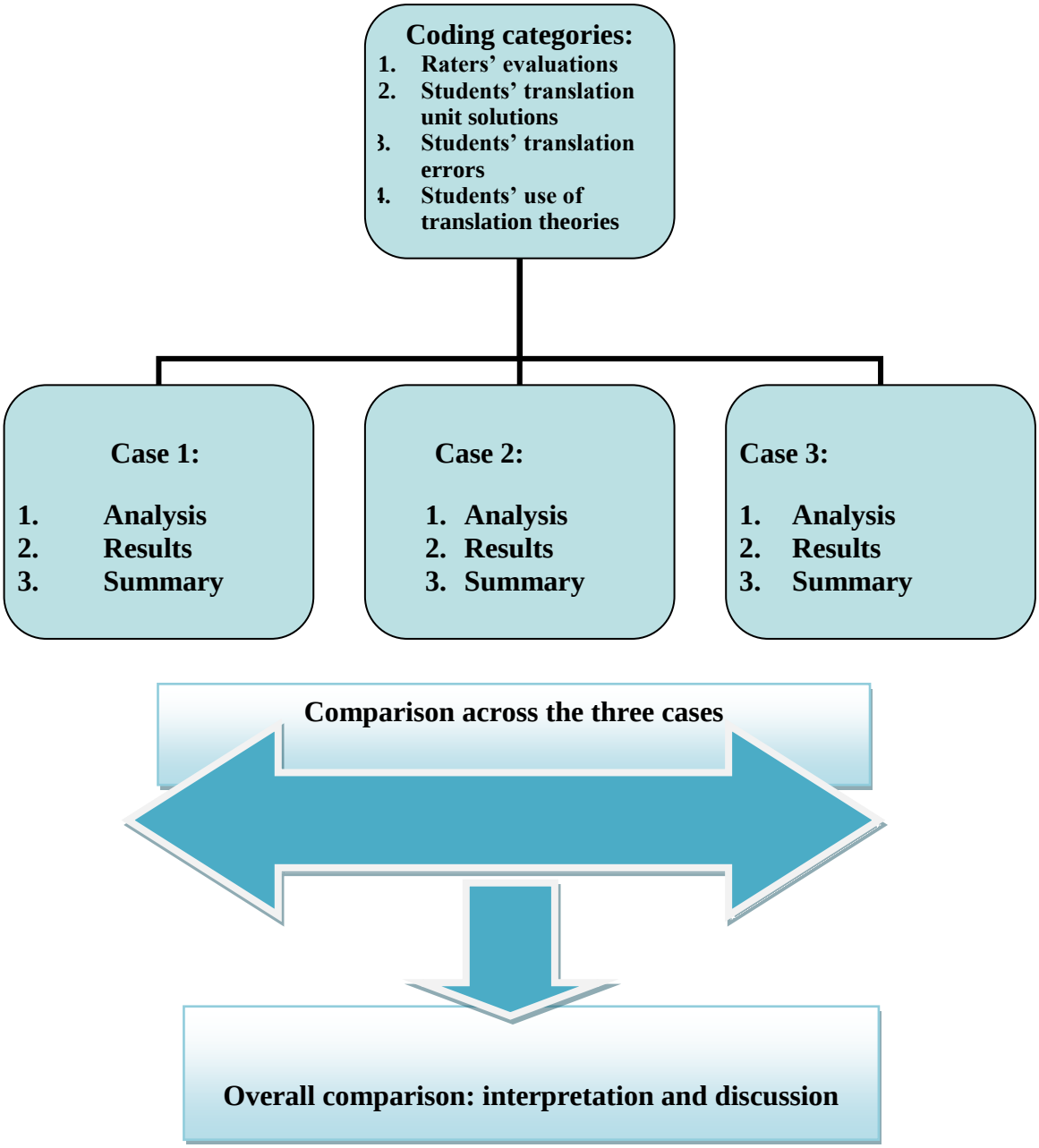


Fig. 4.1 Chart showing the organization of reporting the case analyses for the translation task

This chapter reports the analysis of the participants' performance in the translation task. Code categories (shown in Section 3.11) come from the data analysis summary

of each translation task made by the 24 participants (see full information in Appendix 1). Each code category will be analysed and discussed from C1 to C2 and UK3 (see Fig. 4.1). This reporting strategy can display differences and establish a clear examination among the three cases. Four code categories will be employed. The first category shows the results of the evaluation of the two raters of the 24 translated texts. The second one presents the translation unit solutions which the participants used in the task. The third displays the translation errors they made. The last category shows participants' choice of the use of translation theories. Finally this chapter gives an overall interpretation and discussion of the translation task.

4.1 Global evaluation by two raters

All the 24 translated texts were evaluated by two raters according to the Five-point Scale of Global Quality Assessment of Translation (see Section 3.9.1). The double marks for each participant are shown at the end of each source unit assessed in the script protocols (see Appendix 1; see also Example 1 in Section 3.11).

According to Rater A, students in UK3 had the highest average global evaluation points of 3.28; this was followed by students from C1, with the second average global evaluation points of 1.74 (see Table 4.1 below). Students in C2 had the lowest global evaluation points of 1.48. Thus Rater A's evaluations between students from the two groups C1 and C2 were approximately similar. Whereas, according to Rater B, students in UK3 also had the highest average global evaluation points of 3.44; this was followed by students from C1, with the second average global evaluation points of 1.64. Students in C2 still had the lowest global

evaluation points of 1.48. The global evaluation points between students from the two groups C1 and C2 given by Rater B also showed that groups C1 and C2 performed similarly. Although the average global evaluation points of students from each group from Rater B were slightly higher than those rated by Rater A, the examination among the three groups in global evaluation was similar between the two raters and retained the same rank order between the groups. From this evaluation, the participants from the two Chinese groups did not perform very well, compared to those of UK3.

Table 4.1: Global evaluation on the three groups by different raters

Groups	Rater A	Rater B
C1	1.74	1.84
C2	1.48	1.64
UK3	3.28	3.44

4.2 Categories of translation unit solutions

Translation unit solutions classified in this research included categories of word, phrase, syntax and text units (see Section 3.9.2 and 3.11). Assessing the translated texts made by each group, I found that each student in UK3 referred to the text unit while none from other groups did. This finding between UK3 and other groups was remarkable, even though this group as a whole had the highest global evaluation. Also because the outcome for each student was marked as ‘acceptable’ or ‘unacceptable’, only word, phrase and syntax units can be counted to tabulate the results in following sections respectively (see Table 4.2). Some differences in the use of translation unit solutions between groups can be recognised in Table 4.2. The results shown indicate how students from different groups used different strategies

in translating those sentences. These strategies will be explored, exemplified and analysed further in the following sections.

Table 4.2: Translation unit solutions used among the three groups

Groups	**Translation Unit solutions**		
	Word	Phrase	Syntax
C1	10.88	11.63	4.75
C2	18.75	7.38	3.50
UK3	6.00	5.38	6.50

4.2.1 Word unit solutions

As shown in Table 4.2, on average, students in C1 used 10.88 word unit solutions. The highest number of word unit solution was 14, which was made by C1-2. She rendered those words which she could not identify in phrase unit solutions by literal or word-for-word translation. For example, she tried to translate literally the English title ‘Manual Handling Guidelines --- from Sit to Stand Transfer’. Its back translation shows that the translated title she rendered resembled ‘From Seat to Standing --- Handbook Instruction’. In this translated title, some words like ‘Manual’, ‘Handling’ and ‘Transfer’ were omitted. The protocols in this group show that the lowest number of word unit solutions was 4, which was made by C1-8. As exemplified in his protocol, he approached the words ‘Ensure’, ‘to pull’, ‘TIMING’ and ‘frame’ in the source text only by word unit solution. Seven out of the eight students used word unit solutions above 10 times. Their protocols show that they used word unit solutions almost as many times as phrase units. Most students from C1 had in common their use of literal translation and word omission when they felt this was necessary. For example, words were either omitted or merged into phrase unit solutions like ‘transfer’ in the English title, ‘this can help’

and ‘arms’ in the sentence ‘Shuffle forward using your bottom, this can help through using your hands to pull along the chair arms’, and ‘feet’ and ‘on your feet’ in the sentence ‘Ensure that your feet are in line with your hip, to help you stay steady on your feet once standing’.

Students in C2 obviously were addicted to the use of word unit solutions in the translation task, as a preferred strategy. Table 4.2 shows that on average the students of C2 used 18.75 word units as their translation solutions. Three of them, according to their translated texts, used above 21 such solutions. Two other students had 18 word unit solutions. The other three students still used them over 11 times. The peak for the use of word unit solutions was 29, in the rendition made by C2-5. The lowest was 11 times, made by C2-8. Strikingly, most of the sentences in the 131-word English text were rendered literally. Analysis showed that possible equivalents for individual words could be found in each translated sentence. In the on-site observations made during the translation task I noted how the students of C2 appeared to hesitate, frown and whisper to one another. They frequently looked in the dictionaries at hand lest they missed a single word in each sentence. For example, the sentence ‘Shuffle forward using your bottom, this can help through using your hands to pull along the chair arms’ comprised 15 words apart from the auxiliary word ‘can’ and a sign of an infinitive verb ‘to’. The rendition of this sentence made by C2-2 showed that this student translated fully half of the sentence by using word unit solutions. She tried to find equivalents for the words she identified. Similar examples were found in C2-1, C2-3, C2-4 and C2-7. The translated texts made by C2 students seemed to give an impression that understanding each word in a source text was necessary. However, this does not

mean they should be rendered individually. On the contrary, the obsessive use of word units as translation solutions in the C2 group made their translations vague, inelegant and uncommunicative.

Judging from the evaluated scripts, UK3 had least use of word units as translation solutions. Students from UK3 used 6.00 word unit solutions. UK3-1 had the most word unit solutions, using 11 of these in her translated text. Interestingly, the way that she employed word unit solutions was very similar to that of three other students, C1-1, C1-4 and C2-8. They all used 11 word unit solutions in their renditions. Three students of UK3 group used this strategy 5 times and one student 8 times. UK3-7 and UK3-8 respectively had the lowest frequency of using word units as translation solutions. UK3-7 only rendered the words 'to pull' in the sentence 'Shuffle forward using your bottom, this can help through using your hands to pull along the chair arms' and 'hip' in the sentence 'Ensure that your feet are in line with your hip, to help you stay steady on your feet once standing' under word unit solutions. She employed more words in phrases or word strings. UK3-8 translated the words 'Manual' in the English title and 'STEADY' in 'your bottom is at the front of the chair use RHYTHM AND TIMING to help you stand up from the chair – READY – STEADY – STAND' with word unit solutions. He also merged many words into word strings or syntactic groups.

The differences for the use of word unit solutions between groups and individual students, in conjunction with the overall rating, indicate that using fewer word units as translation solutions does not mean being able to produce a better translation. Theoretically, using less literal translation means more integration of individual

words into phrases or word strings so that the translation can appear coherent syntactically. These renditions may decrease isolated equivalence and stiffness in transfer.

4.2.2 Phrase unit solutions

Table 4.2 also shows that the use of phrase units as translation solutions varied between the three groups. The highest mean score for phrase unit solutions is in the group C1, which is 11.63. Each student from this group used this solution over 10 times. The most times for using it was 14, which was made by C1-2. This student had the most use of word unit solutions (see Section 4.2.2). Her translated text showed that she tried to separate each source sentence of the 131-word English text into meaning groups, like verbal phrases, noun strings and prepositional phrases. For example, she divided the source sentence into 5 meaning chunks like //Shuffle forward //using your bottom//, //this can help //through //using your hands// to pull //along the chair arms//. Each chunk was displayed as a meaning group. 10 uses of phrase unit solutions were the least, made by C1-1 and C1-2 respectively. Though their ways of chunking each source sentence differed, they had both preferred finding phrases and meaning groups as the unit of translation. This phenomenon was quite obvious among the other students in this group.

The students of C2 ranked second to those of C1 in using phrase units as translation solutions with the mean of 7.38. Compared to the use of word unit solutions, the C2 group employed fewer phrase unit solutions. Except C2-8 who had the most, 11 times, as for word units, the others used this solution below 9 times. Her submitted work for the translation task indicated that she paid attention to possible choices of

word and phrase units as her translation solutions. The other three students employed 8 phrase units. They also had a higher score for using word units as translation solutions. The least use of this strategy was 4 times, in the case of the other two female students, C2-2 and C2-7 respectively. Their protocols indicate that both of them had problems in identifying phrases. C2-2 broke down the meaning groups and phrases like ‘at the front of ’, ‘to help you to stand’ and ‘on your frame’ into independent words: she rendered them to match each to its own equivalents. On the whole, the students in C2 preferred using word and phrase units more than the other two groups.

In contrast to the C1 and C2students, the UK3 students used the least number of phrase units as translation solutions, a mean of 5.38. Five out of the eight students in this group used them 5 times or less. UK3-1 used it 11 times: she had the highest use of phrase unit solutions among the eight students in UK3. Her protocol shows that she almost fixed the meaning groups and phrases and translated them. Examples can be seen in her renditions of ‘shuffle forward’, ‘push ... up’, ‘on your feet’ and ‘do the rocking’. The lowest score was made by UK3-8 who used only 1 phrase unit as a translation solution: her protocol demonstrates that she had the least word units and phrase unit solutions. The students in UK3, though they used fewer phrase unit solutions, were better at handling phrase unit solutions properly in their translations.

4.2.3 Syntax unit solutions

As shown in Table 4.2, on average, students in C1 used 4.75 syntax unit solutions. The highest use of this strategy among the eight students was 7 times, made by C1-

8. His protocol indicates that he tried to identify suprasentential sequences from the 131-word English text. For example, he tried to translate phrases like ‘once standing’ in the sentence ‘Ensure that your feet are in line with your hip, to help you stay steady on your feet once standing’, ‘To help you to stand’ in the sentence ‘To help you to stand use the arms or the base of the chair to help you push yourself up’ and ‘Whilst completing this movement’ in the sentence ‘Whilst completing this movement, always lead with your HEAD’ respectively into their own separated Chinese sentences. C1-5 used 6 syntax unit solutions, second to C1-8: her protocol displays that she dealt with those source sentences she could handle, but transferred those source sentences in which she had less confidence into word or phrase units. For example, she separated the source sentence ‘Ensure that your feet are in line with your hip, to help you stay steady on your feet once standing’ into 4 word units and 3 phrase units. C1-2 and C1-4 used 5 syntax unit solutions. C1-2 had the same record of 14 for the use of word and phrase unit solutions. Three students used 4 syntax units as translation solutions: both C1-1 and C1-4 had the same scores of 11 word unit solutions and 10 phrase unit solutions. The least use of syntax units as translation solutions was 3, by C1-6. The protocols of C1 students showed that these students tried to pay attention to suprasentantial issues when they dealt with each source sentence. In fact, the analysis revealed that they tended to put their emphasis on both word and phrase unit solutions.

Compared to the two groups C1 and UK3, students in C2 used the least syntax unit solutions. The mean score for the use of syntax unit solutions employed by the eight students in this group was 3.50 (Table 4.2). The protocols in this C2 group showed that three students used 5, which was the highest use of syntax unit solutions in this

group. Their protocols showed common ways of dealing with some of the source sentences: a tendency to replace sentences with excessive use of word units. Take the source sentence ‘Ensure that your feet are in line with your hip, to help you stay steady on your feet once standing’ for example. This source sentence was an imperative sentence with an infinitive verbal phrase. It was composed of 18 words except some functional words like a sign of an infinitive verb ‘to’ and a proceeding conjunctive word ‘that’. C2-2 broke this source sentence into 11 single word units, a phrase unit and a syntax unit in transfer. This was exemplified by the back translation of her translation as ‘You// should make sure// if / both your feet// are kept //in the same line with// you hip/. Once you stand up, this //may keep //you //standing// more steady//.’ As shown in the protocol data of C2 for the use of syntax unit solutions, one student used 4 and two used 3. Another student who also had the same number of 11 times for the use of word and phrase unit solutions used 2. The least use of syntax unit solutions was 1, produced by C2-5. He also made the highest number, 29, of word unit solutions.

The students in UK3, however, had the most use of syntax units as translation solutions. On average, the eight students used 6.5 syntax unit solutions (see Table 4.2). Their protocol data also shows that six of them used this strategy 7 times. They used syntax units as translation solutions more than the two groups from China. One UK3 student used it 6 times. C2-8 used it 4 times: she had the least use of syntax unit solutions. Her protocol data indicates that she had the same number - 11 times - for the use of word and phrase unit solutions. These 7 uses of syntax unit solutions by the six students show that most of the students of UK3 tended to approach

translation with a suprasentential and sequential view beyond the limitation of word and phrase unit solutions.

4.2.4 Text unit solutions

Unlike the other translation unit solutions, text unit solutions indicated in Section 3.9.2 cannot be quantified. The raters of the translation task assessed the outcome of each student for the use of text unit solutions by means of marking it 'acceptable' or 'unacceptable'. All the outcomes the students gained from the evaluation were demonstrated in the protocols (see Appendix 1). The data protocols show that none of the students from the C1 and C2 groups gave appropriate consideration to textual level issues. Their outcomes for the use of text unit solutions universally failed to meet the criteria for acceptability. However, students from UK3 each met the criteria of acceptability for using text units as translation solutions.

4.2.5 Summary

Section 4.2 has provided analysed information to show the choice of translation strategies or solutions the students of the three groups made. It has also indicated some features of how they used translation unit solutions through a number of examples accompanying and supporting the analysis of each category among the three cases. First, the results have shown that the options to choose translation unit solutions from UK3 participants were different in each category from either of C1 and C2. Second, the participants from C1 and C2 took more frequent options of word and phrase unit solutions. Generally speaking, C1 and C2 groups used more micro-level approaches to translation - much more than UK3. Third, individual units (in Table 4.2) show that the C2 participants used more word units as

translation solutions than the other groups; whereas C1 participants used more word units as translation solutions than those in UK3. However, the UK3 participants used more syntax unit solutions than those of the C1 and C2 respectively. The C2 participants used fewer syntax unit solutions than the other two groups

.

4.3 Translation errors

The data of translation unit errors were collected from the evaluation of the translated texts which the participants made (Appendix 1). The translation errors were itemised by word, phrase, syntax and text level errors in the category of translation unit errors. As defined (in Section 3.9.2), a translation error can be a failure to carry out the instructions implied in the translation brief or an inadequate solution to a translation problem, such errors appear to be any linguistic mistake, wrong rendering or an inadequate choice a translator makes. These translation errors were not exceptional in the 24 translated texts. They were analysed and enumerated (in Table 4.3). However, 'macro' errors embodied in form, register, tone or text may not be counted: these cannot be demonstrated in tables but are stated in qualitative description separately (in Section 4.3.5). So each analysed category of translation errors made by the students of the three cases will be presented in the following sections.

Table 4.3: Translation errors made among the three groups

Groups	**Translation Errors**		
	Word	Phrasal	Syntactical
C1	6.63	6.13	3.63
C2	11.13	2.75	2.00
UK3	3.00	0.63	0.63

4.3.1 Word-level errors

As shown in Table 4.2, the numbers of word-level errors made by participants from the three groups were different. On average, students in C1 had 6.63 word-level errors. C1-4 made the most word-level errors; he used 11 word unit solutions, but made 10 word-level errors. Taking some of the word errors he made in his translation as examples, in the second sentence of 'Shuffle forward using your bottom, this can help through using your hands to pull along the chair arms', he first misunderstood the word 'bottom' and mistranslated it into '*anniu* 按钮', which literally means 'button' in English. Then he put the word string 'shuffle forward' into '*huadong* 滑动', which is translated back as 'glide'. He did not translate the preposition 'through' but omitted it. In the fourth sentence of 'Ensure that your feet are in line with your hip, to help you stay steady on your feet once standing', he carelessly translated 'your feet' into '*jiao* 脚', which means 'a foot' in Chinese, because this Chinese rendering gave a very vague meaning. He did not put its plural as clearly as its English counterpart. He put the word 'Ensure' into '*qieji* 切记', which literally means 'being sure to remember'. He misunderstood the word 'hip' as '*tunbu* 臀部', which literally means 'bottom'. He was probably unfamiliar with the word 'frame' in the sentence, 'Once you are standing, place your arms on your frame' since he put it as '*yijia* 椅架', which is literally translated back as 'chair frame'. In the last sentence of 'Whilst completing this movement, always lead with your HEAD', he changed the noun 'HEAD' into a non-verb string of 'doing the movement of head'. This rendering did not match either the sense or the function of its original meaning.

These word-level errors made by C1-4 were representative of those of the other C1 students. They all had problems dealing with ‘shuffle forward’, ‘TIMING’ in the sentence, ‘Once your bottom is at the front of the chair use RHYTHM AND TIMING to help you stand up from the chair – READY – STEADY – STAND’ and ‘frame’ in the sentence, ‘Once you are standing, place your arms on your frame’. Five students had inappropriate renderings of ‘shuffle forward’. Seven students did not understand the word ‘TIMING’ well and handled it very differently. For example, C1-1 and C1-6 tackled it by direct omission. C1-3 translated this word ‘TIMING’ into a Chinese phrase like ‘*shiyong shijian jishu* 使用时间计数’, which is literally translated back as ‘use time to count’. C1-4 translated it into ‘*shiyong kouhao jishi* 使用口号计时’, which is literally translated back as ‘use slogans to time’. C1-5 rendered it as ‘*an shijian* 按时间’, which means ‘according to the time’. C1-7 translated ‘TIMING’ into ‘*jishi yi* 记时仪’, which means a timing device. C1-8 rendered this word ‘TIMING’ into ‘*zhangwo hao shiji* 掌握好时机’, which is literally translated back as ‘control a good time’. As for the word ‘frame’, none of the C1 students dealt with it adequately. In a word, the C1 students made word errors when they could not understand well.

Section 4.2.1 showed that the students in C2 had used the most word unit solutions. Table 4.3 also shows that C2 students made the most word errors. On average they had 11.13 word errors, compared to groups C1 and UK3. Tracking the source units assessed in the script protocols, C2-3 and C2-5, who employed the most word unit solutions, also made the most word errors – 16 word errors in 23 word units, and 15 word errors in 29 word units respectively. Though the other six C2 students did not make as many word errors as C2-3 and C2-5, they commonly had problems in using

word units as translation solutions from three aspects. First, excessive omission caused gaps in their translations. For example, when C2-2 translated the sentence ‘this can help through using your hands to pull along the chair arms’; she omitted ‘this can help through’. The translated sentence was ‘*shuangshou wojin yizi de fushou* 双手握紧椅子扶手’. Its back translation literally means ‘both hands hold the chair arms tightly’. Obviously this translation is completely different from its sense in English. Second, misunderstanding some English words caused mistranslation and unnecessary additions. This was exemplified by C2-4 when he translated the sentence, ‘place your arms on your frame’. Judging from his submitted words, he wrote different meanings beside the word from his dictionary. He could not choose or find an appropriate word because he did not know what ‘frame’ really meant in this context. His translation for this sentence was ‘*gebo likai tiwai de renhe zhichengdian* 胳膊离开体外的任何支撑点’: this was literally translated back as ‘The arm leaves out of any supporting point of the body.’ Not only was the meaning distorted but this was not a readable sentence. Third, omission and addition changed functional meanings. C2-6, C2-7 and C2-8 offered a good example for this point in handling the words ‘RHYTHM, TIMING, READY, STEADY AND STAND. C2-6 copied the English words of ‘rhythm’ and ‘timing’ in her translation, but she omitted translating ‘READY, STEADY AND STAND. C2-7 did not translate ‘RHYTHM AND TIMING’, but she added these words in Chinese ‘*keyi xinli monian* 可以心里默念’, which literally means ‘can meditate at heart’. C2-8 also omitted the words ‘RHYTHM AND TIMING’ in her translation, but she added these words in Chinese: ‘*an nian jiepai* 暗念节拍’, which is literally translated back as ‘murmur the beat silently in mind’. From these examples of word errors given, the C2 students appeared not to have a sound grasp of word unit

solutions even though their translation approaches were still limited mainly to the word level.

In terms of UK3, this group on average made 3 word errors, which indicated the least errors made (Table 4.3). Among the eight UK3 students, UK3-5, had the most word errors, making as many as 6. However, her protocol shows that she made these errors mainly through carelessness. For example, when she addressed the sentence 'Ensure that your feet are in line with your hip, to help you stay steady on your feet once standing', she carelessly translated the word 'Ensure' into '*yao* 要', which has different meanings in Chinese. It can be understood as 'need', 'desire' and 'want', but. it can also be used with a verb to express an action which will happen in future. She merged the meaning of the word 'stay' into the phrase of 'on your feet'. She translated 'stay steady on your feet' into '*zhanwen* 站稳', which is literally translated back as 'stand steady'. The word 'stay' which means 'remain' could not be found in her translation. Another problem in her rendering of the word 'Ensure' was that she decreased the imperative tone of its original sentence. Specifically speaking, UK3-1, UK3-3 and UK3-6 each made only 3 word errors; and UK3-4 and UK3-7 made only one word error each. For example, UK3-1, UK3-4 and UK3-6 had problems with the word 'frame' in the sentence, 'Once you are standing, place your arms on your frame'.UK3-1 translated it into '*jiazishang* 架子上', which is literally translated back as 'on rack' - obviously a wrong rendition. UK3-4 translated it into '*shoujiashang* 手架上', which literally means 'on hand frame' - a vague meaning. UK3-6 translated it into '*kuangjiashang* 框架上', which actually kept the same meaning as the English word 'frame'. In addition, expressions for parts of body like 'hip', 'arms' and 'bottom' were the problems for

UK3-3, UK3-6 and UK3-7. Despite this, students in UK3 could skilfully integrate word units into other translation solutions in order to avoid unnecessary word renderings.

4.3.2 Phrasal level errors

The analysis shows that C1 students used the most phrase unit solutions but also made the most phrasal level errors. On average they made 6.13 phrasal level errors (see Table 4.3). Five out the eight C1 students had more than 7 phrasal level errors. Among them, C1-6 made 9, which could be representative of the other C1 students. They could recognise phrase units or word strings, but could not render them adequately. This is exemplified by translating the sentence, 'Ensure that your feet are in line with your hip, to help you stay steady on your feet once standing'. C1-2, C1-6 and C1-8 could not translate the phrase 'in line with' well. They gave them respectively as '*baochi chuizhi* 保持垂直' (which literally means 'remain vertical'), '*zai yitiao zhixian shang* 在一条直线上' (literally, 'in a straight line'), and '*zai tongyi zhixian shang* 在同一直线上' (literally, 'in an identical straight line'). The three renderings could possibly be meaningful, but they were not adequate in context to convey the English expression of 'are in line with your hip'. The other problem was the phrase 'on your feet'. Four of them translated it differently.

On the other hand, the C2 students did not make many phrasal level errors. This was because they used the most word unit solutions and also made the most word errors. They used many fewer phrase unit solutions than C1. On average, the C2 students made 2.75 phrasal errors. C2-5, who used 29 word units and made 15 word errors, had 5 phrasal level errors - the most of all the students (see Table 4.3). His

phrase errors were centred on translating these phrases: ‘in line with’, ‘to help you stay steady’, ‘do the rocking’ and ‘start the way’. In translating the sentence ‘To help you to stand use the arms or the base of the chair to help you push yourself up’, C2-4 rendered the phrase ‘the base of the chair’ correctly. However, he carelessly typed a wrong Chinese word having the same spelling. He had a problem with the phrase ‘push ... up’: he rendered it: ‘*zhanli qilai* 站立起来’, which is literally translated back as ‘stand up’ - a wrong rendering. C2-3 and C2-7 had the same problem with the phrase ‘push ... up’ as C2-4 did. They translated it respectively into ‘stand’ and ‘support’. These problems with phrase unit solutions implied that students of C2 were not very good at distinguishing and using phrase unit solutions.

The UK3 students, however, used the least phrase unit solutions and also made the least phrasal level errors. On average they made less than one phrase unit error (the point of 0.63) (see Table 4.3). The evaluated protocols in UK3 indicate that six out of the eight UK3 students made no phrasal errors. Only UK3 and UK3-1 had phrase unit problems. For example, UK3-1 made 3, the most errors in UK3. Her first error was in rendering the title ‘**Manual Handling Guidelines --- from Sit to Stand Transfer**’. She translated ‘**Manual Handling Guidelines**’ into ‘*fuyi shiyong shouce zhinan* 扶椅使用手册指南’, which is literally translated back as ‘Handbook and Guideline to Use a Chair’. Obviously there were some unnecessary additions like ‘*fuyi* 扶椅 (Chair), *shouce* 手册 (Handbook) and *shiyong* 使用 (to Use). However, her rendering of the title can be accepted according to the context of her translated text. Her second error was the phrase ‘push ... up’. In the whole rendering of the sentence, ‘use the arms or the base of the chair to help you push yourself up’, actually she got an apparently acceptable lexical meaning to translate it into Chinese

- the problem was that this lexical meaning did not match its context. Her third error was choosing an incomplete equivalent to the phrase ‘do the rocking’: she translated it into ‘*zhanjiule* 站久了’, which literally means ‘stand longer’.

4.3.3 Sentence-level errors

C1 Students used more syntactical unit solutions than the C2 students, but less than the UK3 students. Table 4.3 shows that the C1 students made the most syntactical errors. On average, they made 3.63. C1-8 made 6 sentence-level errors, with more syntax errors than the other students. Four students -C1-1, C1-2, C1-5 and C1-6 - made 3 sentence-level errors respectively. C1-7 made 2 and had the least syntactical problems. The C1 students commonly had syntactic problems when they could easily recognise the structure of the source English sentence. For example, they were restrained by the structure of the source sentence ‘this can help ...’ so that they could not freely transfer it into Chinese. Six students had a problem with this and they tackled it very differently. For example, C1-1 translated it into ‘*ni keyi yongshou zhicheng fushou lai bangzhu ziji* 你可以用 ... 帮助自己’. This rendition was translated back as ‘You can help yourself by...’. C1-3, C1-4 and C1-7 omitted it and caused a distortion of its original meaning. C1-6 literally translated it into ‘*zhege keyi bangzu* 这个可以帮助’, and followed the structure of the English sentence in his Chinese rendering, which made the translated sentence inelegant and uncommunicative. C1-8 dealt with it by sense translation. He translated it into ‘... *ze hui rongyi zuo zhege dongzuo* ... 则会容易做这个动作’, which was back translated as ‘would be easier to do this movement’. Similar problems happened in translating ‘once standing’ and ‘start the way you need to finish i.e. forward’.

Compared to C1, C2 students did not make many sentence-level errors. One of the reasons was that they used many word unit solutions. However, though the C2 students used the least syntactical unit solutions, they were second to the C1 students in making sentence-level errors. On average they made 2.00 syntax errors (see Table 4.3). C2-1 used 4 syntax unit solutions but used them all wrongly. C2-2, C2-4 and C2-7 each made 3 sentence-level errors. These three students had very similar problems to those of the four students in C1 who each made 3 syntax errors. C2-3 made 1error and C2-6 made 2 errors out of 3 syntax unit solutions they each used. C2-5 and C2-8 made zero syntax errors while C2-5 used one and C2-8 used 2 syntax unit solutions. In viewing the C2 protocols, C2 participants especially had difficulty identifying the word classes and functions of some conjunctive words like 'once', 'when' and 'whilst' in the English text. Take C2-1 for example: she translated 'once standing' into '*zhanli hou* 你站立后', which was literally translated back as 'After you stood up'. The meaning and time expressed by the past tense were not adequate. She put 'Once' in the sentences of 'Once your bottom is at the front of the chair' and 'Once you are standing' into '*ruguo* 如果', which means 'if'. She translated 'Whilst' into 'After that' when she translated the time adverbial clause 'Whilst completing this movement'. These renderings were not accurate for the source words. These results show that the C2 students were very weak at employing syntax unit solutions.

In the case of UK3, the students made the least sentence-level errors though they employed the most syntax unit solutions. On average they made 0.63 syntactical errors (see Table 4.3). Five of the eight students had a good understanding of the source sentences and made acceptable translated sentences, while some of them had

minor word or phrase errors. UK3-3 and UK3-4 each made one syntax error. UK3-1 made 3 syntax errors, having the most syntax errors in this group. The errors she made were embodied in how to give adequate renderings for some words in the syntactical structures like ‘this can help’, ‘once standing’ and ‘start the way you need to finish i.e. forward’. For example, she changed the affirmative tone of ‘this can help’ into a conditional sentence of supposition; she merged the meaning of ‘once standing’ into ‘on your feet’ and translated them into ‘*zhanwen* 站稳’, which literally means ‘stand firm’; she translated the word ‘forward’ into ‘*jiang shenzi xiangqian qing* 将身子向前倾’, which is literally translated back as ‘make your body leaning onward and forward’. Obviously she added more words which were not necessary. In sum, the UK3 students were more skilful at employing syntax unit solutions than the C1 and C2 groups.

4.3.4 Textual level errors

The outcome of the protocols shows that students from C1, C2 and UK3 reacted differently to the use of text unit solutions. None of the C1 and C2 students produced translated texts that met the criteria for acceptability. The students from C1 and C2 shared some common problems in making text errors. First, they ignored both translating the title of the English text and paying attention to punctuating or restructuring their translated texts. For example, three students of C1 and five students of C2 did not translate the title of the English text. Six C1 students and five C2 students changed the bullet layout of the source text into numbered form. It should not matter if the translated version is kept in the form of the source text or changed. However, it could cause an asymmetrical problem if the translator does not pay careful attention; and the translated version would not be accepted if the

translator changes it at will without consulting the client. Second, C1 and C2 students paid little attention to the punctuation of their translated texts: careless punctuation could be found in their translated texts. They habitually put an English full stop at the end of a Chinese sentence. This problem was obvious in the work of C2. C2-3 was a good case in point. Looking at her protocol, she used a mixture of punctuation, confusing English full stops and Chinese full stops. Third, most of the students of both groups could not express the register in their translated texts properly. Based on the on-site field notes, they wrestled between words and lines of the English text and pursued translating the words, phrases and sentences. It was not surprising to discover that 'you' or 'your' in the source text were literally translated. Fourth, they did not quite understand what the word 'brief' meant in the instruction for the translation task. This word 'brief' caused them confusion, and the field notes show that the students asked and chatted about the meaning of this word when doing their translation. Fifth, though the brief of the translation task defines the would-be users, seldom did these translators show concern for the possible community in which their translation would be used. Sixth, (see Section 3.4.1), the source text chosen for the translation task was informal English which needed adapting or improving if necessary; but few students in either of the two Chinese groups recognised this point.

Evidence showed that all the UK3 students produced translated texts which met the acceptability criteria. This does not mean they did not have problems in using text solutions. The point is that most of them had some idea of how to deal with their translation skilfully. For example, 'you' and 'your' in the source text appeared 16 times, most of the students were able to deal with these occurrences properly. They

did not have to translate them into each Chinese sentence. This was exemplified by the translated text made by UK3-1. His translated text shows that from the sentence 'Ensure that your feet are in line with your hip, to help you stay steady on your feet once standing', he translated 'you' only once in his whole text. He knew very well that in this linguistic context idiomatic written Chinese does not often use 'you'. In terms of keeping within the register, improvement or correction of the source text and observing the brief, the UK3 translated texts offered good examples.

4.3.5 Summary

Section 4.3 has substantially analysed the translation errors produced by the students of the three groups. The analyses and results have suggested that the translation errors in word, phrase and syntax units made by the participants of each group were differentiated. Differences are remarkable: errors in word unit revealed that students from C2 made far more errors than those of C1 and UK3, and C1 students made more errors than those in UK3. For errors in phrase units, C1 students made very more errors than those in C2 and UK3, and C2 students made more errors than those in UK3. For errors in syntax translation, C1 students made considerably more errors than those in C2 and UK3, and C2 students made more errors than those in UK3. Obviously, UK3 students made the least errors in each translation unit. This may suggest again that C1 and C2 groups used more micro-level translation units but also made more errors in this respect than the UK3 group.

4.4 Use of translation theory

The data on the use of translation theory were provided by the written submissions each of the participants offered in the third part of the translation task (see

Appendix 4). A box of '*Translation theories and strategies used*' was presented in the data analysis summary on each script protocol (see Appendix 1): obviously, participants could mention theories within any or all of the six types of theories, since any combination or all can be relevant to the translation task in different ways. The theories or strategies offered by the participants were itemised and synthesized into the categories of linguistic/grammatical, lexical, syntactic, textual, functional and social-cultural aspects (displayed in Table 4.4). The following sections will display and analyse these theories and strategies, case by case.

Table 4.4: Use of translation theory in students from the three groups

Groups	**Linguistic/ Grammatical**	**Lexical**	**Syntactic**	**Textual**	**Functional**	**Social-cultural**
C1	8	6	4	1	1	0
C2	8	7	7	0	1	0
UK3	8	8	8	6	8	4

4.4.1 Use of translation theory in C1

As shown in Table 4.4, the eight C1 students all stated that they used a linguistics-based or a grammatical approach to their translations. Six C1 students used a lexical approach; four students used syntactical strategies. Only one student used a textual approach and only one student used a functional approach. None of them claimed that they used a social-cultural approach. Based on the written submissions, most C1 participants tried to answer the questions as to translation theories they used. Interestingly, the eight C1 students understood linguistics-based approach differently. C1-1, C1-3 and C1-4 indicated that a linguistics-based approach to translation referred to word addition and omission, word change and wording in transfer. C1-2 thought that a linguistics-based approach was finding equivalents.

C1-5 described it as exercising loyalty to two different linguistic systems; she exemplified Yan Fu's three-word translation criterion as a good linguistic theory. C1-6 indicated that a linguistics-based translation theory was a grammar-based approach; he explained that it was important that attention should be paid to the equivalence of the word class, tense, case and number of words in spite of finding equivalents to source words when translating English and Chinese. C1-7 and C1-8 viewed word-for-word and literal translation methods as a linguistics-based theory.

In terms of a lexical approach to translation, most C1 students recognised it by what they had learned from foreign language teaching. They maintained that it was also connected with wording in transfer. They indicated that a lexical approach included phrase and sense or meaning translation; this could be exemplified by their frequent use of word and phrase unit translation solutions. In addition to phrases, word strings and meaning groups, C1-1 mentioned conversion but he did not explain it. C1-2 added collocations and idioms to a lexical approach. C1-6 indicated that a lexical approach should include various phrasal units, word strings and sense groups. C1-8 thought that a lexical approach belonged to a linguistic approach, and claimed it should include terms, meaning groups and culture-bound words. In a sense, the students in C1 were good at employing a lexical approach in their translation (see section 4.2.2): they sought to translate the source sentences in lexical meanings. For example, in order to have a good translation, they divided the sentence 'Ensure that your feet are in line with your hip, to help you stay steady on your feet once standing' into at least seven lexical meaning groups. According to Chinese literacy, they grammatically put each lexical meaning into its Chinese sentence. They used this way to avoid missing any items.

Four C1 students suggested that they used a syntactic approach to their translations. C1-1 and C1-3 thought that a syntactic approach to translation referred to syntactic structure changes. C1-5 mentioned that it should include coherent change, syntactic conversion and clause order change. C1-8 advocated the reversion of a sentence structure should follow the Chinese pattern. The translated sentence made by the other half of the C1 group partly indicated that they recognised a syntactic approach though they did not give their opinions on it. In terms of a textual approach, most C1 students did not understand well the text type of the English text. C1-1 called it an 'expository essay'. C1-2, C1-3, and C1-4 regarded it as an 'informative text'. C1-5, C1-6 and C1-7 recognised it as 'instruction', but could not render it properly. That was one of the reasons that their translated texts were not acceptable. C1-8 indicated that he used a textual approach in his translation, but he gave words like 'an instruction, exposition', which indicated that he was not sure what the text type of the English was. The evaluation in his protocol showed that the translated text he rendered was not acceptable. C1-7 claimed that he used a functional theory, but his translated text did not show that he had special concern for his target readership, because functional theory concerns target text, reader and culture.

4.4.2 Use of translation theory in C2

Table 4.4 shows that all the C2 students used a linguistic approach in their translation. Seven C2 students used lexical and syntactical approaches. Only one student confirmed using a functional approach, but none of them indicated that they used textual or social-cultural approaches. Though Sections 4.2 and 4.3 have analysed how they applied word, phrase and syntax unit solutions, their written

submissions show that they individually did not indicate any concepts or ideas about how they thought of them, as the questions required. Most C2 participants left a blank for the questions concerning their use of translation theories. They appeared to be very confused at identifying the text type of the text they translated. For example, C2-1 thought the English text was a 'narrative essay'; C2-2 said it was 'part of an instruction manual'; C2-3 regarded it as 'expository', and C2-7 was not sure if it was 'explanatory or expository'. C2-4 and C2-6 accepted it as an 'instruction'; C2-5 said it was 'guidelines for using a chair' and C2-8 took it as an 'illustrative' text type. C2-8 was the only one in this group who indicated that he used a functional approach. As with C1-7, there was however little hint that he had used it in his translation.

4.4.3 Use of translation theory in UK3

Table 4.4 shows that students in UK3 used lexical, syntactic, textual, functional and social-cultural approaches more than the students in C1 and C2, except for the linguistic approach which all the students of the three groups said that they used. The written submissions suggested that the UK3 students had a wider and richer understanding of the concepts of translation theory. Most of the UK3 students considered linguistic, lexical and syntactic approaches within the linguistic domain. UK3-1, UK3-2 and UK3-6 mentioned that their linguistic approaches related to Vinay and Darbelnet's (1995) 'translation shift'. They said that they employed literal translation, transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation when necessary. For example, when translating the sentence 'To help you to stand use the arms or the base of the chair to help you push yourself up', UK3-6 first changed 'use the arms or the base of the chair' into two phrasal units of 'use the arms of the

chair' and 'use the base of the chair'. Then he adapted the word 'push yourself up' into 'push up your body upward'. Finally, he reversed the order of the English sentence and put 'To help you to stand' at the end of the Chinese sentence he translated. This was his translated Chinese sentence '*shiyong zhuyi de fushou huo shiyong yizuo bangzhu ni jiang shenzi wangqiang tuisong,bangzhu ni cong yizishang zhan qilai*. 使用座椅的扶手或使用椅座帮助你将身子往前推送，助你站起来。'. It translates back as, 'Use the arms of the chair or use the base of the chair to help you push up your body upward. This can help you stand up from the chair'. Besides, UK3-2, UK3-5 and UK3-7 linked their linguistic approaches to the concepts of Jakobson's and Nida's equivalence theory, Baker's equivalence at word level and Yan Fu's three-word translation criteria of '*Xin, Da, Ya'*. UK3-3, UK3-4 and UK3-8 used Newmark's (1988) literal and semantic translation.

Six of the eight UK3 students considered that they used a textual approach in their translations. Though UK3-2 and UK3-7 did not respond directly to the questions as to the use of translation theory, the evaluation showed that both of them used it in practice. UK3-2 claimed to follow Reiss's theory of text type and identified the English text as an 'informative text type'. UK3-7 followed Hatim and Mason's (1990) classification of text type and identified it as an 'instructional text type'. The protocols actually showed that the other six UK3 students identified the English text either as an 'informative' or 'instructional' text type. The C1 and C2 groups had only one student each who indicated using a functional approach. Interestingly, all the eight UK3 students said that they used a functional approach: their protocols showed that they used it at different levels. For example, they showed respect for the requirements of the brief and accordingly made a translated text to observe these

requirements. They were careful in wording Chinese expressions in transfer and made coherent Chinese sentences. Meanwhile, they improved or corrected the source text if necessary. This could be exemplified in their translating the title of the English text '**Manual Handling Guidelines --- from Sit to Stand Transfer**'. It was obvious that the title was informal English. In dealing with the prepositional phrase '**from Sit to Stand Transfer**', all the UK3 students corrected it and rendered it in appropriate Chinese. Based on the on-site field notes, four UK3 students said that they used social-cultural approaches. The notes showed that they raised some questions as to 'what kind of Chinese should be translated, Mandarin or Cantonese?', and 'where will the translated text be used? What kind of the community will use this translation? What kind of versions will the translation be: electronic or hard paper version?' However, such concerns were not raised in the other two groups.

4.4.4 Summary

Section 4.4 has reported the analysis of the use of translation theories or strategies by the students from the three cases. It shows that the participants from the three groups differed in what they said about using translation theories and in evidence from the protocols about their actual uses of theories. Most students from each group used Linguistic/Grammatical and lexical theories in their translation of the sentences. 4 out of 8 students in C1, 7 out of 8 in C2 and all students in UK3 used the syntactic theory in their translation. Only 1 student in C1 and C2 used textual, functional and social-cultural theory in his translation; while most students in UK3 used those theories. This result showed that students from the UK3 group are

dramatically able to cite and use more translation theories than those from the other two groups in their translation of the sentences**.**

4.5 Overall interpretation and discussion

This chapter has served to demonstrate both minor and dramatic differences among the students from the three groups in performing the translation task. The analyses using the main code categories of translation evaluation, unit solutions, errors and the use of theories and strategies have been presented. Analysis and discussion were interwoven among the three cases. To conclude, C1 and C2 groups had very similar evaluation points for their task performances. The points relatively were lower than those of the UK3 group. C1 and C2 students used linguistic approaches in this translation task more than the UK3 group; they were found not to be aware of the macro elements such as title translation, text form, register and contextuality. Their knowledge of translation theories mostly centred on linguistic aspects. The results from UK3 showed a richer and more competent demonstration in the option of translation unit approaches and broader understanding and application of the use of translation theories. Specifically, this would indicate that the UK participants were using many more successful translation strategies than those in the two Chinese cases. This was also illustrated in my interpretation of the qualitative data from the translation tasks. Both Chinese groups used more word and phrase unit solutions than the UK students; they also used fewer text unit translation solutions and made more translation errors than the UK case did. Therefore, the analysis seems to indicate that the outcome from the translation task undertaken by the UK case was much more successful both at lexical and text levels than those of the Chinese cases. Furthermore, the qualitative data which was gained from the analysis in the use of

translation theory indicates that the UK3 students were able to cite and use theoretical concepts more readily and effectively.

These differences may be caused by different underlying reasons, including both individual ability and knowledge obtained in studying translation. As a teacher, especially in China, I consider that school or university education enacts a major role to determine the construction of students' knowledge. This needs to be explored further in the next two chapters. In addition, the analysis of the differences of each code category among the three cases reported here serves to answer the first research question: there are qualitative differences within and across of the three groups of cases: some differences are dramatic. Therefore, further discussion of what the participants think and say will be explored in the next chapter.

Chapter 5 Findings and discussion: post-task interviews

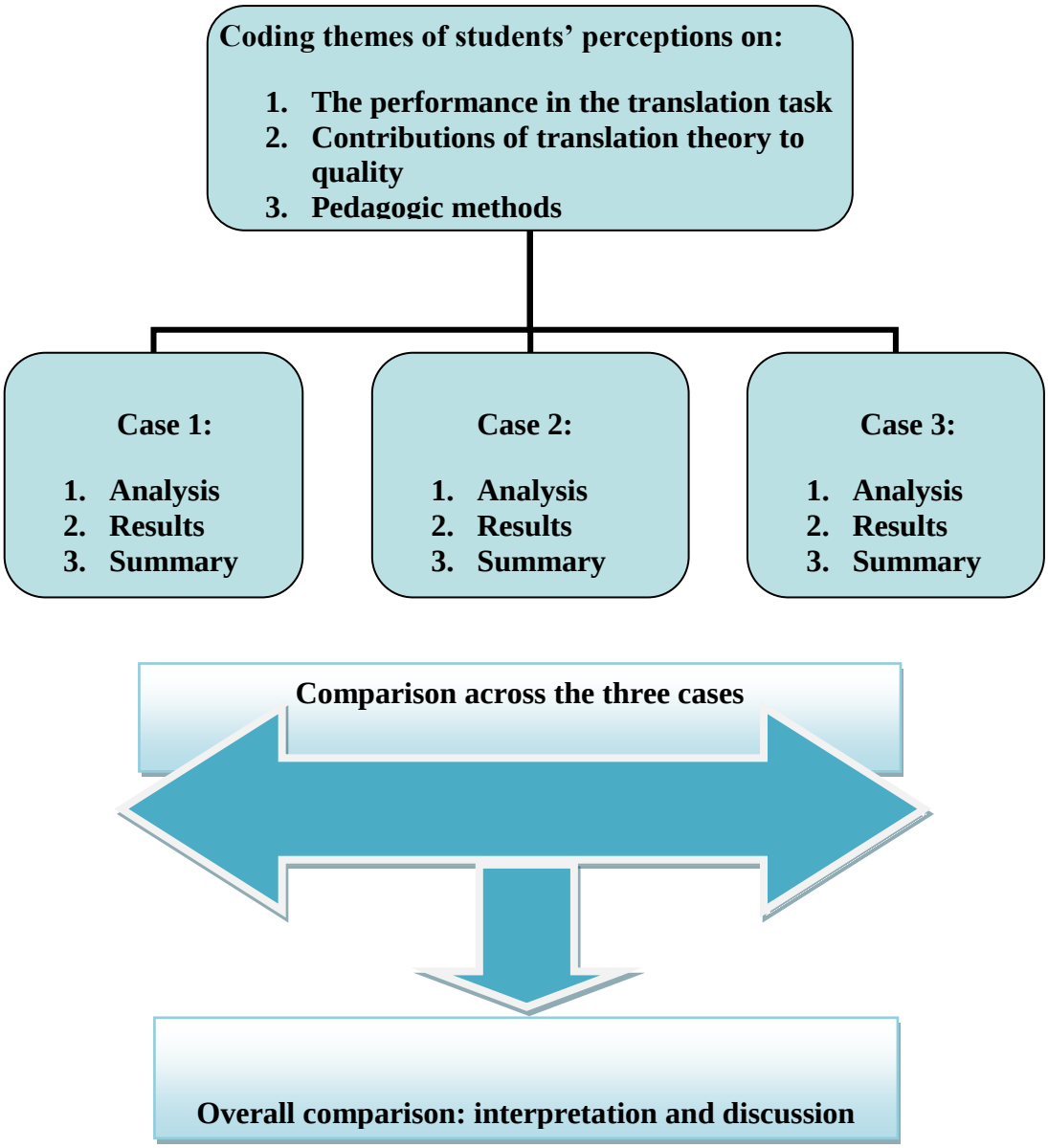


Fig. 5.1 Chart showing the organization of reporting the case analyses for the post-task focused interviews with the students

The purpose of the post-task focused interviews with the students of the three groups was to find out what they thought of their translation studies, what they liked or disliked (see Section 3.3.1.2). The interview translation scripts contributed extensive information for understanding their thoughts, opinions and ideas. Their

voices can be heard here as group or as individual opinions. Themes are extracted and coded, the main themes and subthemes of which are displayed in Table 5.1 (see Example 2 in Section 3.11). Fig. 5.1 shows the organization of how the case analyses for the post-task focused interviews are reported. Therefore, this chapter aims to display a global idea of what the participants think and say about their translation performance and the relevant programmes they had studied. There are four sections: the first reports students' perceptions of their performance in the translation task; the second concerns the students' perception of the contributions of translation theories in studying: the third presents students' perceptions of pedagogic methods; and the last addresses which theories of translation the participants thought they had learned on their respective programmes.

Table 5.1: Summary of themes and subthemes from post-task interviews

Theme	**Participants performance**	**Translation course**	**Contributions of translation theory to quality**	**Pedagogic methods**	**theoretical concepts**
Sub-theme	• comments on the translation text • reactions to the translation task • attitudes to translation theory	• instructional objectives • curriculum design • compulsory and selective courses • teaching staff	• scope of translation theory • content of translation theory • combination of translation theory and practice • translation competence	• translation textbooks • material selection • teaching methods • assessment methods	• translation equivalence • discourse / text-inguistic approaches • functionalist /cultural approaches • prescriptions, norms and ethics of translation

5.1 Perceptions of the performance in the translation task

Data from the post-task interviews revealed that participants' comments, reactions and attitudes varied in groups. Different opinions were given by each of groups. Participants' comments showed what they thought of the translation text which was

used in the translation task. Reactions to the translation task indicated that participants had a degree of self-awareness and self-confidence; their responses to the question about the use of translation theory conveyed their attitudes to translation theory.

5.1.1 The translation text

All students from C1 thought that translating the English text was not difficult. However, they thought that the English in the text was not standard. Some words appeared problematic to them. Concepts in the instructions such as 'brief', 'translation strategy' and 'translation problems' confused them. C1-7, who got an average mark of 2.45 for his translation, the highest mark in this group, spoke of this confusion:

> *I was not quite sure if I understood the meaning of the word 'brief', but I believed that I understood the instruction. I thought that translation strategy referred to translation skills and translation methods we learned. As far as translation problems were concerned, it seemed to me that I couldn't define them quite clearly. I assumed that they may refer to all those points that I could not translate.*

Most of the other C1 students had similar ideas to C1-7. They reported that they were easily affected by the source text while translating. They did not question the quality of the English text. Although they noticed that the English was informal, they were not aware of the possibility of correcting it before translating. This indicates that C1 students were not trained how to render informal texts. Somewhat unquestioningly, they just took it for granted that it was idiomatic English.

Students in C2 also commented that the English text used in their translation task was not as smoothly written and elegant as the literary texts with which they used to practise. They reported that reading the English text was easy, but they had

difficulty in rendering it. They complained that some English sentences were not in good order, so that they had to readjust them before they translated. Some students said that it was difficult to find the subjects of some sentences. C2-2 said:

> *It is hard for me to distinguish where the subject is. There are many infinitive phrases, and many 'help', but I don't know how to put these 'helps' into right meanings. If I translated them into the same meaning, then my translation would be so boring with the repetition. Our teacher taught us that we should not use the same rendering if you meet a word which appears several times in a text. We should use its different expressions to deliver the same meaning. Otherwise the translation would be very dull and boring.*

C2-4 added, '*We studied more literary texts than specialist texts. We were used to translating literary texts'*. However, C2-3 and C2-5 disagreed, both considered that the model they had learned might be problematic. However, they were unable to go into details because the supervisor was present during the follow-up interview. This was part of the conditions for carrying out the study in this site (see Section 3.5.2); understandably, under surveillance the students tried to avoid giving comments which might get them into trouble.

Then the UK3 students maintained that they did not have too much trouble dealing with this translation task. They considered the main issue they faced was how to avoid becoming entangled in the informal language in the English text. More decisively than other groups, they thought that it would be better to improve some words and some sentences before they started translating it. UK3-6 from Taiwan, who had the highest mark in the evaluation, said:

> *At the very beginning I thought that this piece of English text was easy for me to translate. I tried to translate it into Chinese but I found that I was bothered by the poor English in the text. Then I turned to improve the English and adapted some sentences so that I would not be restrained by its poor language.*

UK3-7 from China and UK3-8 from Macau also stated that they also made some changes before they translated the text. The others thought that if they had a poor original text, the best way they could do was to correct or adapt it before they started to translate. They said that, otherwise, ill-used language would easily bother them when they did the translation. This indication shows that the UK3 students were disciplined professionally and able to recognise the quality of texts for the rendition.

Analysing a source text before translating was important. The comments given by the students from the three case programmes exemplified the way in which the students dealt with the translation text in the task. This treatment hinted at the different translation training they had received. While C1 students seemed to hesitate when they saw the problems of the translation text and C2 students tended to excuse themselves for their incompetence, the comments from the UK3 students showed that they could not only recognise the quality of a translation text but also knew how to manage it appropriately.

5.1.2 Reactions to the translation task

Most of the students of the first Chinese University (C1) responded in a down to earth fashion when they were asked about their performance in the translation task. One student was positive and one was silent. They reported that it was hard for them to have the confidence to say that they translated the English text well. C1-2 expressed her feeling after finishing the translation by saying:

> *I didn't translate it well. I should have done it better if I had had specialist knowledge of caring.' C1-6 also said that 'I needed a bit of imagination before I translated it. I read the original sentences and imagined what the English text said in my mind and turned it into Chinese.*

The field notes show that though the students of the second Chinese University (C2) were interested in the interview questions and joined in the discussion, they responded rather passively in answering the questions after finishing the translation task. Overall, C2 students had less confidence than C1 participants concerning their translation task performance. Most reported that they had no confidence in answering the questions in the translation task. Four C2 students said that they were so disappointed about their translated texts that they doubted their translation competence; the other four said gloomily that they would have performed better if the original genre had been literary. With this disappointment they admitted that what they had learned about translation up to that point might not be in keeping with this particular translation task. They shared their unhappy feelings because they worked so hard in their studies and spent much time practising translation, yet they found that they could not deal with this short specialist English text well. C2-6 said very pessimistically:

> *I worked so hard and practised translation exercises in the textbook. When I was translating this 131-word English text, I found myself so clumsy that I didn't know where I should start except looking up words in dictionaries. When I looked at my translation, I doubted if I was a translation student*.

Her classmates nodded their heads in agreement. As the observation field notes showed, although they did not say much, their expression and mood conveyed a shared anxiety as to whether they could face their future translation career with what they learned.

UK 3 students displayed a relatively positive attitude in the post-task interview and discussion. They seemed at ease and evinced confidence after they had finished the

translation task. UK3-1 from Taiwan said, '*I was happy with my translation, though I know that I didn't translate it perfectly.*' UK3-3 from Singapore and UK3-4 from Macau reported that they were satisfied with their performance because they had practised translating different topics according to the designed exercises during their private studies. UK3-2 from Hong Kong said conservatively, '*This task was OK with me. It was a good test for me to think of what I had learned.*' All the students indicated their satisfaction with their modules in specialist translation on their programme such as literary, scientific, economic, legal, commercial, media, political and tourist translation modules. Their comments clearly implied that the range of exposure to different genres and practical experience in these modules had broadened their views about to how to translate with the guidance of the theoretical knowledge they had learned in class.

My field notes show that the UK 3 students reacted differently to the translation task: their attitudes showed their confidence and ability from what they had learned. However, strikingly, students in C2 attributed their lack of competence in the task to the genre of the task text. According to the language proficiency required for the postgraduate programme they had learned in China, this text genre and language level should not have been problematic for them, which implies that there must be some other reasons for this, which must be explored.

5.1.3 Attitudes towards translation theory

When the C1 students were asked their opinions of the translation theory they had learned, they agreed enthusiastically that it was necessary to learn some translation theory. They reported that they preferred practical, applied translation skills or

techniques to pure translation theory because their translation teachers told them that being a good translator requires a great deal of practice. They thought that '*pure translation'* theory was too abstract and subtle to understand. When they were probed by asking what they meant by '*pure translation'*, C1-4 said, '*It means those theories which can't give any practical guidance for doing translation'*. C1-2 added:

> *[...] there are some theoretically controversial words or concepts like our Chinese translator Yan Fu's* 'Xin, Da, Ya' *(which literally means loyalty, influence and elegance). People can talk a lot but have no analytical process to describe how they work for doing good translation. They are evaluative and argumentative.*

Five other C1 students indicated that they were confused and uncertain about some concepts of translation theory they had learned, such as '*equivalence*', '*discourse translation'* and '*pragmatic translation'*. They were confused about their contexts and wondered in what situations they could use them. Two students thought that learning translation theory was an academic and didactic requirement in their course, but that a translator did not need translation theory in practice, so they suggested that input of translation practice in the real world of translation is more important than learning translation theory. One C1 student considered that language competence in both source and target languages was of far more importance than translation theory and practice.

All students from the second Chinese University (C2) claimed that translation theory was important, but they still believed that they had not realized the essence of translation theory in their course. Because they specialised in English language and English literature, translation was treated as an individual choice. They reported how they did lots of literary translation exercises in class, but they seldom applied

translation theory in practice. They told me that they had more discussion about how to appreciate literary work than actually applying translation in class. C2-1 said:

> *The aspects of translation theory we learned mainly focused on traditional Chinese translation theory central to Yan Fu's three principles of xin (fidelity), da (fluency) and ya (elegance), Fu Lei's shensi (likeness-in-spirit) and Qian Zongshu's huajing (realm of transformation).Our teacher also taught us pragmatic theory. It helped us to look at contextually in translation. I did not think that it was new because it was talked in contrastive linguistics.'*

C2-7 followed this by saying, '*They have a long history. We are proud of them, but what we would like to know was how they help and guide our translation practice. The more we discussed them, the more we were confused.*' C2-3 and C2-5 both thought that the theory they learned remained from a linguistic-based approach. In their view, there was little chance of developing interest in other theories though they knew that the Chinese translation theory they touched was abstract, general and summative. They believed that there should be some specialist translation theories which they had not encountered in their studies.

Students from the UK University (UK3) actively responded to being asked about their opinions of translation theory. Six UK 3 students emphasized that it was essential that systematic translation theory (including different translation traditions) be taught for future development, especially for future individual academic development. For example, UK3-4 from Macau said:

> *Translation theory is very important for us to study translation institutionally. We need rules, strategies, guidelines, framework and paradigms in the realm of translation to guide us to know what and how to do translation. We like to know them systematically.*

However, UK3-5, from Hong Kong, thought that it was not necessary to have knowledge of translation theory in the translation business. She said '*We don't need to know much theory in a real-world translation. We need to know how to do*

translation better. Therefore, learning translation theory is like learning some tools which help us to do translation better.' UK3-6 Taiwan was the only student who stressed the importance of inputting bilingual knowledge besides learning translation theory. He said that bilingual knowledge should be a priority for learning translation theory. '*We can't translate if we don't have bilingual knowledge.*' The UK3 participants thought that the translation theory they learned had covered the skills they needed in translating.

This section has demonstrated selectively what the participants thought and reported about their performance in the translation task. While their attitudes and opinions were diverse and far from homogeneous, the accounts nevertheless suggest how the students tackled their translation and what they focused on. Their opinions are associated with what they had learned. Their reactions to doing this translation task were subjective, individual and momentary, but these feelings show, as Kussmaul puts it, that 'self-awareness and self-confidence', which are two psychological features, are 'part of the make-up of a professional translator' (Kussmaul, 1995: 32). Based on the perceptions of C1 and C2 students, the task in hand appears to reveal this issue that in training translation students in Chinese universities there is a need to develop their confidence and awareness of what they learn in their professional work. For this, the perceptions of the UK3 students which disclosed their confidence and positive attitude to what they had learned prepare for a further exploration of what they think of their own programmes.

5.2 Perceptions of the contributions of translation theory to quality

Participants in the post-task interviews were interested in the question of whether the translation theory they had learned contributed to the quality of their translation. They gave their opinions on two subjects: one related to translation theory itself, the other was focused on the pedagogic ways to carry it out. Participants considered that the modules of translation theory and their teaching methods were coherent, interactive and supplementary. For the sake of clarity, I classified and displayed them by themes (see Table 5.1). This section collects participants' views of what they thought of the contributions of translation theory to translation quality. The themes summarised from the interviews referred to the scope and content of translation theory, the combination of translation theory and practice, and the implication of translation theory and competence.

5.2.1 Scope of translation theory

Participants commented that it was good for them to have the scope of translation theory set out in their programmes. According to them, the scope of translation theory should let them know its focus, why it should be defined in their programmes and how students could understand and apply them in studying translation. Participants from different groups gave their own opinions.

Students in C1 gave complex ideas of the scope of translation theory they had encountered. They commented that this was '*Translation Studies'*. They said that although their courses of translation theory showed a multi-dimensional scope, they were confused about the concept of translation studies. C1-5 said:

> *In my simple opinion, translation studies relate to different theories and practices about translation. Judging from what we had in lectures and the reading books recommended,*

> *this concept seemed to talk about the area of literary translation. I didn't understand it well and felt confused.*

However, C1-5 and C1-8 both stated that it did not matter if they knew it or not. Five Chinese students outlined the ideal scope of translation theory in their studies. For example, C1-2 suggested:

> *If we had a clear scope of translation theory, we could study it and deepen it to support our practice. For example, we learned interpreting. If only we had an overall theoretical and practical knowledge of interpreting.*

Some of them thought that the scope of translation theory was practical; others held that it was theoretical. Overall they thought that the scope of theory in their translation curriculum was too diversified and operated at too broad a level of generality.

From a rather different perspective, since students in the second Chinese University (C2) specialised in English with American and English literature, they said that the scope of translation theory in their studies was limited to linguistic and literary translation. Most C2 students considered this scope of theory was national and not universal. They commented that their teachers of translation theory focused on famous Chinese literary translators and the literary works they translated. C2-4 and C2-5 did not think that it was good for them to limit their study to Chinese literary translation; they suggested that the scope of literary translation theory should offer systematic and versatile insights by studying different literary translations of different cultures. The six female C2 students suggested that the scope of translation theory should be linked to relevant disciplines. As C2-2 said：

> *We should not talk merely about Chinese literary translation. We think that it is part of literary studies. It would be good to link literary translation within other disciplines*.' C2-8

> concurred and said, '*This means that literary translation theory is not singled out as the only theory we learned, but it should be combined with theories of other disciplines. We believed that the literary translation theory we learned was very narrow*.

However, students from the UK University (UK3) talked about the scope of translation theory they had from a broader perspective. Their view was that that adequacy of translation theory was helpful to guide their studies; they did not think that it should be restricted to language learning. For example, UK3-3 said:

> *I learned and practised translation when I studied English as my BA programme. I used to practise translating words, sentences and paragraphs. As a translation student, I think that the scope of translation theory should go beyond a linguistic system.*

Most UK 3students held the view that the scope of translation theory they met in their programme was focused. For example, UK3-6 and UK3-7 commented that in studying translation theory they had focused on the theoretical issues relevant to translation. These issues focused attention on translation performance, effective strategies and solutions to translation problems. They thought that these issues were purposeful.

5.2.2 Content of translation theory

When participants talked about the content of translation theory, they tended to link it to course modules in translation: this was not surprising since they predominantly encountered theory through direct teaching, rather than say through independent reading. Based on the opinions of the students who engaged in post-task interviews, there was a consensus that the scope of translation theory limited and affected translation content. Students from three different programmes had different ideas of the content of translation theory.

Students from the first Chinese University (C1) studied Interpreting and Translation Studies. Because they believed that the scope of translation theory they had learned was too diversified and operated at too broad a level of generality, they said that the content of translation theory they had learned was not focused, coherent and systemic. For instance, C1-3 said:

> *Our courses in translation theory covered translation and interpreting studies, literary translation theory, translation criticism and appreciation, and cognitive studies of translation and interpreting. These modules seemed to show that they were multi-dimensional. I think that they were very superficial, because they hinged on linguistic theories of translation, talking of word equivalence, grammatical equivalence and sentence equivalence.*

Some C1 students reported that these modules in theory were good in that they enabled them to have a look at translation theory from different angles. C1-1 said:

> *I think that these modules of translation theory were enough to give us the main conceptual elements. I need not know them too much. Knowing some concepts was enough for me, because I think that practice is more important than theory in translation*.

C1-5 said, '*They [modules in translation theory] were extensive, and I got some basic concepts. In my opinion, defining the scope and content of translation theory was not easy*.' Such comments clearly implied that they considered practice more important than knowing theory.

There was substantial agreement among the students of the second Chinese University (C2) that the content of translation theory they met could give them a picture of Chinese literary translation: this content, however, had not challenged them because it was delivered in Chinese (none mentioned the possible challenge of applying these theories). C2-6 explained, '*we had modules of theories of modern literary criticism, translation theory, theory and application of translation, theories of traditional literary criticism. Our teachers presented them in Chinese. We*

understood them in Chinese.' C2-2 said, '*We had translation exercises. Most of them were excerpts from famous Chinese novels. We translated them. The comments on them depended on the teachers' preferences*.' C2-1 added:

> *Of course, we had literary modules like British poetry, twenty-century Western literary theories and nineteenth-century American fiction. They were taught in Chinese. We appreciated them in Chinese in class. I didn't think that I should apply any theory to do this. It depends on individual viewpoint.*

Though the C2 students wanted to describe the content of familiar translation theory, they easily turned to what kind of modules they had in theory. In particular, they stated that the module in translation theory was too conceptual and abstract. When they were asked what theory they practised in translation, they admitted that the content mainly focused on linguistic or grammatical approaches.

UK3 students basically took the view that the content of translation theory they had learned covered the main aspects of translation such as linguistics, cultural studies and functional aspects – all in one module of translation theory. UK3-2 from Hong Kong and UK3-4 from Macau represented most of their classmates and specified their modules had seven foci on 'discrete' units of language: interlingual transfer, the communicative nature of texts, the purpose of translation through texts, the relations between translation and target cultures, 'new' translation ethics, the concern of the translator as a rational and emotional being, and translation corpora. They commented that these aspects were taught briefly in lectures and then they were required to enhance and deepen the main ideas by reading and writing assignments (they did not specify whether or how they were encouraged or guided into applying theories in practice). A couple of the students stated that some of the points were difficult to understand. UK3-6 from Taiwan said:

> *Some of these points were very difficult for me to understand. One of the reasons was that I did not understand them well because the lecturer spoke fast in English. Their contexts would be very helpful to access to these new theories.*

UK3-8, the other student from Macau, agreed and said, 'Generally speaking, the translation theory we got was practical and meaningful. For understanding the points of translation theory we had, we were also required to read relevant texts and journals.' They also expressed that piling up concepts from different theories of translation made them confused.

According to Chesterman and Wagner (2002), the scope and content of translation theory, if planned well, can help translation students in their studies. The opinions on the scope and content of translation theory given by these participants (in sections 5.2.1 and 5.2.2) showed that they received translation theory differently and translation theory input for students often remained detached from translation practices.

5.2.3 Combination of translation theory and practice

In terms of the contributions of translation theory to the quality of translation, participants insisted that it mattered very much whether translation theory combined well with practice. They said that translation theory without practice would be empty, and practice would be blind without theory in learning translation. Students from different groups shared their opinions in the follow-up interviews to link these views to their contextual situations.

Students from the first Chinese University (C1) had different ideas about the contributions of translation theory to quality. They said that theoretically translation theory guided practice and practice could help students understand theory, and that good combination of them would help practise how to make good translations. As C1-4 put it, *'Translation quality should be improved with the guidance of theory'*. However, despite these holistically-oriented expressed principles of the theory-practice commentaries, C1 students thought that their courses in theory were separate conceptual entities. They internalised the ideas about some concepts, but did not know how to apply them in a specific situation; they seldom used them except from translation skills and methods. In apparent contradiction to expressed principles, some thought that most of the courses in theory were irrelevant to guide practice; they found that they could not combine theory with practice. In their experience there was little chance to reflect on the theoretical elements they learned in practice: courses in theory were separated from courses or workshops of translation. C1-2 said:

> *I thought that the theory could help me to know how to do translation and interpreting, because I believed that some theory could guide or give insight into translation. I did lots of practice in the sound laboratory. At that point, I didn't feel that theory was helpful.*

Those students who appreciated what they learned in theory could provide concepts and ideas, though they indicated such theories might not be applied by them pragmatically.

Students from the second Chinese University (C2) had a high regard for the practise of translation under the guidance of theory. They affirmed that translation theory could provide them with guidance, recognition and insight into doing translation.

Based on what they learned in their programme, they commented that though they had not had enough translation training, they had to practise translation as much as they possibly could. They believed the Chinese (and English) saying that 'practice makes perfect'. As C2-3 said, '*We studied Chinese translation theory. It referred to concepts and ideas of translation more than the analytical process of translation. These were helpful to shed light on and give some guidance*.' Another student, C2-6, gave an example. He said, '*for example, when we had Qian's 'transformation', it guided us to read some translated works in parallel to their originals*.' However, they also stated that they were not satisfied with those practical modules. The students criticised these modules as being badly organized, and not providing increasingly demanding experiences; they were not coherent with theoretical courses and there was little chance to have field experience. Most C2 students stressed that doing good literary translation needed more practice.

Students in UK3 also considered that the combination of theory and practice was very important in their programme. They said that this combination was worked through during their studies, from not only knowing translation to improving their ability. They commented that the theories and approaches they learned in lectures had a close connection with practice. For example, UK3-6 from Taiwan, said:

> *One of our instructional objectives of the theory course stipulated that after we learned the course, we should be able to make use of the theoretical concepts we studied in order to improve our practical translation performance. So we had different assignments to practise what we had learned. We learned by doing. I liked this way.*

Several students supplemented what UK3-6 said. For example, UK3-1 from Taiwan said:

> *We had two ways to practise what we learned in theory courses. One way was that we should write essays. These essays were not simple Q and A essays. They took time and I*

laboured over them very hard. The other way was that we were required to do simulation in the sound laboratories or interpreting booths both in workshops and private study. Through writing and practising, we could improve our ability to do good translation.

All the UK3 students thought that this combination of theory and practice was helpful and constructive, though they felt stressed when they were engaged in practice.

The necessity of a combination of translation theory and practice has been emphasised for some time in translation teaching. The voices of the participants stressed the point that translation without theory is blind. The opinions on using translation theory in practice given by the participants restated from another angle the importance of combining declarative and procedural knowledge.

5.2.4 Translation competence

The issue of the nature of translation competence caused arguments in each group during these follow-up interviews. Participants from different groups had different understanding of 'competence'. Some regarded it as the ability to do translation; some took it as a group of rules or strategies they should use in doing translation; some said that it was knowledge of bilingual language and culture; and others thought of it more like 'components of translation expertise or world knowledge' (after Gile 1995: 281). However, though groups had different ideas and students within each group had different understandings, a common view was that no matter what translation competence meant, precisely, being in possession of it was very necessary to undertake a good quality translation.

The most important concern, the students in C1 argued, was whether they had enough translation competence to pursue their future careers. This question was triggered by their performance difficulties in the translation task. They regarded translation competence as translation ability: in stating that these two concepts were not distinct, they echoed what their teachers said. For C1 students, whether it was called translation ability or translation competence, what they wanted to know was whether they had it. They confirmed that they studied their translation programme not only for the degree, but also to attain the appropriate ability and knowledge to be fit for the challenge of the 'real world' of translation. Regarding this, C1-2 expressed:

> *I think that translation ability can be obtained by a great deal of practice. I worked hard in practising translating different types of texts to obtain the ability. However, I have no clear idea of what translation ability is. I feel that there were some restraints that I couldn't go over though I practised a great deal.*

Some agreed with her, but they added more. For example, C1-6 said:

> *I think that translation ability is closely connected with translation theory and some other general knowledge. For example, personal knowledge in language and culture, comprehension and cross-culture communication may play important roles in doing good translation.*

The C1 students basically thought that translation ability was an abstract concept; and, to the best of their knowledge, they said that they could not define it clearly (in spite of the considerable time they had spent studying and practising it).

The opinions from the C2 students focused on translation competence as obtaining knowledge of bilingual language and culture. They said that their teachers told them that it was important for them to have bilingual knowledge if they wanted to be good translators and carry out a good translation. Three C2 students said that

translation competence was the knowledge of the differences of two linguistic systems: four believed that knowing cultural differences was necessary in translation. For example, C2-1 put it:

> *My understanding of translation competence was that it should be good for dealing with culture-bound words. For example, a kind of Chinese tea is called* Huacha *花茶. It is actually a kind of green tea mixed with jasmines. I got several options here: flower-scented green tea, Jasmine tea. I feel that they are acceptable in Chinese. However, I would take it as a culture-bound word.*

Half the C2 students considered that source text processing skills, transfer skills, communication skills and target text processing skills were important in understanding translation competence.

The students in UK3 took it for granted that translation competence should be cultivated and trained through theory and practice in their studies. They viewed it as the necessary knowledge and ability to do a good quality of translation. Their understanding of it was that they should have not only the knowledge of bilingual language and culture but also a theoretical foundation of what translation competence they should have and how they could attain it. Their opinions summarised from the on-site field notes show that they had a cluster of theoretical ideas. As UK3-3 said, '*Whether it is called translation competence or translator competence, I think that they are vital to understand translation and prepare me to perform translation well*'. UK3-4 said:

> *We talked about translation competence from different angles. There are linguistic competence, translational competence, methodological competence, technical competence, and so on. They are the essential competences required of a translator. However, it is no use talking about translation competence without the enlightenment of translation theory.*

UK3-6 followed her comment, '*Our different modules stressed the importance of translation competence. Our assignments and workshops and internship examined if our translation competence was improved*.' To the best of their knowledge, they said, translation creativity and competence were important, but in their view they should relate to relevant subjects and their theories such as language studies, culture studies, transfer and communication theory, information technology and specialist-subject knowledge.

Translation and translator competence have been emphasised in recent research about translation teaching, reviewed in Chapter 2 (e.g. Schäffner and Adab, 2000; Hurtado Albir, 2007; Kearns, 2008). Many empirical studies about translation competence have been conducted by the PACTE work since the 1990s. Such research showed that translation competence should be gained by combining declarative and procedural knowledge (e.g. the PACTE work 2008). However, few empirical studies show how and what form of declarative knowledge underpins translation competence or how translation students might acquire it. The perceptions given by the students from the three groups indeed showed their concern for translation competence and some ambiguity or confusion about it.

Section 5.2 has displayed how participants looked at the contributions of translation theory to the improvement of quality in their studying. Individual ideas, comments or opinions from each group indicate that improvement in the quality of students' translation is closely associated with the scope and content of translation as well as the combination with practice, and the cultivation of translation competence. Insufficient input of translation theory and apparent confusion about some key

concepts causes weak translation. For this, students from C1 and C2 are particular cases in point.

5.3 Perceptions of pedagogic methods

Apart from considering the scope and content of translation theory combining with practice and competence in studying, participants suggested that some aspects like translation textbooks, material selection, teaching methods and assessment methods were important aspects affecting the quality of the contribution of translation theory. They commented how these aspects were involved in their learning process, and influenced their awareness and performance. More opinions from the participants can be seen below.

5.3.1 Translation textbooks

Participants all said that translation textbooks played an important role in their studies: they were rated as especially good for those beginners who planned to run a translation business in future. Some reported that their teachers assigned some translation textbooks as required teaching books; others said that they used these as reference books. Students indicated that how they used translation textbooks depended on their teachers (rather than on their self-study or out-of-class reading). They agreed that their studies would benefit from good translation textbooks. However, students from different cases gave their opinions according to their different contexts. Students in C1 and C2 who came from the same education system displayed both similarities and differences in their views about the use of translation textbooks.

C1 students said that they had different translation textbooks in hand. Different teachers on different courses asked them to have the textbooks they assigned. The C1 students were not happy when this issue was raised. C1-4 said:

> *Every time when we began a new course, we were asked to buy this or that textbook. They were assigned by the teachers or required by the department. Our teachers told us that they would use them and we would be asked to do the exercises in the assigned textbooks. So we had to buy them.*

C1-7 followed up with:

> *I think that buying a good textbook for our study was reasonable. The problem I found was that these textbooks we were asked to buy were insufficient for our need. Take its content for example. The theory was either about linguistic approaches or grammatical correspondence. The exercises in these books were designed for translating words, long sentences or paragraphs*.

C1-8 commented:

> *The problem I saw was that these textbooks were very similar, focusing on language points, grammatical issues, translation skills and the like. I could not see if they supplemented each other. The teachers did not use them as they said.*

Following him, the other students listed examples of the textbooks they used, such as those by Zhang Peiji (1980), Lü Ruichang et al (1983) and Ke Ping (1993). Some of them mentioned that they also used some Western translation textbooks for reference, by Newmark (1981), Mona Baker (1992) and Munday (2001).

C2 students expressed some similar points to those in C1. For example, they were asked to buy translation textbooks, some of which they found unnecessary for their study. To this C2-1 complained:

> *I would like to have some translation textbooks of good quality and worthy of keeping as my handbooks. However, I bought them, and I found that they were not much used because their contents were superficial and repeated. I wonder why we were required to buy them.*

Two C2 participants mentioned that since they had literary translation orientation in their language and literature studies, the translation textbooks they used were not focused. As C2-5 put it:

> *Translation, especially literary translation is part of our studying. The translation textbooks we used were little concerned about literary translation theories. It seemed that general linguistic translation theories in these books were universal. Actually I knew they were not. We knew that they did not work completely when we applied them to literary translation exercises.*

As a Chinese teacher, I understand what the C2 students said about the purchase of translation textbooks. Students have to have the textbooks for the courses they have. As for the extent to which the textbooks are able to be used, inevitably this depends on the teachers.

Students in UK3 studied their translation programme in the UK education system. They said that they used translation textbooks, but they did not have to buy any if they did not want to: they could borrow books or photocopy excerpts in the library. They reported how their lecturers usually would let them know in advance what would be needed for the next lecture. They also had a teaching planner informing them of the gist of teaching sessions and activities with reading lists. UK3-1 said:

> *I like to have one or two textbooks recommended by the lecturer. The lecturer would tell us why we would use this book. The lecturer would tell of its strength and weakness. I like to keep them. In addition, we were required to read a lot according to the reading list prescribed.*

UK3-2 said, '*I could borrow some textbooks from the library. I photocopied or scanned the part to be used in lectures.*' UK3-8 commented, '*I felt free that I could arrange what I would study according to the planner.*' They praised the learning resources in their library, which were sufficient. They could borrow books across

libraries over the UK, if necessary. They said that the main translation textbooks they used were by Bassnett (1980), Newmark (1981), Bell (1991), Hatim and Mason (1990, 1997), Mona Baker (1992) and Munday (2001). Unexpectedly, they reported that there were no Chinese translation textbooks in their studies.

5.3.2 Materials selection

In the post-task interviews the participants also talked about those materials their teachers adopted. These materials include reading materials, authentic translation or interpreting materials, and materials chosen by students but confirmed by their teachers before they were used.

Students in C1 paid attention to those materials which were chosen by their teachers and were used to supplement any gaps or weaknesses in the adopted translation textbooks. The selected materials for them to practise were different in length, topics and subjects. Four students appreciated the selected materials, saying that such materials set them free from using textbooks. C1-1 said, '*I liked to do those selected materials, because they were more interesting than the exercises of the translation textbooks we used. It seems to me that they were real materials though I knew they were excerpts or pieces somewhere*.' However, two students expressed their opposition to them. C1-2 said, '*I welcomed selected materials. In a sense, I disliked them only because the selected materials we used were difficult for me. For example, some of them referred to machine manufacturing, biochemical products or laws*.' C1-5 complained, '*If only we had those difficult materials in advance.*' She explained, '*We knew that we would do some translation when we saw our teacher drawing some pieces of paper out of his bag. They were always ad hoc*.' The other

two C1 students said that they preferred selected materials relating to finance and business, areas in which they were interested.

Most of the C2 students liked to discuss the literary materials selected by their literary translation teacher. This teacher was a professional literary translator. He chose most materials from his own translated works. He made a list for them to read originals, and arranged different excerpts suitable for class sessions. They said that they were required to do small translations every time he finished his exposition, and then he would choose two or three translations from the students and comment on them, comparing them to his own translation version. C2-2 said, '*I really admired his translation, after I translated the piece of work he gave us and compared it with his*.' Some of the students argued that it was not a good way to learn translation by setting the teacher's translation as a model or standard, though the teacher was explicit that his translation was not the only standard answer for his students to imitate. They said that they were very tempted to hope that their translation would be close to their teacher's translation. They admitted that they had few materials relating to other subjects like economics, business, and politics.

In terms of materials selection, students in UK3 commented widely, based on their studies. They said that they often used selected materials given by lecturers. They divided selected materials into three categories according to their functions. The first category was those materials assigned by lecturers: journal papers, commentaries, essays or a piece of translation. Students were required to preview them, make critiques and raise questions if any. UK3-4 said:

> *These readings were very demanding. Some papers had many terms, jargon or difficult words. They kept me busy looking in dictionaries. Even doing so, I could not understand the*

meaning well. However, it was better to read in advance. Then I could understand better when attending the lecture.

The second category was the electronic resources which were selected for their private study. In the computer rooms the time they spent on private study was monitored. . UK3-6 described, '*I liked these electronic resources very much. I could go to the computer room with one or two course mates and practise translation like in-house translators. They were suitable for us to practise in an autonomous way*.' The third category of materials was selected by students but confirmed to be used by the lecturer, in the light of the criteria set by the relevant module objectives. The students said that these materials were meaningful and helpful for their studies.

Translation textbooks and selected materials for translation are used as tools in teaching methods, especially selected materials. Seemingly C1 and C2 students stressed how the textbooks and materials they used depended on teachers' preferences. This suggests that the criteria for the selection of materials should match the teaching methods and activities. This would challenge Chinese teachers of translation, because most of them are teachers of English.

5.3.3 Teaching methods

The participants from different groups during their follow-up interviews often mentioned the teaching methods and techniques they experienced. They used different words and terms such as 'big-size' class, discussion, role-play, pair or team work and mimic interpreting. Their view was that teaching methods were connected closely with teachers, course objectives, course content and material selection. The participants' opinions on teaching methods and techniques were

partly focused on the connection with the contributions of translation theory to quality.

In the C1 group, students said that their teachers taught both theoretical and practical courses in a large class. They said that if they had a two-hour class, the teacher would talk about 30-50 minutes and give them a piece of work to do a translation, or he would ask them to discuss the theoretical points he had made. C1-3 described:

> *We had 50-80 students in the classroom. Sometimes we could not hear clearly what the teacher said. Before we really understood the theoretical concepts, we were required to do a translation. The teacher was inaccessible to answer some questions we raised.*

Two students added that sometimes the teacher also divided the big class into small groups to do translation. When talking about practical courses, students were a bit cheerful: in comparison, they liked having practical courses, because they could do some practical translation or interpreting. They reported that though it was a large class, the teachers were good at class management; they could do pair or team work. Overall, however, the C1 students were not quite satisfied with the teaching method for their theoretical courses. They believed that these teaching methods did not fulfil the instructional objectives of theory and practice courses, and they concluded that students' translation quality did not improve sufficiently. They said that they had to bear this, because there were many students but few teachers of translation in their school.

Students in C2 pointed out how teaching methods should be linked to instructional objectives and course content. They generally accepted the teaching methods,

because they thought those methods helped them study both translation and language. They realised that translation was treated as an individual orientation in their language and literature programme. They agreed that the teaching methods could help them have knowledge of both translation and language, though they focused on literary translation. C2-4 said, '*I think that the teaching methods we had integrated the two areas well. We could learn both language and translation.*' C2-3 and C2-6 also pointed out that their teaching methods were mixed. They said that they had translation exercises but actually they felt that they seemed to have language exercises. C2-8 explained:

> *Several times when we did literary translation in team work, we found ourselves discussing language points. They were important, but I mean that translation exercises should be beyond that. What should we get through translation exercises if they don't mean translating words and sentences?*

The students gave some examples of teaching methods they had, like using small discussion groups, giving presentations and having interpreting field practice.

Students in UK3 agreed that teaching methods were important '*executive channels'* to fulfil the instructional objectives, course content and classroom activities. They said that different modules in their programme had different teaching methods. They considered that the teaching methods and techniques they experienced were rigorous and coherent. UK3-5 from Hong Kong said, '*In terms of translation modules, we had lectures, seminars, workshops and private study zones. Each of them had its objectives, relevant activities and techniques to help us experience what happened in the realm of translation.*' UK3-4 from Macau described the lectures she had, '*We had twenty-six students in a lecture room. Our lecturer liked us to sit around him. We listened to him, took notes and asked questions*.' UK3-8

from Macau said, '*I liked to have seminars, where we could continue to discuss what we encountered in lectures. We did reading with critique in groups. We had team work to do presentations together.*' As for practical modules, the UK3 students gave more examples like tutorials, workshops and field experience, among different techniques.

The comments given by the students from the three groups showed their experience of what teaching methods were used in their modules of translation theory. From the perceptions of the students of the two Chinese universities, it can be readily inferred that they had teacher-centred lectures and they felt frustrated, whereas the students in the UK university had collaborative teaching methods which consisted of lectures, seminars, workshops and tutorials which they were content with. It seems that the teaching methods experienced by UK3 could be more impressive and efficient. This could, of course, be subjective judgements made by students with experience only of their own particular programmes, without access to or experience of other programmes. Thus these inside voices need to be put alongside data from other complementary methods. More factual information is to be gained when the official documents of the teaching methods relevant to each case programme are examined.

5.3.4 Assessment methods

Participants in the post-task interviews expressed similar ideas regarding the assessment methods in their respective programmes. They stated that they thought that assessment methods should be aligned with the overall aims of the programmes, and that they should most effectively assess the learning objectives of the unit or

module of study. However, students in the different cases also regarded the use of translation theory as relevant to the method of assessment.

Students in C1 commented that the assessment methods for their courses in translation theory were methods of questions and answers, and translation, but they emphasised the importance of taking notes in class. C1-4 said, '*Taking notes in theoretical classes was rewarding. When courses finished, teachers used to hand out a list of questions for students to prepare for the final examination*.' They reported the type of assessment methods were mixed with sheets of questions, multiple choices, translation from Chinese into English or vice versa and 500-1000 word essays. C1-6 said:

> *It was not easy to assess what we had in theoretical courses. In fact, we were not assessed what we had learned and the extent to which we understood the theoretical issues we had learned, but we were usually considerably assessed on how many definitions we could remember.*

However, C1 students complained that teachers' marking for their work was not logical: the formative coursework took up 30% in total, but the mark in the final examination took up 70%. Further complaints were that they seldom had feedback on their translations because the teacher was very busy with a heavy workload. In this sense, the C1 students thought that the assessment methods affected them in improving the quality of their translations.

Students in C2 took the view that assessment methods were the means of testing and examining the knowledge, strategy and ability they were gaining through studying. They reported that the main assessment methods for their translation courses were translating excerpts and writing essays. They thought that assessment

methods were very important to improve their performance in gaining good translation quality. C2-4 said, '*I think that assessment methods were vital to my study. Every time I did translation, I hoped that I had a good mark. However, I expected the feedback from my teacher to be more important*.' Three C2 students did not think that they had enough feedback for their assignments: comments were held to be general and not helpful to thinking of how to improve their translation quality. Four C2 students said that writing essays was not a good exercise for them to learn translation. The reason they gave for this apparent lack of face validity was that they were 500-word essays but instructions were not clear, so the purpose was not defined. They commented that they could not write an essay well if they found difficulty understanding the theoretical concepts they were supposed to have learned. They preferred the assessment methods for their literary translation assignments, because the teacher provided feedback for them or commented in class.

Students in UK3 also shared their opinions of the assessment methods they had in their programme. They observed that the assessment methods were different for theoretical and practical modules, but concluded they were coherent and related. The types of assessment methods were writing essays, commentaries and translation projects. UK3-2 said, '*These writings were heavy for me, but I believed that these writings with different requirements could discipline me to think critically and learn how to make judgements*.' As far as the coherence of these writings was concerned, UK3-7, who came from China, said:

> *The assessment methods, especially the marking system, were totally different from those I had in China. Writing a 2000-word essay took me several weeks. I had to read a lot in the library, search for its literature and discuss with my tutor. Two essays I wrote represented 50% of the final grade for the module. However, I did feel that I was rewarded by writing.*

The UK3 students generally reflected that the assessment methods were rigorous; they reported that each essay they wrote was double marked, and they got feedback for each essay. They regarded feedback for their assignments as most valuable to rebuild up their confidence and performance in practising writing and translation.

In general, assessment, in its many forms and with its different functions, is a vital part of any teaching and learning process. Formative assessment and summative assessment are the normal means used in many programmes. The students' perceptions of the assessment methods from the three groups seemed to be about their summative assessments. Their opinions showed concern not only for the marks they would gain from their work but also regarding the knowledge and competence they needed. Again, however, these insider voices should be supported from the data of the curriculum documents which are to be explored in the next chapter.

Section 5.3 showed different opinions about the pedagogic methods within each programme in the three cases. The perceptions given by the students of the two Chinese universities seemed more negative than those of the students from the UK university, because the C1 and C2 groups thought that the pedagogical methods they had been using in textbooks, selection of materials, teaching and assessment methods were not adequate for their studies.

5.4 Perceptions of theoretical concepts

Participants in the post-task interviews reacted positively when they were asked about their use of the translation theories they had learned. They responded to central issues such as what kinds of translation theories they should study in a

translation programme, whether translation theories were useful to do translation, or whether was it necessary to study translation theories in order to be a translator. Opinions from the C1 and C2 students showed they had more interest in these questions than UK3 participants. Interesting themes which were summarised from all groups' opinions were found with respect to translation equivalence, which the students associated with linguistic or grammatical approaches, discourse or text-linguistic approaches or functional methods of translation, Translation Studies, including descriptive and cultural issues of translation, and issues of norms. Students in C1 and C2 were interested in talking about linguistic theories, but they seldom mentioned cultural studies and functional theories of translation. Students in UK3 shared what they had learned in their module of translation theory. This section will go on to set out these perceptions based on evidence from the post-task interviews with the participants.

5.4.1 Translation equivalence

The issue of equivalence of translation was controversial in the post-task interviews when participants talked about the use of translation theory they had learned. In their view, equivalence was indispensible when translation took place. However, they had different ideas as to how they treated it when practical translation was concerned.

Students in C1 agreed that they accepted the theoretical concept of equivalence from the course of Introduction to Translation Studies. They confirmed that they could list the concepts of equivalence they had learned such as formal equivalence, dynamic equivalence, word-level equivalence, grammatical equivalence, textual

equivalence, and overt and covert translation. However, they reported that these concepts of equivalence made them confused and stated that the concepts they received from their teachers were too general and abstract. C1-7 said, '*I thought that I understood each single definition of these concepts. When I put them together, I should say that these concepts were dazzling. How would I use them in my translation?*' Some students said that they could understand equivalence simply as rules and regulations for translation. C1-2 said, '*The more I learned equivalence, the more I was confused. Translation theorists said different things. For my benefit, I would rather take it as a phenomenon in linguistic translation.*' The C1 students were confused as to whether equivalence was a theoretical or practical issue.

The students from C2 also understood equivalence in linguistic theories. They said that they learned this concept from Nida's (1964) theory. For example, C2-2 said:

> *In our theoretical modules, Nida's theory (1964) was often quoted. I knew his two concepts of formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence because our teachers often quoted them and mentioned them together with Chinese traditional translation theory. To be frank, I considered them similar to our Chinese traditional translation theory, because I believed that it was easier to understand our Chinese translation theory.*

They said that in Chinese translation scholarship, Nida's theory was very much regarded as a form of '*Western translation theory*'. They admitted that they could not understand Nida's theory of equivalence entirely; nevertheless they were impressed by his concepts of formal and dynamic equivalences. They said that they would rather understand it as linguistic equivalence. C2-7 said:

> *The concept of equivalence was a big myth for me to understand. I felt that it was a fussy concept. To my knowledge, it seemed as abstract as our Chinese translation traditions of* 'xin, da, ya'*, or* 'shenyun *神韵' (literally 'spiritual assonance'). This means to me that I can feel but cannot say it.*

C2-8 also confirmed, '*I would rather understand it as literal translation or linguistic approaches*.' The other students agreed that what these two female students said represented what they thought. They also said, perhaps somewhat confused, that the theories in their textbooks appeared to be equivalent.

Most students from UK3 also regarded the concept of translation equivalence as a controversial issue. Based on what they had learned, they did not think that equivalence of translation referred simply to finding equivalents in rendering the original text. UK3-1 from Taiwan said, '*I learned clusters of concepts of equivalence in lectures. They gave me a wide perspective in thinking of the concept of equivalence*.' Two students stated that they were confused about the theory of equivalence and did not think that it was useful for guiding practical translation. UK3-3 from Singapore said:

> *It was very complicated to have different concepts of equivalence. We had Jakobson's (1959) equivalence about gender, aspects and semantic fields, Nida's (1964) theory of equivalence, Newmark's (1988) semantic-communicative equivalence of translation and Baker's (1992) equivalences. I was confused about how to use them properly in practising translation.*

UK3-4 from Macau also said that equivalence of translation was a theoretical concept, one which they would find helpful to guide understanding translation.

Speaking of the equivalence of translation often causes endless debate, and current trends in the theory of this aspect stretch beyond its narrow linguistic domain. As Pym puts it, 'Equivalence does not say that languages are the same; it just says that values can be the same' (2010: 6). However, this section revealed that the participants referred to the issue of equivalents in the linguistic system. Furthermore,

the section also showed that the students from the two Chinese universities had a vaguer conceptual understanding of this than the UK3 students.

5.4.2 Discourse or text-linguistic approaches

When the participants discussed the use of translation theories regarding genre or text type of the translation, participants in the post-task interviews had different ideas and understandings. Students in C1 and C2 did not link discussion directly to text-linguistic approaches: instead, they used these terms '*discourse*', '*text*', '*genre*' or '*text type'*. Students in UK3 linked the concept of text type to text-linguistic approaches in their interviews.

Students in C1 had different expressions when they talked of text type translation. They were hesitant and cautious when giving their opinion about the precise terms of discourse, text, and genre or text type. Six C1 students mentioned that they were not sure of their differences. C1-2 said, '*I read them somewhere. It said that discourse meant text. It depended on individual preference*.' C1-5 said the opposite: '*I was told in a linguistics course that they were different. Discourse was a term to be described as 'language-in-use'*. It meant '*a socially situated talk or conversation. Text was used to mean written texts.*' Four C1 students said that they had some ideas of text type from Munday's (2001) book, but they took it differently. As C1-8 put it:

> *I read some parts of Munday's (2001) book talking of "text type". I felt that it was vague for me, because the foreground in his book was not clear for me. I guess that this term sounds like a term we used to analyse a Chinese text.*

Some other students also mentioned genre or typology. However, none of the C1 students mentioned 'text linguistic theories of translation' in their interview.

Although students from C2, based on the language and literary knowledge they had learned, considered that '*genre*' and '*text type'* had similar functions typologically, they did not think that they had a problem using the terms *'discourse'* and '*text*'. C2-1 said:

> *We were familiar with these terms because we learned them in our language and literary courses. We used them to discuss and analyse different types of writings. We were taught that we should keep the same genre in translation in conformity with its source text.*

Some C2 students doubted what she said, but did not elaborate further. The C2 students maintained that they were not aware that there was a translation theory which was called '*text-linguistic theories of translation.*' C2-2 said, '*When we studied translation theory, discourse or text translation was mentioned. What are text-linguistic theories of translation? To be frank, we received text or discourse translation within a linguistic domain.*' They also mentioned that they had learned Hatim and Mason's (1990) three categories of argumentative, expositive and instructional text types, but they said that they did not know how to link them to text-linguistic approaches.

Students in UK3 perceived '*text type'* as an important concept in text-linguistic theories of translation. They were aware of related concepts like genre, textuality and convention. Some of them felt that text-linguistic theories of translation were similar to linguistic theories of translation. UK3-4 from Macau said:

> *I accepted the concept of 'text type' because it was one of the concepts in text-linguistic theories of translation. The emphasis on text type in translation was looking at text as a translation unit. I think that I also can understand it in linguistic theories of translation.*

Most of UK3 students disagreed with her. UK3-5 said, '*Indeed, they are relevant, but I think that linguistic theories of translation focus mainly on words, phrases and sentences. Though text-linguistic theories of translation are relevant to all the other theories, they referred to text-level issues in translation.*' Commenting on what she said, UK3-7 added, '*Text-linguistic approaches are interested in contextual use. For example, they stress the pragmatic relations of structure, cohesion and coherence between source language text and target language text.*' Students in UK3 considered that discourse analysis and register analysis were part of text-linguistic theories of translation. Whether these opinions taken from students in UK3 were accurate or not, they show that the students had looked at the concept of text type in a textual perspective.

5.4.3 Functionalist and cultural approaches

The field notes showed that C1 and C2 did not have a strong sense of functionalist and cultural theories of translation. The research assistants in different sites used probing questions to remind students of issues of functional and cultural issues in translation if necessary.

Students from C1 said that their teachers had mentioned these theories in class, but they thought what the teacher said was general: they had little knowledge about them, and they did not think that they had enough systematic knowledge to apply them in practice. They reported that the initial theory that came to them in practical translation was linguistic theory. C1-7, the only student in the group who remarked that she had used the functionalist approach in her written submission, said:

> *I wrote that I used the functionalist approach when I answered those questions concerning the use of theories of translation. In fact, I didn't know it clearly. The only thing that I knew in the instruction was to understand the brief of the translation task.*

Some C1 students said that they had learned some concepts like *Skopos*, purpose and translational action, but had no idea of how to apply them in practice. Linking this to the translation task, C1-3 said:

> *For the sake of talking of translation theory, we could mention the concepts and definitions we had learned. When it came to a pragmatic occasion, we didn't know how to put them into practice. We didn't know how these concepts could guide our translation. I felt that I could do translation without them.*

As far as cultural theories of translation were concerned, they did not think that they should use any cultural theories to deal with the particular translation task. They said that the concept of Translation Studies confused them, and said that it was a '*blurred concept*'. C1-1 explained:

> *I thought that the concept of Translation Studies was combining theory and practice in translation. The more I read, the more I felt that it was not what I thought. The book Translation Studies written by Bassnett (1980) actually was something talking of literary translation. It was not a book talking about how to use theory in practice.*

They admitted that cultural approaches of translation were not easy for them to describe and questioned how they could use them to resolve practical problems in translation.

Encouraged by the probing questions in the follow-up interviews, C2 students said that they knew some terms relating to functionalist theories of translation. However, few talked about what these theories were or about how they were used in translation. C2-3 said, '*I knew this strand (she meant functionalist approaches) by reading Munday's* Introducing Translation Studies (2001). *His book was one of the*

reference books we should read. We did not have any translation exercises for applying these theories.' Most C2 students assumed that functionalist theories were similar to systemic-functional linguistics (e.g. Halliday, 1985). C2-5 said:

> *We read some summarised ideas in Munday's (2001) book. Our teacher didn't say too much about them. He mentioned some theorists who studied to functionalist theories of translation, such* as *Katharina Reiss, Hans J. Vermeer and Christiana Nord. There were more but I can't remember. I felt that it was easier for me to accept Halliday's Functional-Systemic linguistics.*

They confessed that they did not know how to use them because they knew only some terms.

When they were asked whether they had something to say about cultural theories of translation, most C2 students associated them with the translation task said that they were relevant. However, students said that they did not think that that task needed any cultural theories: they would not use cultural approaches unless they could recognise those words or descriptions which were culturally bound and exotic. For this, some of them gave examples such as '*jiaozi* 饺子' (dumpling), '*zongzi* 粽子' (steamed sticky rice dumpling), '*kuaizi* 筷子' (chopsticks), and *baxianzhuo* 八仙桌 (a table for eight people to sit around). In a note of reservation, however, some of them did not think that cultural approaches meant only to translate some cultural-bound words, but viewed cultural theories of translation as a translation process. Confusingly, though, they did not think that this process was translatable in a sense.

The opinions from the UK3 students showed that they had learned the main ideas of functionalist theories of translation. This was identical to their recognition (see Table 4.4 and Section 4.4.3). They named representative scholars like Vermeer

(1989/2000), Reiss (1989) and Nord (1997). They included a range of related concepts such as function, purpose, *Skopos*, translational action, loyalty, translation problems or errors and translation strategies. However, UK3-1 from Taiwan mentioned that she felt somewhat confused about these concepts. She said, '*it seems to me that these concepts have different meanings, but I could not understand them very well and did not know how to use them in translation'*. As for the cultural approaches of translation, UK3 students said, without elaboration, that that would depend on the translation brief.

5.4.4 Prescriptions, norms and ethics of translation

The questions relating to descriptions of translation did not receive active responses from participants. Their opinions appeared to be mainly based on Toury's *Descriptive Translation Studies*, but their foci were different.

Students in C1 said that they had difficulty understanding Toury's *Descriptive Translation Studies* (1995). They assumed that descriptive theory of translation was a tentative theory. Their common question was: what was a descriptive theory of translation for? A few C1 students mentioned some relevant terms like rules, norms and conventions. C1-3 said, '*Descriptive theories of translation seem important. I didn't know why I had difficulty understanding it. It easily led me to link it to Holmes' concept of Descriptive Translation Studies. I am very confused by both of them*.' In terms of the use of rules and norms of translation, some participants maintained that the two words 'rule' and 'norm' had the same meaning in Chinese. C1-4 said：

> *'It was difficult to explain clearly these words of norms, laws, rules and conventions in Chinese. They were very similar to us in their Chinese meaning. After all, these terms came*

from Western thoughts. When they were expressed in Chinese, I felt that their original meaning were lost and became confused.'

The field notes from the post-task interview with C1 group indicated that the students disliked talking about descriptive translation theory and said that they could not engage within it apart from learning a few technical terms (fieldnotes_27032008).

Students in C2 said that they did not understand a body of thought about descriptive theories of translation except from reading Toury's *Descriptive Translation Studies* (1995). They mentioned that their teacher had impressed them with definitions of relevant terms, like norms, conventions, laws and systems. As C2-4 said, '*I heard that descriptive theory of translation was prevailing. Our teacher asked us to read Toury's* Descriptive Translation Studies *(1995) if we wanted to know more. I found that I couldn't understand it very well*.' Four students agreed with him. C2-6 added:

> *I wanted to know what descriptive theory of translation was. I felt that I also had difficult reading his book. His theory of norms seemed an important part. I wondered if I could associate it with rules of translation or ethics of translation.*

Most C2 students went on to suggest that courses of translation theory should provide them with details of descriptive theory of translation.

Students in UK3 said that they had learned some main ideas of descriptive theory of translation from Theo Hermans (1985 and 1999), Itamar Even-Zohar (1990) and Gideon Toury (1995). They asserted that terms such as polysystem, systems, norms, conventions, manipulation and patronage gave them a new taste for translation though they could not understand all of them. As UK3-1 from Taiwan commented, '*These theorists gave their opinions of descriptive theory of translation from*

different angles. Though I could not understand all, they helped me not focus on translation at word and sentence levels.' They mentioned that the reading papers, tutorials and assignments were very good stimuli for them to grasp or understand these terms better (presumably through discussion and interaction). Some of them also mentioned that they felt that description of translation gave attention to target readership but not to translators' roles or functions in translation. UK3-7 from China said:

> *It seems to me that descriptive theory of translation put emphasis on the issues of target text and target readers. I felt that Toury's (1995) theory of norms should emphasise not only what a translation should be but also what translator should think and do. Both of them would happen during translating.*

Section 5.4 has displayed participants' perceptions of some conceptual theories they had learned. Their opinions were diverse and individual. While they were quite conversant with some theories, the discussions exposed major gaps within the full range of available theories: some confusions, partial or misunderstandings, and absence of knowledge were evident; there was hesitation, insecurity and reluctance to say much about the application of several significant theories, although in general all groups claimed that theories were important and went hand-in-hand with translation practices. Based on their opinions, C1 and C2 showed that their focus was on linguistic approaches to translation, and that they did not have more theoretical input on cultural, functionalist and descriptive approaches than UK3. Their perceptions suggest that building up a solid body of translation theory applicable to teaching, plus a consideration of relevant classroom pedagogy, would be significant for the immediate development of the teaching of translation.

5.5 Overall summary

Chapter 5 has presented participants' perceptions of translation in various respects. First, they talked about their performance in a translation task by commenting on the translation text which was used in the task. They expressed their reactions to their translated products and attitudes to translation theory applicable to teaching. The expressed hesitation, uncertainty and, for many, a lack of confidence in their translation performance suggest that it is important to pay attention to building up translation students' self-awareness and self-confidence. All the participants in the post-task interviews expressed the view that learning translation theory is indispensable, though they came from different higher education backgrounds. C1 and C2 had limited their theoretical study to linguistic theories of translation, while UK3 commented on the theories they had learned, a broader range. Second, participants gave their opinions of how translation theory and its relevant components would contribute to translation quality. On the one hand, they thought theoretically that their improvement in translation quality would be affected by the scope and content of translation theory, the combination of theory and practice, and the cultivation of translation competence. On the other hand, in terms of translation pedagogy, they considered that translation textbooks, material selection, teaching methods and assessment methods played important roles in improving translation quality. Among the three groups, C1 and C2 groups had experienced inadequacies both in theoretical input and pedagogical arrangements. It was apparent that most of the students, and some or many in all groups, relied quite heavily on textbooks and teacher input for their knowledge: there was very little evidence of independent learning of key concepts and theories or self-study of a kind that related theory to practice. Third, students' perceptions revealed the kind of translation theory they

had been exposed to. They also showed the differences in translation theory the students from the three different case programmes had been taught. Most students felt confident about one or two theories which they could discuss meaningfully and comfortably and they felt this knowledge was helpful to their practice. However, for many students, there was ambiguity or a lack of clarity about the meanings of key theoretical terms, a lack of exposure or understanding of some types of theories implying weaker areas of theoretical knowledge, and wide uncertainty about how some theories were relevant or how they might be applied in practice. Although students had agreed the importance of theory in general, the translation tasks and students interviews reveal considerable theory-practice gaps.

During the time of conducting post-task interviews with the participants from the three groups, I listened to their voices. I understood them as a teacher, as one who has been a student, and as a person who has some familiarity with their contexts of learning and with the translating profession they aspire to join. Their views, whether from Chinese groups or the UK group, reflected that they strongly wanted to have good translation competence after they finished their studies in translation programmes. They maintained that the academic knowledge and professional practice in translation should be constructed through the time of studying institutionally. These insider voices need complementary perspectives including some from documents relevant to their courses, especially course syllabi, teaching methods and assessments. Chapter 6 will explore these issues with further discussion.

Chapter 6 Findings and discussion: curriculum and syllabus analysis

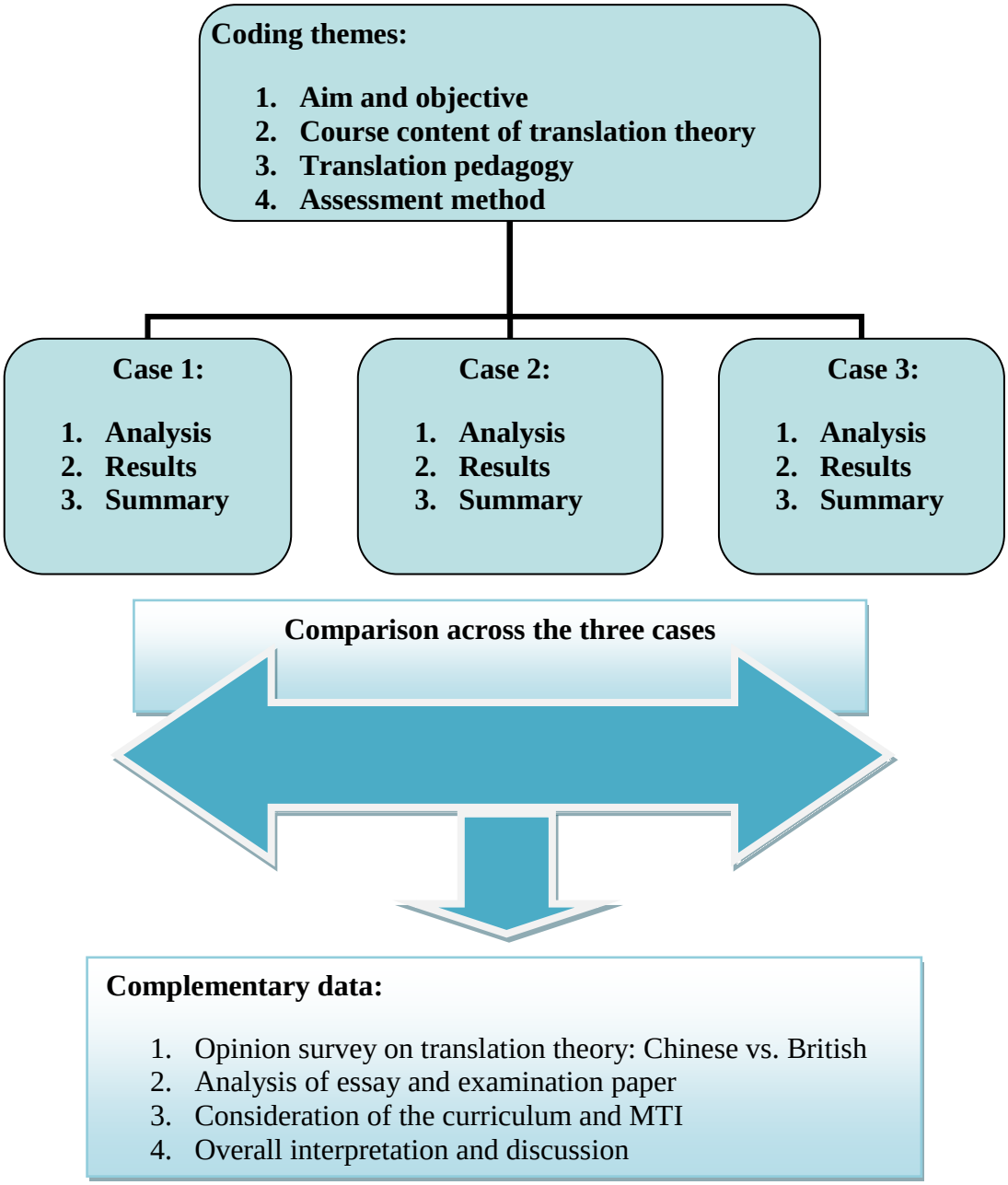


Fig. 6.1: Chart showing the organization of reporting the case analyses for the document analysis and further exploration by added data

The analysis of curriculum documents was carried out in order to support the data from the translation task and the post-task interviews. Thus, the results from the document analysis are to be linked to both of these in order to reveal and explore the relations between the different cases as appropriate. As Barnett and Coate put it:

> *[...] a curriculum is a set of educational experiences organized more or less deliberately and that pedagogy is concerned with the acts of teaching that bring off that curriculum. Here, pedagogy becomes a handmaiden to curriculum: curriculum sets out the aims and pedagogy looks to realize those aims in the most efficacious way.* (2005: 5)

This statement of a curriculum sounds rather idealistic, but Barnett and Coate suggest that there is a continuum of aims, curriculum content and pedagogy. In this sense, the translation curriculum and pedagogy can be examined and analysed for the three programme cases. The three programme cases have been introduced in their contexts (See Appendix 8 and Sections 3.2.4); this chapter focuses on the implications of the curriculum and pedagogy of each case for translation quality. Specifically, it will offer documentary support for the analysis of this study in four sections. The first section displays the curriculum aims and objectives of the three programme cases in which the participants studied. The second section analyses the course syllabi and contents of translation theory to explore the extent to which there might be connections between their representation of translation theory and the competence of the participants. The third section examines the forms of translation pedagogy which was applied in the three case programmes. The fourth section analyses their methods of assessment. This is followed by a conclusion.

6.1 Programme aims and objectives

The aims and objectives of a translation programme govern the design of its curriculum and are critical to the programme's success or failure. This section

focuses on presenting and analysing information regarding the aims and objectives of the programme for each case. The information was extracted from the full texts of the programme description in Appendix 8. Perceptions from interviewees including the students, heads or teachers of translation in the research sites are also reviewed and taken into account (exemplified in Section 3.3.1.2). The aims and objectives from each case are presented in a text box followed by their analysis and exploration.

6.1.1 Programme aims and objectives in C1

The C1 students studied an MA in Conference Interpreting and Translation Studies (MACITS). According to the documents collected from the school and the information of this programme on its website, this programme was a two-and-half year full time course. It was allied to the fields of Linguistics and Applied Linguistics run by the School of Translation and Interpreting.

Fig. 6.2: Aim and objectives of MACITS for C1

Programme aim: This programme aims to turn out translators/interpreters competent for tasks on important occasions and teachers of translation/interpreting, highly qualified for teaching positions at the university level.
Objectives: This programme will offer intensive study in linguistic theory and the theory and practice of translation as well as translation research methodology. It will offer quality education to individuals who wanted to devote themselves to interpreting and translation, who determine to develop a global vision, a sense of innovation, and a great competence in intercultural communication.
This programme will help students lay a solid foundation in both English and Chinese and to equip them with a good command of skills required of competent interpreters and translators to conduct high-level interpreting and translation work in such areas as international relations, diplomacy, foreign economics and trade, culture and technology.

The main points of the programme aims and objectives are displayed in Fig. 6.2. Training students to have competence for translation and interpreting and providing translation theory and practice were the key concerns. The students from C1 group

suggested that there should be a coherent system of theory and pedagogy to support and fulfil the aims and objectives where these concerns were stated (see C2 students' translation script_16-21).

The programme profile stated that the school was to educate and train students according to educational requirements, conceptual and practical knowledge of translation studies and an international standard for conference interpreting and translation. To achieve this goal, the school claimed that all the university's resources for interpreting and translation teaching and research had been integrated for training high-calibre professionals in conformity with the principles of modern higher education and harmonious socio-economic development. The school also claimed to have a highly qualified teaching team with rich experience in both the theory and practice of interpreting and translation. The staff webpage of the school showed that there were nineteen teachers involved in translation and interpreting (in the academic year 2009-2010).

One of the school heads I visited during the investigation was proud of this programme (see C1 head's fieldnotes_24032008). He regarded the programme's aims and objectives as well designed, and claimed that it was tailor-made to meet students' needs, both professional and social. He exemplified what he said with details of some programme graduates' work positions, which indicated that this programme was training high-quality translators and interpreters who were appropriately employed later. The six teachers of translation in the school I interviewed indicated that the programme aims and objectives sounded good - without considering relevant course planning and pedagogic aspects. They pointed

out that the issue of whether aims and objectives were reasonable should be considered in connection with other aspects such as the philosophy of designing this programme, course design, teaching force and pedagogy (see C1 teachers' fieldnotes_25032008). The aim of turning out translators 'highly qualified for teaching' seems difficult to realize in the absence of a strong orientation towards translation pedagogies and the absence of teacher training elements.

Referring to what the students who studied this programme thought of the programme aims and objectives, C1 students' translation script has shown that while they broadly accepted them, they did not think that the aim and objectives were linked well with the instructional objectives of core courses (e.g. C1 students' translation script_15-17). In effect, the students in C1 thought that they were not well informed of the instructional objectives of courses. Two of the students, C1-3 and C1-7, came to chat with me after the post-task interview. Indicating their awareness of contextual constraints and that the previous presence of facilitators (see chapter 3) had had an inhibiting effect on their expression, they told me that they dare not say what they wanted. C1 students' fieldnotes_27032008 noted down what C1-3 said, '*The programme aims and objectives were appealing to us. After we had had the programme, we knew that some stages and arrangements, for example practice courses and theory input, were insufficient to fit in the aims and objectives.*' This leads to further exploration of what supported the programme aims and objectives.

6.1.2 Programme aims and objectives in C2

Students in C2 studied an MA programme in English and American Literature oriented to translation (MAEAL with translation orientation). According to the programme profiles I reviewed on site during my investigation, the information relevant to this programme showed that it belonged to the MA programme for Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics with a translation orientation for which the faculty was renowned nationally. This programme was also a two-and-half year full time course (excluding internships).

However, detailed information of the MAEAL with translation orientation could not be seen on the webpage of the Faculty. In fact, the single programme aim shown in Fig. 6.2 was actually an aim for all the MA programmes in Foreign Linguistics & Applied Linguistics run at the Faculty, which appeared to operate at a very high level of generality.

Fig. 6.3: Aim of MAEAL with translation orientation for C2

Programme aim: This programme aimed to bring out specialists with solid theoretical foundation and strong analytical ability.

Moreover, I could not obtain further official statements from the faculty documents nor from the Head and Chair of English Department, although the Head confirmed that there should be some documents specifying aims. He recommended that I should discuss this with the chair of English Department and review the programme profiles and the faculty webpage (C2 head's fieldnotes_16042008). The chair referred me to the BA programme, which contained some 200-words of information

for the BA programme, but unsurprisingly not the MA programme specification (Appendix 8).

This lack of specificity in the aims and objectives of the C2 programme – at least in a format publicly available and to students - may well have contributed to some of the more negative outcomes for the translation tasks (see Chapter 4) and some of the negative comments reported (in Chapter 5). However, the overall MA area information indicated that there were four areas of study. Among them was the MA in English and American Literature (MAEAL) with translation orientation. There was no further information to describe this programme other than a list of the different courses. Much space in the programme profiles was given to introducing the history of the faculty, political and ideological requirements for students who chose to study at the faculty, and famous people with their research interests and contributions. This could give the impression that this programme relied somewhat on its reputation and past success. This MAEAL programme with a translation orientation shared the general programme aim: it aimed 'to bring out specialists with solid theoretical foundation and strong analytical ability' (Fig. 6.2).

The chair of English Department of the faculty also indicated to me that this programme was welcomed by postgraduate students (C2 head's interview notes_14042008). He explained how it provided their graduates with possible career opportunities, because studying foreign literature in China was neither practical nor made it easy to find employment (see C2 teachers' translation script_16). One of its students, C2-1, had also shared her opinions about this (see C2 students' translation script_16). While C2 students did not directly question the programme aims and

objectives, they expressed their concerns about the modules which were arranged with language learning. They did not think that these modules appeared sufficient for their professional and study needs.

6.1.3 Programme aims and objectives in UK3

Although the programme which students from UK3 studied had the same name as the C1 programme, the two programmes were different in their aims and orientations. As it claimed, C1 aimed to turn out not only competent translators/interpreters but also 'highly qualified' teachers of translation and interpreting. The MACITS for UK3 was one of the 12-month taught postgraduate courses offered by a UK Centre for Translation Studies. As the centre's website stated, these courses were 'distinctly vocational', because most students were 'aiming at employment as a professional linguist.' The information about this programme on the centre website also showed that the teaching team which involved collaborating contracted practitioners and academic members of staff. All programmes relating to translation and interpreting at the centre included practising translators, sub-titlers or interpreters working for the EU, UN or other organisations.

Fig. 6.4: Goal and aim of MACITS for UK3

Common goal for the vocational programmes:
They will enable students to develop into fully operational interpreters, translators and subtitlers, while acquiring a firm grounding in translation theory, as expected at masters level. They will also provide a sound basis for undertaking a research degree.
Programme aim: This programme aimed to enable students to acquire advanced interpreting skills which you can apply in a professional capacity.
Objectives: The programme will provide linguists, from the UK and abroad, who meet the entry requirements of the programme, with the opportunity to develop the skills of professional interpreting and translating and consolidate these skills by acquiring familiarity with a wide range of issues in the field of international affairs, politics, international business and science and technology. It will also provide an introduction to translation theory and research methods. It will enable graduates to apply the skills gained at the highest level in major international, governmental and non-governmental organizations, as well as in commerce, diplomacy, industry and the academic world.

The main information about the programme goal and aim of MACITS for UK3 (in Fig. 6.4) shows how requirements for teachers and students in interpreting teaching were documented. For example, programme profiles described that intensive 'hands-on' teaching of interpreting would be offered by professional conference interpreters according to international practice. The students who had interpreting in their programmes would have interpreting classes in an interpreting suite and simulate interpreting through training and creating a 'remote interpreting' scenario via a video link. These UK3 students were required to specialise in conference interpreting. The course provided experience in simultaneous interpretation as a member of student team in regular mock conferences with external delegates. Such learning activities created real-world situations which challenged students and trained them to confront any shyness and timidity in fieldwork so that they could build up their self-awareness and confidence for interpreting. This is what Kussmaul (1995) and Colina (2003) argue for: the importance of establishing students' self-awareness and self-confidence in translation teaching. In fact, Colina suggests that 'translation teaching needs to incorporate them as goals into curriculum design and course design' (2003: 41).

The centre running the programme had a user-friendly webpage: the teacher who assisted this investigation confirmed that the module information and programme catalogue was open and accessible to all potential candidates. They used the webpage as a window through which their programmes could be viewed all over the world. The UK3 students themselves favoured the programme they studied: they

considered that the programme aims and objectives were clear but the level was a bit high for them, compared to their European peers.

6.1.4 Relations between data sets

The section above showed that the three programme cases had differences and similarities in their aims and specifications (see Table 6.1). While the three programme cases from different regions and educational systems had requirements and were housed in different institutional contexts, this alone does not explain all differences. In terms of each programme's aims and objectives, the differences and similarities presented were not intended to conform to a supposed one-size-fits-all pattern. On the contrary, they exposed the strengths and weaknesses of each case. Among the three cases, C2 had very general programme specifications which failed to state its aims and objectives adequately in the programme documentation. C1 and UK3 had programmes with the same name, but they turned out to be different. However, there were two common aspects among the aims and objectives of the three programme specifications. First, they all stressed the importance of laying a solid theoretical foundation for students. Second, the common purpose for their programmes was to attain communicative translation competence for their students. Based on this point, the three programmes tended to combine theoretical components with the acquisition of translation or interpreting skills and competence or ability.

To explore further, in connection with the opinions of the students from the three programmes, the following sections will set out their courses of translation theory

with the cultivation of translation competence, translation pedagogy and assessment methods.

Table 6.1: Summary for the aims and specifications in the three cases

Case code	***Subject/Programme***	***Degree***	***Programme aim/goal***	***Programme description***
C1	Conference Interpreting and Translation Studies	MA in Applied Linguistics	To turn out translators/interpreters competent for tasks on important occasions and teachers of translation/interpreting, highly qualified for teaching positions at the university level	This programme offers intensive study in linguistic theory and the theory and practice of translation as well as translation research methodology;
C2	English and American Literature with Translation Orientation	MA in English Language and Literature	To cultivate specialists with a solid theoretical foundation and strong analytical ability.	Not locatable: relate to BA's description. It's designed mainly to bring up high-level personnel specialized in English to be engaged in teaching, translation, research, and administration.
UK3	Conference Interpreting and Translation Studies	MA in Conference and Translation Studies	To enable students to acquire advanced translation and liaison interpreting skills which they can apply in a professional capacity. They do not do simultaneous interpreting.	Will provide linguists, from the UK and abroad, with the opportunity to develop the skills of professional interpreting and translating Will also provide an introduction to translation theory and research methods.

6.2 Course syllabi content of translation theory

The course syllabi of each case were reviewed in order to examine how the programmes realised their aim of laying a solid theoretical foundation for translation students, and to explore whether conceptual theories were applied in developing students' translation competence. According to Breen, a syllabus is part of the overall curriculum which comprises 'aims, content, methodology and evaluation'; within this framework, it is the syllabus which 'identifies what will be worked upon by the teacher and students in terms of content selected to be appropriate to overall aims (2009: 151). In this sense, reviewing a course syllabus will help to understand how a course is planned and what is intended to be achieved through teaching and learning. With the purpose of exploring the research questions, this section will present the course syllabi and translation theory content of each case programme, with an overview presented in the figures below. The performance and perceptions of the student participants will be referred to, along with accompanying perceptions of relevant teachers of translation where necessary. To enable consistent analysis and exploration, one course syllabus which related to translation theory was selected from each case.

6.2.1 Syllabus of Introduction to Translation Studies

The syllabus content relating to translation theory for C1 showed that there were different theoretical courses available relevant to translation (Appendix 9). For a careful examination, I chose the course Introduction to Translation Studies as an example. The objectives and syllabus of the course are summarised in Fig. 6.5. The syllabus showed that students were required to translate three 500-word texts. One was an excerpt from *Dream of the Red Chamber*, a famous Qing dynasty Chinese

novel by Cao Xueqin (1715-1763?). One was an excerpt of an economics paper and the other was an English text. These translation exercises were completed under a tutor's supervision.

Fig. 6.5: Introduction to Translation Studies for C1

Objective: After students finish this course, they will be able to have an overall knowledge of translation theory and use it to guide their practice. They will be able to apply flexibly all kinds of translation skills. They will be able to have competent ability to do the tasks of English-Chinese translation and deal with various translation phenomena. **Syllabus:** The main units include translation theory and skills, Chinese translation tradition, Translation Studies, translation and culture, theoretical rules of translation manipulation, linguistic approaches of translation, cognition of translator and interpreter, language units of translation, and contrast of English-Chinese and Chinese-English translation.

The Introduction to Translation Studies was a compulsory course, but there was no information to indicate how it related to other courses on the programme. While the scope of the content reflected in the syllabus was multidimensional, as the students in C1 said (in Section 5.2.1), it was also scattered and operated at a high level of generality. C1 students maintained that they learned a lot of theories, but did not know how to use what they learned. For example, C1-4, one of the five students who had commented on the ideal scope of translation theory said:

> *I learned many theories. I don't think that I really understood them well except for remembering concepts and their definitions. When translating, what I could do was using grammar rules and looking for equivalent words.*

His words were supported by the translation task data which indicated that the students in C1 used lexical and word string level translation approaches more than the other two groups.

Moreover, the opinions from the six teachers of translation I interviewed in this case suggested that they had a complex attitude to the translation theory they taught. Though the field notes showed that they agreed that the courses of translation

theory were necessary, they had a negative view of what was actually offered. Some of them had an ambiguous approach to teaching translation theory. On the one hand, they thought that translation theory was important, but they admitted that they had no time to develop their own knowledge of translation theories, especially regarding recent trends in Translation Studies. On the other hand, they were aware that the courses of translation theory were excessive and overlapped, and thought that less theory was appropriate. One of them explained the theory courses in terms of boosting teachers' workload allocations:

> *If we didn't have these theoretical courses, some teachers in the School would not have enough working hours. I think that translation courses demand more practice. Though courses of translation theory do not work efficiently for doing translation, they are necessary for those teachers who do not have enough workload. It is enough for students to know some concepts and definitions. In fact, doing translation does not need more theory.*
>
> (C1teachers translation cript_6K)

This negative attitude from the teachers and their admitted lack of knowledge of translation theory may understandably have had some impact upon the quality of their teaching on the programme.

6.2.2 Syllabus of Translation Theory

According to the C2 syllabus (Appendix 9), there were four theoretical courses relating to translation theory: Translation Theory, Theory and Application of Translation, Discourse and Translation, and Culture and Translation. As the Chair of the English Department of the Faculty confirmed (C2 head's interview notes_14042008), these courses in translation theory focused on different perspectives given by different teachers. Parallel to C1, I chose the course of

Translation Theory as an example, which was a compulsory core course. Its objectives and syllabus are presented in Fig. 6.6.

Fig. 6.6: Course in Translation theory for C2

Objective: This course is designed to inform students of the development of translation and help them know the relations of different stages of translation. It starts from three areas: source language and target language, source text and target text, as well as subjectivity. On finishing this course, students should know linguistic characteristics in translation, the essence of translation process and the relation of translation theory and practice.

Syllabus: The units in this course cover overall of translation returns: language, text and subjectivity; linguistic perspective of translation, including linguistic contrasts of source language and target language, linguistic expressions of source language and target language, language philosophy of English, and language philosophy of Chinese and its inspiration to translation; textuality covering literary texts, poetic texts, philosophical, social and scientific texts, and historical texts; subjectivity of translation; cultural identity of translators including interpreter, reader, traitor or creator, and poet or author; disciplinary view of translation referring to translation and linguistics, translation and philosophy, translation and natural science; conclusion and examination.

The syllabus showed that the scope and the content of this course were systematic, and it seems that many areas of translation theory were covered. However, the students indicated that they were not happy with the courses of translation theory on their programme (see Section 5.2.1): they complained that the theory they learned focused mainly on Chinese literary translation. They admitted that they had been given different theories of translation, but they said that there were still concepts and definitions they could not understand: consequently they could not figure out how these concepts really functioned in translation. In the interviews with their translation teachers, they said that they had taught the translation theories required at Masters level according to the course plan, but they mentioned some limitations such as their own knowledge background, heavy workload and limited availability of reference books. One said:

> *We agree that translation teaching needs theory. According to the course planning, we tried to organise the content, but we felt that students were not interested in conceptual knowledge. We chose to talk more Chinese translation tradition, but they also showed no interest at all. For me, it is hard to decide as to what I should lecture, how I should input and how to assess if students have what they were lectured.*

(C2 teachers' translation script_16-17)

Obviously there was a gap between what was officially stated in the contents of the syllabus and what actually happened in teaching. In fact, it appeared to be problematic for the C2 participants what a course of translation theory should be, how it should be taught and how it should be assessed to fulfil the objectives.

6.2.3 Syllabus of Methods and Approaches in Translation Studies

The webpage of the curriculum for UK3 showed that there were two core modules in the MACITS. One module was Methods and Approaches in Translation Studies (Appendix 9); the other module was Interpreting Skills. Each module had an informative description showing module code, study length, module manager and relevant contact address. The core objectives and syllabus of this module are presented in Fig. 6.7. In addition, this module also informed students of its teaching methods, methods of assessment and reading list, along with the description of its learning outcomes, transferable skills and learning context.

Fig. 6.7: Methods and Approaches in Translation Studies for UK3

Objective: On completion of this module, students should be able to make use of the theoretical concepts studied in order to improve their practical translation performance. They should be able to use their familiarity with the features of a number of English text-types to develop effective translation strategies. They should be able to approach translation tasks with an awareness of how to solve common translation problems. They should be able to undertake a research exercise such as an MA dissertation or translation project.

Syllabus: The main aim of this module is to serve as an introduction to the theoretical issues relevant to translation. Areas to be covered will include: types of translation; limitations of interlingual equivalence; general translation problems; translation evaluation. Specific approaches to the translation of general, literary and subject-specific texts will also be considered. In this connection a number of different English-Language text-types will be studied with a view to facilitating the production of fluent translations in various genres; the registers examined will be those which will form the basis of the practical translation work in the Specialised Translation Modules. Practice will also be given in conducting similar analysis on further text-types which might be encountered in a professional context. Finally, one component of the module is designed to give students grounding in the research methods and IT skills necessary to undertake advanced work in Translation Studies.

The syllabus indicated that the module uses different texts to help students to understand the theoretical issues relating to translation. It stipulated it would train students to practise translation to fit into a professional context. It also provided students with research methodology and IT competence for translation. This module design showed that the syllabus was coherent with its objectives. The syllabus demonstrated that texts of different genres would be used in teaching; these texts would be used in connection with professional needs as specified in its programme specification. According to one of the UK3 students, the translation theory they learned was 'practical and meaningful' (see Section 5.2.2). The UK3 students also confirmed that although they had problems with different concepts and definitions of translation, generally speaking they were in favour of the theoretical issues they learned. Besides this positive orientation, the data from the UK3 students indicated how the theoretical knowledge they had learned substantially helped them with the translation task (see Section 4.4.3), which is a confirmation that their positive views seem warranted in practice.

6.2.4 Relations between data sets

Exploring the course syllabi relevant to translation theory of each case programme, the analysis showed that there was a connection between instructional objectives and the content of translation theory. However, while this is to be anticipated, the relationship revealed in each case was different. In C1, the instructional objectives claimed that after students finished the course, they would be able to use the 'knowledge of translation theory to guide their practice' and 'apply flexibly all kinds of translation skills'. Its syllabus showed that the content of translation theory was not systematic or progressive but topical. The methods or means of realising

the instructional objectives through the content topics were not introduced. Though I could not find out during the investigation what kind and how many texts the course used, it would seem that the requirement of translating the three 500-word excerpts would be insufficient help students reach the objectives. Pedagogy and assessment aside, on this programme either the instructional objectives were too ambitious or the content of translation theory was operating at too high a level of generality. Neither aspect worked efficiently so that students could build a solid theoretical foundation for their translation competence, since they appeared to be neither consistent nor coherent.

The C2 instructional objectives of their course in Translation Theory claimed mainly to inform students of a general knowledge about the history of translation, the major features of translation, the essence of the translation process, and the relation between translation theory and practice. The syllabus displayed that the content of this course started systematically with three areas of language, text and subjectivity. However, while I would assess the content as rich in translation theory, it was questionable exactly what the course aimed at and how the aim was actually realized. The conflicting issue of teaching and learning translation theory for C2 is apparent, since this course appeared 'conceptual and abstract' to the students, lacking something in its design. If this course of Translation Theory was 'pure' - as some of the students commented - , a practical course in Chinese-English Translation for C2 would have complemented the 'pure' translation theory. However, the C2 syllabus showed that the only units relevant to practical translation were translating words, sentences or excerpts: the main purpose for these units was to prepare students to deal with the translation examination in Band 8 of the CET.

This is why the students in C2 said that the theories they learned mainly focused on linguistic and grammatical approaches (in Section 5.2.2).

Relatively speaking, the syllabus of the module of Methods and Approaches in Translation Studies for UK3 was consistent with its instructional objectives. These objectives were set out in a purposeful and concrete manner, and the content of the course was coherent with them. This was demonstrated not only because the objectives were realized in the content, but also because varied subject texts with different text types were used to realise and deliver a coherent set of objectives and content.

The course syllabi and contents of translation theory offered by C1 and C2 both entailed extensive theoretical knowledge on the part of their students. These courses appeared to present their students with the entire range of theories relevant to translation. However, without a strongly applied pedagogical element, this also suggests that they only help students to attain knowledge of translation theories at a shallow level. It would be very hard for students to absorb and digest this extensive theoretical knowledge without strong and adequate pedagogical methods to help students apply them and understand them through practice. Such a course of translation theory risks becoming a course about 'knowing' and not a 'doing' course, one that entails declarative knowledge rather procedural knowledge (Ulrych 2005: 18). On the other hand, the UK3 students' data on their performance and perceptions indicated that there was an efficient and effective way to help the students understand the theoretical issues and enable them to use what they learned – the teaching method. This will be explored further in the following section.

6.3 Translation pedagogy and teaching methods

To continue to examine the translation theory curricula offered by the three programme cases, this section will focus on information relevant to pedagogic methods of teaching translation theory. Following Green's viewpoint, teaching methodology relates to how teachers and learners work upon the content stipulated in a course plan (2009: 151). Interpreting this statement, the teaching methods of each case should be examined to see how the content of each course was accomplished pedagogically.

6.3.1 Arrangements for teaching Introduction to Translation Studies

The curriculum for C1 showed that the Introduction to Translation Studies course was a compulsory course in the MA programme in Conference Interpreting and Translation Studies. The information of pedagogic arrangements for this course is presented in Fig. 6.8. This course was worth 2 credits out of a total of 28 credits which each student needed to complete for the degree.

Fig. 6.8: Pedagogic planning for Introduction to Translation Studies for C1

Teaching style: Teacher-centred; examination-based learning
Teaching methods: Lecture, discussion, self-learning based on teacher's requirements
Total lecture hours: 25 hours including discussion and translation exercises
Tutorial hours: *not specified*
Private study hours: 8
Total hours: 36
Textbook: three translation textbooks required, but the teacher who lectures self-edited these materials.
Selection material: two 500-word Chinese excerpts and a 500-word English text as translation exercises for students
Tasks for private study of students: translation criteria; translation and aesthetics; text translation

The course syllabus showed that the course took in total 25 lecture hours in addition to 8 hours for students' private study and 3 hours for tutorials. This tutorial time, as planned, was an event that took place before a final examination in which teachers answered questions that students raised about the course and its examination. This course was in lecture mode to a large class comprising about 60-80.

The C1 students expressed a sense of helplessness about class size (see Section 5.3.3). The course curriculum indicated that this course should include discussions in lectures. However, the recounted experiences of the students attested that 'discussion' was a time of doing translation exercises in groups on an ad hoc basis (see Sections 5.3.2 and 5.3.3). This means that it was likely that the students had little opportunity to discuss the theoretical issues they had encountered in lectures - a significant gap especially when some admittedly did not hear or understand lectures properly (in Section 5.3.3). Besides, the C1 students were also dissatisfied with the teaching methods they experienced because they complained that in their view, their teachers of translation were not competent to teach translation theory (C1 students' translation script_22-28). C1 students' translation scripts indicated that half of the C1 students expressed strong opinions in the interviews about having had inappropriate teachers to teach them translation. Students in C1 had a general impression that courses of translation theory were boring. C1-1 said, '*Most of theoretical courses were boring. If I didn't attend, I would fail in the final examination. Attending these classes meant taking notes.*'

For further evidence of this, I looked at the educational backgrounds and work experience of the teachers I interviewed (see Table 6. 2): in some obvious ways, the quality of teachers plays an important role for executing teaching methods.

Table 6.2: Information of teachers of translation for C1

Information / Teacher No	age	gender	degree	subject	position	Lecture courses
1	42	M	MA	English	Associate professor	English, Translation
2	38	M	MA*	Translation	Lecturer	Interpreting, English
3	40	F	MA	English	Lecturer	English, Translation
4	50	M	BA	Linguistics	Associate professor	English, Translation
5	48	M	MA	Linguistics	Associate professor	English, Translation
6	44	F	MA	English	Associate professor	English, Literature, Translation

* indicates that the degree was obtained not in domestic universities.

Taking into account their education background, the teachers of translation for C1 were all educated in English or Linguistics. Moreover, I was informed by the Head of the School of Translation and Interpreting that those teachers who taught translation were very experienced and ‘competent’ English teachers, and some of them had translation experience. However, the performance of the students in the translation task and their stated opinions gave contrary indications - although experienced and competent as language teachers, these academics did not appear to be capable of teaching translation theory and professional translation. It seems likely that their teaching of translation was largely based on language teaching approaches; however, my own work experience as a translation programme designer and staff selector suggests to me that teaching methods for translation

cannot be based on those of language teaching; if this is the case, it constitutes a weakness.

6.3.2 Teaching arrangements for Translation Theory

The course in Translation Theory was a compulsory course in the curriculum for C2. Relevant information about its teaching arrangements is displayed in Fig. 6.9. Similar to the C1 course Introduction of Translation Studies, this course was worth 2 credits out of a total of 32 credits each student needed to complete successfully to meet the degree requirement. It comprised a total of 37 hours for lectures, plus 3 hours for tutorials. Students were encouraged to do research and reading in three areas: comparison between Western and Chinese translation perspectives; influences of Western and Chinese cultures on translation and the identity of a translator's subjectivity. The C2 documents showed that little information was specified and it was unclear whether or how such reading would be checked, shared, discussed or how feedback on students' understanding might be given: in other words, students may or may not do it.

Fig. 6.9: Teaching style and teaching methods for Translation Theory for C2

Teaching style: Teacher-centred; examination-based learning **Teaching methods:** Lecture **Total lecture hours:** 37 hours **Tutorial hours:** 3 **Private study hours:** Not specified **Total hours:** 40 **Textbook:** Xu Jun, (2006) *On Translation* Fu Bei Education Press. **Selection material:** Not specified **Tasks for private study:** Not specified

The content of this C2 course and its teaching methods indicate that the course was delivered on a teacher-centred basis. With reference to this teacher-centred

approach, not only was the class size large (as C1), but most of the C2 students commented that the type of teaching methods their teachers used to deliver their translation courses seemed like their way of teaching language (see Section 5.3.3) - these students would have many years of previous experienced of language teaching methods. I understand their viewpoint because the students in my own context (in another university in China) had similar opinions. They knew what they needed and expected from translation courses. When they found what they received was not what they needed, they were disappointed. From this personal experience, I understand that methods of teaching language like 'small discussion groups and presentations' which the C2 teachers used actually could not deliver what the Translation Theory course syllabus stipulated. As C2-8 put it, their translation exercises were still entangled in analysing language points. This means those rich theoretical components in the course syllabus were replaced by basic and elementary language skills which were repeated in class in one form or another. Unsurprisingly, C2 students complained that the theoretical knowledge they learned was 'superficial' (see Section 5.2.2).

C2 students did not use explicit terms to comment on their teachers of translation in the interviews. Tactfully and indirectly, they shared 'wishes' to express their desires to have professional teachers of translation. Conversely, some of the interviewed C2 teachers of translation admitted their own limitations (see Section 6.2.2). Students in C2 were reluctant to give their direct opinions on their teachers of translation in the interviews (e.g. C2 students' translation script_21, 55, 73), but in fact they expressed dissatisfaction with the teaching methods (see Section 5.4.3). These limitations of their teachers of translation and the dissatisfaction the C2 students in

C2 for the teaching methods are supported by interview information from some of their teachers of translation (see Table 6.3).

Table 6.3: Information about teachers of translation for C2

Information / Teacher No	age	Gender	degree	subject	position	Lecture courses
1	53	M	BA	Literature	Lecturer	Literature, Translation
2	37	M	MA	English	Lecturer	Translation
3	46	M	BA	English	Associate professor	Translation and Interpreting
4	44	M	MA	English	Associate professor	Cultural Studies, translation
5	52	M	MA	Linguistics	Associate professor	Literature, English, Translation criticism
6	39	F	MA	English	Lecturer	Translation, English

The information presented in Table 6.3 shows that the six C2 teachers who were involved in translation teaching were educated in Literature and English. One of them informed me in the interviews that he had translated some literary works. One who taught both Translation and Interpreting had three years' work experience as a translator in a foreign trade company before he started teaching in the English department. The others were experienced in teaching translation in language learning. This information about the teachers of translation for C2 looked similar to that of those interviewed C1 teachers. Again, these data along with the comments from the students (see Sections 5.3.3) suggest that that there are some gaps which those teachers of teaching language simply cannot bridge by using language pedagogy when they become involved in translation teaching.

6.3.3 Teaching plan for Methods and Approaches in TS

The course, Methods and Approaches in Translation Studies, was a core taught module designed for the MA programme in Conference Interpreting and Translation

Studies in UK3. The pedagogic arrangement of the delivery type of this module is outlined in Fig. 6.10. According to the programme planning, this module was worth 30 credits out of a total of 180 credits each student needed to complete for the degree requirement.

Fig. 6.10: Pedagogic planning for Methods and Approaches in UK3

Teaching style: Student-centred; Task-based autonomous learning **Teaching methods:** Lecture, practical, seminar and tutorial **Total lecture hours:** 10 hours **Tutorial hours:** 24 **Private study hours:** 276 **Total hours:** 300 (100 hours per 10 credits) **Textbook:** Newmark (1981and 1988; Hatim and Mason 1990 and 1997; Baker 1992) **Selection material:** selected readings from approximate 90 reference papers and books **Tasks for private study:** designated reading and translation tasks

The curriculum for this course specified that the teaching methods which were used to deliver the module to students included lectures, practicums, seminars and tutorials. The central issues of theories, concepts and procedures were presented in lectures, while seminars designed for this module required students to provide their own learning and discussion forum. Teachers worked in a facilitating role to help the students to understand the lecture content. Students were required to prepare presentations to aid discussion in the seminars and were asked to visit their tutors at designated times. In these one-on-one tutorial sessions students had to discuss the issues with their tutors, or tutors would arrange sessions to discuss the direction a student's work was taking. The focus of these teaching methods was mainly on engaging with the content of the module of Methods and Approaches in Translation Studies so that students could not only know what conceptual theories were involved but also how they could use them. The material selected and the practical

activities arranged in practice, as the UK3 students have made clear (in Section 5.3.3), very much corresponded to the topics discussed. The opinions from the UK3 students indicated that they applauded the teaching methods. The pedagogic methods revealed that the teaching style for this module was basically student-centred. The students attributed this to their teachers who were both academic and professional in translation teaching.

The UK3 teacher from the Centre who assisted my investigation clarified how the teachers of translation in the Centre were highly qualified for translation teaching by introducing the staff profile webpage. Referring to the C2 and C3 cases, I summarise the main information of six teachers of translation for UK3 from their webpage (Table 6.4). The information shows that the UK3 teachers of translation were different from those of C1 and C2 in three areas of level of qualifications, breadth of research, and in the impact of these on teaching and learning. Four of them had doctoral degrees and five of them were educated in Translation Studies. In the research or lecture course column, they displayed different research dimensions or areas of teaching interest. Evidence from the outcome of the translation task (Chapter 4) as well as from student interviews (Chapter 5) suggest how the academic and professional strengths of these translation teachers impacts positively upon their teaching and students when they inform their teaching with insights from their own experience.

Table 6.4: Information of the teachers of translation for UK3

Information / ***Teacher***	***gender***	***degree***	***subject***	***position***	***Research summary/ Lecture courses***
1	M	Dr	Translation Studies	Reader	Translation theory, Discourse/text analysis and translation, Systemic functional, linguistics and translation, Cognitive and corpus-based translation studies, Translation and ideology, Latin American writing in English, The history of translators in the twentieth century
2	F	Dr	Applied Translation Studies	Senior Lecturer	Translation quality, The translation and localisation professions, Computer-Assisted Translation tools, Ethics and translation, Translator training, Translation in international organisations
3	F	Dr	Conference Interpreting	Lecturer	Conference interpreter training, Quality of interpreting, Coherence in interpreting, performance, Peer-feedback in collaborative learning
4	M	MSc	Knowledge-Based Systems	Research Professor	Evaluation and tuning of machine translation systems, Text simplification for machine translation, Corpus-based tools for translators, Collaborative working environments for translator training
5	M	Dr	Translation Studies	Lecturer	Automatic extraction of translation equivalents, Information Extraction and Machine Translation, MT Evaluation, Ukrainian Syntax
6	F	MA	Audiovisual Translation Studies	Teaching Fellow	Reception of subtitles using eye-tracking technology, Non-traditional translation and subtitling practices, especially fansubbing, Design of E-learning resources, Translation technology, Theatre captioning, Romanian translation

6.3.4 Relations between data sets

In the pedagogic planning of programmes, each case was different from the others (see Table 6.5). Remarkably, this table shows that neither curriculum in C1 and C2 had learning outcomes documented. When I explicitly raised this point with the two heads in C2 in the interviews, they told me that it was not necessary to write openly in the documents and on the webpage about these requirements which would consequently bind them (C2heads research diary_16042008). They confirmed that actually they had similar documents in files, but they were there for the national education inspection (and by implication not for practical pedagogic purposes or for sharing with students). They explained how they were required to prepare course planning, skills and outcomes, progress monitoring and assessment methods. When I pressed for some examples, I was refused with polite excuses and as a visitor I had no way to further seek evidence in these matters. Evidently the research was indicating some uncomfortable features of gaps between documentation and practice which were impossible to explore further.

Table 6.5: Differences in teaching planning of Translation Theory

Case code / ***Items***	***C1***	***C2***	***UK3***
Course name	Introduction to Translation Studies	Translation Theory	Methods and Approaches in Translation Studies
Credit/total	2/28	2/32	30/180
Semester	2	3	1
Lecture hours/total	2 hours each week/36	2 hours each week/40	1 hour each week/10
Learning outcome	Not specified	Not specified	Given in detail

An examination and analysis of the detailed information of the pedagogic methods of each programme also yielded some interesting observations.

First, document analyses show that C1 and C2 which share the same Chinese education system had some features of monotonous, loosely structured, even incoherent teaching methods. The teachers of translation theory in both cases were flexible. As shown in both course syllabi, the contents of the theoretical courses were rich and diverse. Reflecting the coursework and assessment methods, the teachers for the two Chinese groups might use inadequate pedagogic methods which could not provide for productive enactment of the content into teaching and learning. There was no quality control mechanism to evaluate if or how the course syllabi were realised in practice. Unsurprisingly perhaps, students in this kind of learning context felt disappointed.

The UK3 information about the pedagogic methods stipulated clearly the teaching delivery for the module. The fulfilment of the course content and its teaching methods as applied were connected closely with the learning outcomes, transferable skills and learning, assessment and learning context (Appendix 10). However, neither of the course syllabi in C1 and C2 showed any detail relating to their learning outcomes. This exploration has shown that the pedagogic methods applied in C1 and C2 are insufficient or, anyway, weak for the programmes of translator education or translator training.

Second, the information of the translation teachers of each case, as analysed and displayed, suggests that the education background and professional experience of teachers of translation are important to translation teaching. Teachers' knowledge and professional experience would in all likelihood affect teaching quality and

students' intake of knowledge and development of competence, because with appropriate knowledge, training and professional experience they know how they can guide students in both knowledge and practical fields. The information of the teachers of translation from the three cases suggests that the quality of selection of teachers is indispensable for translation teaching. Given the output of graduates and postgraduates from the present number and range of translation programmes in both China and in Britain, and the importance of translation and widespread need for professionals, and thus the likely employability of qualified professionals, it should be possible to recruit high quality staff as teachers.

Third, these exploratory analyses reveal that it is important to implement a scientific and constructive system of pedagogic methods and quality control. Some form of internal auditing or even external review should monitor the accomplishment of a course syllabus, teaching methods and its aim. The British system does this through a long-established system of external examiners for programmes besides periodic internal university and national quality assurance procedures; however, external examining for a programme is not a normal procedure in Chinese universities and quality assurance processes at national level for universities, while set up in practice, are still fairly new. This point will lead to further analysis of documents pertaining to assessment methods.

6.4 Assessment methods

This section focuses on the analyses of the assessment methods for the courses of theoretical issues of programmes in each case. Looking at them can help examine how learning procedures are employed to carry out the educational objectives of a

course and how the learning outcomes are to be reached. The main reason is that assessment methods in a higher educational system should be aligned with the overall aims of the unit of study and desired learning. Therefore, the information about the assessment methods of each programme will be explored and analysed to reveal the effectiveness.

6.4.1 Introduction to Translation Studies in C1

According to the course syllabus of the Introduction to Translation Studies for C1 three assessment methods were used. The first assessment method was a self-learning task. It required that students spend eight hours searching for criteria for reading translation, translation and aesthetics, and translation of different genres. However, no documentation showed how this should be done by students. Since this task might be carried out by using a given list of key references, by website or library searches, by specifically comparing different sets of criteria in relation to theoretical orientations, by considering criteria formulated in specific contexts, tracking changes in widely circulated criteria, etc, the absence of further specification makes the task – and hence the assessment – open-ended and arguably therefore there is a lack of focus (although guidance might have been given orally). The second assessment method required the translation of three 500-word excerpts (see Section 6.3.1), which should be done after class by students under a tutor's supervision. However, the C1 students regarded their assessment methods as '*questions and answers about the theoretical concepts*' (C1 students' translation script_46-49; also Section 5.3.4), i.e. they seemed not to have an inclusive overview of all assessment tasks. The third assessment method referred to a final examination, or more explicitly a 'written examination: On issues relevant to translation theories

and written translation'. A sample of a final examination paper for the Introduction to Translation Studies, which I read from the documents of the School for the 2006-2007 National Education Inspection, constituted four parts: 1) giving definitions for some concepts; 2) judging true or false statements; 3) translating a given list of sentences; and 4) translating a 250-400 word paragraph or excerpt (English or Chinese). The marking shown in some student papers appeared very subjective (no marking criteria were included nor was there evidence that there were any such criteria), with neither comments nor students' feedback. Reacting to the assessment methods negatively, students in C1 considered them in Section 5.3.4 '*affecting improving translation quality*'. I suppose that there must have been some other informal assessment methods used in class by the C1 translation teachers. However, simply looking at the assessment methods as documented, they appeared not focused on delivering the objectives and content of the course syllabus. Thus, given this lack of consistency it was difficult to see how students could improve at the envisaged level in the learning process of this course. Because there was specification of the learning outcomes for this course, based on my investigation in the School of Translation and Interpreting, little evidence could be found how these assessment methods diagnosed students' work, ascertained their comprehension of theoretical concepts, and evaluated their translating abilities, or how students' progression in this course was formally monitored.

6.4.2 Translation theory in C2

The C2 course syllabus of Translation theory showed two assessment methods. One of them was a task for self-learning, which required students to undertake a comparison of the conceptual perspectives of Chinese and Western translation,

know the impact of Chinese and Western cultures on translation and establish how to identify a translator's subjectivity. There were no assignments specified in the curriculum, either by type or by typical examples. The other form of assessment was a final examination, which required students to write a term essay. The field notes in the interviews with the relevant C2 teachers showed that the instructions for the term essay were to write an essay of 500 or 1000 words. This was in conformity with the comments of the C2 students (in Section 5.3.4) that the main assessment methods for their translation courses were writing essays: there was a significant absence of mention of other forms of assessment. Students in C2 expressed that they had preferred these to their literary translation assignments, because the teacher was responsible for providing them with feedback; this, of course, raises doubt about whether or not other teachers using other kinds of assessment did, in fact, provide student feedback. C2-3, who was one of the three students who complained about the feedback for their assignments (in Section 5.3.4), said that he would like to '*escape*' his '*dull assignments*'. His other classmates also thought generally that the assessment methods they had did not come up to their expectations. As they remarked, they could not write an essay well unless they understood the theoretical issues which were required to comment on in essays. Disappointingly, I could not find more evidence to show how these assessment methods were used to advance students' improvement and progression, in addition to some individual marking records for this course. This does not mean there was no such evidence or that there were no such ways to improvement, but, if there were any, they were not readily available and would be hard to access.

In an interview with the Chair of the English department, when I told him of my concerns about the issue of assessment methods, he told me that each teacher was autonomous and responsible for their own course. In other words, the coursework and its assessment were at the teachers' own discretion. However, in principle, one wonders why it did not seem possible to have both autonomous teachers and clear documentation about their (independently responsibly decided) arrangement for assessment. I also read some marked translation coursework, essays and examination papers. Most of the coursework was translation exercises of sentences, paragraphs or excerpts. There were few translation exercises based on texts or authentic translation with briefing. Some had comments; others did not. The chair explained that this was 'because the coursework was too much for the teacher and the teacher could mark only half of it' (C2 head's interview notes_14042008). This lays the 'system' open to the apparent arbitrariness about which 'half' would get the feedback and what students in the other 'half' might be learning without such feedback. These explanations seemed like excuses for not having established a sound system of assessment and evaluation. Theoretically the assessment methods displayed in this course could not match its instructional objectives. How well they functioned in assisting students' learning seems questionable. In this circumstance, probably students may 'escape' from doing their 'dull' assignments if they wanted to, but they cannot escape poor assessment for the sake of their degree; they have to complete whatever is assessed, however well it may be assessed. Similarly there was no evidence to show that this course syllabus had met its learning outcomes. This weakness was very similar to that in C1. Like C1, the absence of evidence does not mean that learning and translation development did not occur for C2, but

the documentation was not at all reassuring and made aspects of the teaching-learning processes look weak or dubious.

6.4.3 Methods and Approaches in Translation Studies in UK3

The syllabus for the UK3 module Methods and Approaches in Translation Studies documented that coursework would be used as the method of choice for this module to assess students' learning. Its requirements are briefly presented in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6: Assessment methods for the theoretical course in UK3

Assessment type	***Notes***	***% of formal assessment***
Assignment	1,500translation commentary	30.00
Extended essay	5,000-6,000 word essay	70.00
Total percentage (Assessment by coursework)		100.00

A rubric was provided for each type of assessment method to inform students of how to undertake it. For example, the rubric for the extended essay specified that it was composed of translating an original text of no more than 3,000 words, the choice of which was subject to a main supervisor's approval. This 3,000-word essay prescribed for the UK3 students explicitly required students to integrate theoretical and practical knowledge, with the ability to do research and to write. This part was also related to working on a real translation assignment. That is, students had an option of contacting a non-government organization, the Centre for Victims of Torture (CVT), and offering to translate one of their documents. This translation should be accompanied by a 3,000-word essay or critical commentary. Students needed to work on this assignment for about 8 weeks before its submission. They were required to present it in a professional manner, showing knowledge of a wide

range of translation theories and use of appropriate different translator resources. Students were expected to reflect critically on the decision-making process involved in producing their versions, drawing on theories, models and resources encountered in other modules to defend their own approach and specific translation choices. The guidelines in the rubric also told the students about assessment and deadlines, extenuating circumstances and details for starting the coursework. Students were specifically informed of marking criteria guidelines, the general format for their academic writing and further information on presentation and bibliography. This extended essay was to be double marked before the student saw the agreed mark (Appendix 11).

The extended essay I described in considerable detail apparently showed that the requirements for this coursework directly demanded that students should use what they had learned to deal with practical work and, further, to explain and justify this. They were made aware in advance, through assessment criteria, of how the assignment would be marked – a major point about this strategy is that it fully informs students about the assessment process and, further, gives them a good opportunity to ensure for themselves, before submission, that their assignment does indeed meet the criteria. Thus this is not only a point about assessment transparency but also about encouraging more developed learning, not dissimilar to meeting a translation brief. Naturally, this potentially indicates that assessing this work would be a heavy labour for teachers (two teachers for double marking). Referring to the opinions of the UK3 students, they also thought that the assessment methods in their modules were '*rigorous*'. I quote the experience reported by UK3-7, which includes her contrast with Chinese assessment:

> *As a translation postgraduate student, I personally experienced that doing such coursework is like reviewing all the knowledge I had in lectures. In order to comprehend some ideas or statements, I had to search for relevant books and read widely in the library. I kept jotting down notes and made an appointment with the tutor to discuss the issues in question in the process of writing. I worked on the computer up to midnight, with blood-red eyes and sweaty palms. Sometimes I got stuck and sometimes I experienced stress and tension. At last I finished and submitted the assignment but still felt there should have been more to get through. After two months the result of the assignment was passed down with the teacher's feedback. I eagerly read the feedback and talked to the tutor, sometimes clarifying the ideas and sometimes defending the statements. At any rate, it was in this process that the knowledge of theory and practice as well as translation and writing competence were improved, enhanced and consolidated. This experience of doing coursework cannot be imagined in China.*

From what she said, I sense that she had experienced the two different education systems. The enjoyment of labouring on the coursework she had in her UK study suggests that she felt rewarded in some way. I conclude that the UK3 documents of the assessment methods I collected demonstrate that these assessment methods were systemic, explicit, coherent, and known to students: they matched the overall aims and learning outcomes, all were clearly specified; and crucially, the learning outcomes are able to be evaluated.

6.4.4 Relations between data sets

The analysis of the assessment methods relating to the courses in theoretical issues relating to translation demonstrates the differences between the three programmes, as Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Assessment methods employed among the three cases

Case code / Assessment	*C1*	*C2*	*UK3*
Method	Examination	Course essay	3,000 word essay; 1,500 word translation commentary
Requirement	Question and answer, some translations and 200-500 essay	Depends on the teacher's decision	Specific instruction and individual contact with the designated tutor
Percentage	100%	100% or assess if Pass or failure by the teacher	70%; 30%
Submission	Usually taking two hours and submit to the teacher	Have deadline but flexible	Strict deadline and submit to the relevant department
Marking criteria	Teacher's autonomy	Teacher's autonomy	Documented marking sheet & double marking; criteria given to students in advance
Review	Some comments in class.	No details.	Systematic feedback to each student - discussed with the students if possible; comments and corrections given

Assessment methods used by C1 and C2 were very general and flexible. The documented information shows that they did not match the instructional objectives in order to fully enlist the students' motivation for learning. An analysis of the results of the assessment methods which were chosen from the two cases could not show what teachers assessed, for what purposes and in which mode. For example, they could not show how they helped diagnose students' strengths and weaknesses in learning, or whether and how they provided appropriate feedback to students to improve their studying and develop their skills and competence. Hence, judging from the documents collected from C1 and C2, their assessment systems cannot value and reward students' qualities and achievements actively. In the light of the

style and detail of UK3, the C1 and C2 assessments need to be modified. Unlike C1 and C2, the analysis of the assessment methods from UK3 showed theoretically that the assessment system was explicit, specific, and effective. The differences between the cases in China and the UK case depended on whether they made assessment methods relevant to the overall aims and objectives of the unit and to make assessment methods part of the learning process. In UK3, the use of marking criteria not only for teachers but also for students themselves implied strongly that assessment was not only retrospective but was used for diagnosis and formative learning: that assessment is used for learning is difficult to envisage through the documentation in C1 and C2.

6.5 Overall summary

This chapter has presented the results of the analyses and discussions of the part of curriculum documents of each case's programme. These documents were exemplified by the course with a focus on theoretical issues in each programme. The results from the document analysis, on the one hand, exposed the strengths and weaknesses of each programme; on the other hand, in connection with the results from the students' performance in the translation task and the perceptions of the students as well as relevant people in the investigations, they substantiated the data from the translation task and interviews from analysing overall aims, syllabus design, pedagogic methods and assessment methods. The results reveal that C1 and UK3 ran similar programmes, but C1 had a poorly-designed curriculum and an inadequate teaching system, which appeared not to teach translation entirely successfully. These problems similarly existed in C2, as the data revealed. I suppose that rather than ignoring the problems encountered in the transition from language

teaching to establishing translation teaching, the first key, I think, is that the awareness of a solid body of translation theories applicable to translation teaching needs to be built up. This solid body of translation theories applicable to translation education should be those which can provide students with explanations and insights for translation, descriptions of its practical applications, and guidelines for the real-life world of translation. The second key is that there is a need to establish a translation pedagogy appropriate for the teaching of translation theory. The data analyses from UK3 provide a good case in point for these two key points. As Kiraly says (cited in Cronin, 2005):

> *A translation pedagogy without a theoretical basis will be a blind pedagogy. It will fail to set reasonable objectives, will be unable to create and apply methods appropriate to the learning task, will be unable to measure and evaluate results, and will ultimately fail to create the effective translators our society increasingly demands (Kiraly 1995 cited in Cronin 2005: 250)*

If we want to teach effectively, it is necessary to provide a solid body of translation theories and translation pedagogy which goes with it. Part of this pedagogy, as a third key, would be to ensure that assessment processes match programme and module aims, their learning outcomes and specific translation tasks, and that it provides systematic feedback using clear criteria for all participants so that assessment is also for learning.

This reaction can be further verified in the additional complementary data I collected after this research. The following chapter will provide a broader insight into the consideration of the differences between and among the three cases.

Chapter 7 Complementary data

Complementary data:

1. Opinions on translation theory: Chinese vs. British
2. Analysis of essay and examination paper
3. Consideration of the curriculum of MTI
4. Overall interpretation and discussion

Fig. 7.1: Chart for reporting further exploration by complementary data

The analyses and explorations of the syllabi contents of translation theory (in Chapter 6) actually reflected what the students reported in the post-task interviews. The analyses and results help to provide an explanation for the students' performance in the translation task. The different relations between data sets summarised at the end of each section above have demonstrated the differences of curricular designs, syllabi contents of translation theory, besides pedagogic and assessment methods. They stand not by the researcher's subjectivity but systematically by disclosing one feature after another within the above topic issues between and within the three programmes. By surveying the opinions of both Chinese and British teachers of translation and examining more representative institutional-based translation programmes of both China and the UK, in a total 13 programmes and 39 course syllabi in translation (see Table 3.8), more factual information has been obtained during the research process which provides further evidence to consolidate the analyses of differences mentioned above. In response

and parallel to the results, I illustrate - but not exhaustively - the resources to show the broader differences of translation theory and translation curriculum design which may cause or affect the quality of translation teaching and studying.

7.1 Opinions on translation theory: Chinese vs. British

Previously, I presented opinions of C1 and C2 teachers in terms of teaching translation theory. I will now display more according to their experience. When they examined the interview translation scripts, three head teachers claimed that translation theory is important and necessary and affirmed how translation teaching should have relevant theories (C1teachers interview script_1; C2teachers interview script_1, 5). One of them said：

> *As a specialist translation teacher, I think that translation theory is very important. Now we have the subject of translation. We should have theory to support it. However, every time when we plan the teaching, arranging courses in translation theory is problematic.*
>
> (C2teachers translation script_1)

Studying and analysing the opinions of the two teacher groups, I, as a colleague, understood this difficulty and problem of planning and teaching theory. The main issues lie in the following aspects. First, translation theory actually does not necessarily position itself appropriately in teaching: some teachers said that translation theory was no use in translating (C1teachers translation script_6, 11, 18; C2teachers translation script_13). They preferred teaching translation skills and emphasising practice. A C2 teacher said：

> *I specialise at teaching translation from Chinese into English. So actually this requires higher translation skills and strategies. I ask students to do translation exercises as much as they can. You know the saying that 'Practice makes perfect'.*
>
> (C2teachers translation script_13)

It is hardly wrong to put emphasis on practising translating for students. However, what I understood and experienced was that practising only translating words, sentences and excerpts could not be helpful to cultivate students' overall translation competence. Second, the issues of scope and content of translation theory and the combination of theory and practice were not clear. Obviously the opinions from the two Chinese teacher groups showed that they struggled in these respects. Three teachers in C1 and two in C2 felt confused about what kind of translation theories should be engaged in teaching translation and how they should impart them (C1teachers interview translation script_7, 19, 20; C2teachers interview translation script_5, 16). They preferred a Chinese translation tradition though they wanted knowledge of Western theories. With less than desired teacher knowledge, insufficiencies both in resources of theoretical books and academic exchanges challenged them in teaching. One of C1 teachers said：

> *I teach the Introduction to Translation Studies. I make reference to Zhong Weihe, Bassnett and Munday. To be honest, I see much content of Zhong's book was inspired by other Western theories. The book written by Bassnett relates to the history and literary translation. It does not include the whole area of translation. I find the theories are summary, or synthesized when I use Munday's book. It is difficult to make them clear. I can't clarify each theory unless I know the background of the theory. However, this is very limited for me individually. I regard these theories as Western thoughts in teaching. They function as a brief introduction for students in their study. I don't think that these theories are very helpful to their practising translation.*
>
> (C1teachers interview translation script_17)

A similar view also expressed by a C2 teacher, who commented：

> *Translation theory has developed quickly. We had translation theory in Buddhist scriptures, Yan Fu, Fu Lei etc., Lu Xun. Now we have Western theory like Translation Studies. Sometimes we don't know how to follow this development. When I prepare the lecture, I feel very limited. If only there were some textbooks of translation theories. That would make the preparation easier. ... Now we colleagues at least deliver this course of theoretical elements by our own preferences.*

(C2teacher interview translation script_14)

Like me, these colleagues wanted a solid familiarity with Western theories but the resources and the academic atmosphere in China were very limited. Therefore, it is not exceptional that they teach translation theory based on what they know. Third, their pedagogic methods and assessment methods showed that they were influenced by their language teaching experience. The main evidence was that they managed translation exercises and examinations in words, sentences and paragraphs (only). They prepared the examination paper in the form of questions and answers and writing a short essay. A C1 teacher told me, '*In the final examination I [ask students to]elaborate theoretical concepts, answer questions and write a short essay, and the assessment method gives way to "pass" or "fail"*' (C1teachers interview translation script_17). For this, I further present the evidence of task/assignment/project designs in the following. Besides these main opinions, as a counter-example, an exceptional opinion was given about treating the course in translation theory as compensation to fill a gap in teachers' work load. This was noted down as follows：

> *In my opinion, if we didn't have these theoretical courses, or I should say if we lack these theoretical courses, some teachers in our school would not have a full work load. Translation itself is a practical course. We often think that theoretical courses are not of much use. However, for the sake of survival and [filling up a] work load, it is good to have many theoretical courses.*

(C1teachers interview translation script_6)

These views or opinions echoed what the C1 and C2 students reported in the post-task interviews. I wondered whether these summarised opinions from the Chinese teachers would be common in other Chinese universities. In my working and

teaching experience, they did occur in this or a similar form (see Introduction). What impressed me was that it was necessary to build up a solid body of translation theory for translation teaching in Chinese universities and that such theory would necessarily need to relate coherently and explicitly to module aims, learning outcomes, learning tasks and activities, and assessment procedures.

In the surveyed British teachers' opinions on translation theory: nine of them not only claimed the importance of translation theory in teaching (see Example 5 of Section 3.11), but also 7 other MA translation programmes whose documentation I received supported their opinions with the translation assignments or projects designed for their students. A British expert, who claimed the importance of translation theory in teaching (in Example 5), explained who needs translation theory in an article she emailed me on 10th December 2012 (see Table 3.6). She argues in this article that '*theory, by freeing translators from too narrow a view of the source text and allowing different ways of thinking, could be an aid to creativity'* (see Boase-Beier, 2006). In the consideration of how theory interacts with practice, how we use it and whether we need it, she affirms '*everyone needs theory, because any act which is not a reflex or purely the result of intuition (and perhaps even then) must be based on a theory, which is simply a way of looking at the world'* (cf. Gutt, 2003). Such attitude and argument are sharply different from those of the Chinese teachers cited above.

7.2 Analysis of essays and examination papers

One of the course syllabuses of translation theory contains the list of theories the British expert's students should have access to; this includes terms and concepts of

translation theory and practice, historical pronouncements on translation, Linguistic theories of translation, polysystem theory, norms and Descriptive Translation Studies, translation and ethics, domesticating and foreignising, postcolonial translation, Cognitive Stylistic Approaches, Gender and translation, functional theories and the importance of non-Western theories for the study of translation in England. There was no mention of whether any Chinese translation theories were covered in the non-Western theories, but it does seem likely, e.g. Williams (2013: 3-4, 41-42, 59-60) specifically cites various Chinese theories as 'non-Western' while also citing Indian and African theories. This presentation supports what UK3 students reported about their studies of translation theories (in Chapter 5) and the analysis of their course syllabus. Meanwhile, it shows again the difference of theoretical elements that Chinese and British teachers had: the UK case seems explicit, comprehensive, and shows evidence of shared knowledge of theories by teachers and students (and thus by implication dissemination from the teachers to the students) Accompanying this course, the assignment was designed as follows:

LDCEM043 Translation Theory: The essay

Essays, which must be in by Wednesday 19th December, should be 5,000 words long.

Make sure you use a suitable academic register and engage with current critical theory. Please read through the University's regulations on plagiarism, as plagiarism, even if unintentional, will cause you to lose marks.

In general, when finding a topic, it is helpful to approach it from one of the following angles:

There is a specific text (which has been, or might be, translated) which you would like to work on and discuss. In this case, you will need to work out what sort of theory would be appropriate to the understanding of text and translation. For example, does the style of the text tell you something interesting about the speaker's cognitive state? If so, you might use Cognitive Stylistic Theory, and narrow it down to the notion of *mind style*. Or are you working with a text with large amounts of culturally important detail? In that case, Relevance Theory or Dynamic Equivalence might be theories you could use to discuss how the translation has been done, or might be done.

You are interested in a theory (e.g. Skopos Theory, Relevance Theory) or ***notion*** (domestication, faithfulness) ***and want to see how it affects, or could affect, the practice of translation***. In this case, you will need to find a text which seems appropriate: a series of advertisements for Skopos theory, a religious or historical text for Relevance Theory, a children's story for domestication, and so on.

You would like to compare two theories or notions, relating to a specific translation. Thus

you might compare a domesticating and a foreignising version (your own or someone else's) of the same text or try to explain what a translator of a collection of poetry has done from a Relevance Theory perspective and from a Polysystem perspective. Does each one explain the data properly? Could either theory benefit from incorporating aspects of the other? Or could one or the other be enhanced or expanded in some other way?

You would like to compare two theories or notions, not relating them to a specific translation. Thus you might like to see how Skopos Theory relates to notions such as domesticating and foreignising, or what the conflicts might be between translation ethics (in Venuti's sense) and a notion such as Nida's dynamic equivalence. You would need to illustrate with plenty of examples, but would not necessarily limit your discussion to (a) particular text(s); you are talking about the theories themselves rather than the texts.

These are 4 possibilities but there are many others. You might consider how a theory has changed over time or even consider the work of a particular theorist, or a broader issue such as whether we need theories of translation.

There will be a discussion of essay writing relevant in particular to this module in the first hour of the Week 5 session. We are also happy to discuss your topic with you and/or look at your outline. Please come and see Jean in her advising times (Mon 11-12; Thu 4-5), or have a word with Philip after the class, if you would like us to do this.
XXXXX XXXX (teachers' names were anonymized)
October 2013

To explore and recapitulate some features from the assignments or examination papers I collected from some universities of UK and China, I presented a copy of Chinese examination paper in the following parallel to the UK assignment I offered above.

Xxxxx (The name of the university and ethical information were anonymous here)
Examination pater in academic year 2012—2013

Paper code: 34582A
Lecture hours：32
Time of examination：110 minutes
Name of the course：Translation theory

---

1. Translate each of the underlined words in its sentential context. （10 X 2'）
(1) The teacher tried to court popularity by giving his students very little work.
(2) John is ill today so Jean is covering for him.
(3) I've never done this before, but I'll have a crack.
……
2. The following sentences have two translated versions. Please tell which one is more accurate. (5 X 2')
（1）After lunching in the basement of the medical school Philip went to his room. It was Saturday afternoon, and the land lady was cleaning the stairs.
译文 A：在医学院地下室吃过饭后，菲利普回到自己的寓所。那是一个星期六的下午，女地主正在打扫楼梯。
译文 B：在医学院地下室吃过饭后，菲利普回到自己的寓所。那是一个星期六的下午，女房

东正在打扫楼梯。

…….

3. Translate the following sentences into Chinese. （10 X 4’）

（1）He had emotion, fire, longings that were concealed behind a wall of reserve.

（2）He wished to write an article that will attract public attention to the matter.

…….

4. Please tell the skill(s) that can be used in translating each of the following sentences. (5 X 3’)

（1）The application of computers makes for a tremendous rise in labor productivity.

（2）Where you go, there are signs of human presence.

……

5. Translate the following paragraphs into Chinese. (15’)

A few weeks back, I asked a 14-year-old friend how she was coping with school.

Referring to stress, she heaved a big sigh and said: “Aiyah, anything bad that can happen has already happened.”

Her friends nearby then started pouring out their woes about which subjects they found hard, and so on. Pessimism again, in these all-too-familiar remarks about Singapore’s education system, widely regarded as too results-oriented, and I wonder why I even bothered to ask.

The school system of reaching for A’s underlies the country’s culture, which emphasizes the chase for economic excellence where wealth and status are must-haves.

Such a culture is hard to change.

So when I read of how the new Remaking Singapore Committee had set one of its goals as challenging the traditional roads to success, encouraging Singaporeans to realize alternative careers in the arts, sports, research or as entrepreneurs, I had my doubts about its success in this area, if not coupled with help from parents themselves.

The new Remaking Singapore Committee is a brainchild of the Singaporean Prime Minister, formed to make Singaporeans look beyond the five C’s: cash, condos (公寓), clubs, credit cards and cars, to help prepare the nation for the future.

It is good that the government wants to do something about the country’s preoccupation with material success. But it will be a losing battle if the family unit itself is not involved because I believe the committee’s success is rooted in a revamp of an entire culture built from 37 years of independence.

It is unreasonable to say which of the two samples is better, for each was an assessment method designed for its course or module, and therefore has its institutional context. Remarkably the contents in both sample assessments were totally different. Theoretical issues and considerations were obviously required in the UK sample, and, interestingly, were exemplified with a wide range of brief examples of actual theories in the context of student possible choices to consider, while explicitly not restricting them to such choices. As indicated above, translating words, sentences and paragraphs were explicitly displayed in the Chinese sample (the first two types were de-contextualized). While students in the Chinese examination paper could use and apply theory, there is not specific encouragement

for them to do so (for example by citing a relevant theory) and certainly no requirement that they should use and apply any theory. The UK example instructs students in the rubrics to 'engage… with current critical theory' and three of the four exemplified 'angles' are explicitly organized around one or more theories (in bold), plus the extra (fifth and sixth) angles which again are organized around theories. Put this way, only one possibility out of six 'angles' given as examples in the UK does not mention theory (in bold) and even this one cites three theories in the explanation. The UK message to use theory in this essay could hardly be clearer. More examples in the complementary data I collected can provide more evidence for the differences of theoretical inputs and tasks which the universities of mainland China and the UK offer.

7.3 Consideration of the curriculum of MTI

Regarding curricular design, broadly speaking, C1 and C2 translation programmes also reflect the way of designing educational curriculum in mainland China. Partly because the university system in mainland China is known to be politically decided and highly centralised (in a rapidly expanded system of a great size and in the context of geographic and social diversity, this can be seen educationally as an effort to attain national standards and consistency). Some specific instructions and curriculum templates have been set up, for example, in Daxue Yingyu Kecheng Jiaoxue Yaoqiu (2007)《大学英语课程教学要求》(2007) [*College English Curriculum Requirements*, 2007] and Daxue Yingyu Jiaoxue Dagang (2002)《高等学校英语专业教学大纲》(2002) [*English Teaching Requirements for China's Higher Education*, 2002] (see the documents listed in Table 3.8). According to these national-based documents, the whole curriculum plan of English as a subject

and college English are modelled nationally. For the postgraduate level, there are four course types of a public compulsory course, a degree compulsory course, an orientation/specialist course and an elective/optional course. Public courses are centrally planned, controlled and compulsory. All the universities in mainland China must have such 'Public courses' for postgraduate students and, it should be clear, all students must pass them. Among these are Politics and Its Theory, Theory of Marxism-Leninism, Elected Reading of Marxist Classics, and Scientific Socialist Theory and Practice. 'Public English' (i.e. College English) for non-English major students or as the second foreign language for language students is secondary to them. Even the new programme of Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI) (reviewed in Section 2.5.2) also follows this route. In order to have a visual picture of the features as to the China's translation curriculum design, I made a comparison of three curricula regarding the balance between public and compulsory or core courses from some top Chinese universities (in Table 7.1).

As for other postgraduate programmes in China all the candidates are required to take part in the national Graduate Candidate Test (GCT) for the entrance. Those who pass GCT will have an entrance interview and a test of specialist knowledge and skills required in their subject/domain. According to China's higher education system, students generally should have to finish 28-32 credits for the degree before they start to write their graduate dissertation.

Table 7.1: The comparison of the curricular design

Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation, Beijing (MA in Dual-Language Simultaneous Interpreting, not less than 52 credits)				
Public compulsory Course	**Title**	**Semester**	**Assessment**	**Credit**
	Theory of Marxism-Leninism	2	Written Examination	6
	Relevant languages courses	2	Written Examination	4
Compulsory Core Course	General Linguistics	1	Written Examination	2
	World Literature	1	Written Examination	2
	English-Chinese Translation (C-E or E-C)	2	Written Examination	8
	Sight Translation	2	Oral Examination	4
	Consecutive Interpreting (C-E or E-C)	2	Oral Examination	8
	Simultaneous Interpreting (C-E or E-C)	2	Oral Examination	16
	Translation Theory	1	Written Examination	2
Graduate Institute of Interpretation and Translation, Shanghai (MA in Translation Studies)				
Public compulsory Course	**Title**	**Semester**	**Assessment**	**Credit**
	Theory of Marxism-Leninism	1 & 2	Written Examination	4 (72 hours)
	2nd Foreign Language	1, 2 & 3	Written Examination	6 (108 hours)
Compulsory/ Core Course	Translation Methodology from English into Chinese	1 & 2	Written Examination	4 (72 hours)
	Translation Methodology from Chinese into English	1 & 2	Written Examination	4 (72 hours)
	Interpreting Theory	1	Written Examination	2 (36 hours)
	History of Western Translation	1	Paper	2 (36 hours)
School of Interpreting and Translation Studies, Guangdong (MA in Interpreting and Translation Studies)				
Public compulsory Course	**Title**	**Semester**	**Assessment**	**Credit**
	Political Science	1	Examination	3 (54 hours)
	2nd Foreign Language	1	Examination	4 (72 hours)
Comp-ulsory/Core Course	Introduction to Translation Studies	2	Examination	2 (36 hours)
	Consecutive Interpreting	2	Examination	2 (36 hours)
	Linguistic Theory	1	Examination	2 (36 hours)

From Table 7.1, it is not difficult to find that each of the schools puts the 'public compulsory courses' in the first place and they also take up a considerable part of the total credits. Since 'public compulsory courses' are normally taught in lectures (and compulsory or core courses might also be so taught), this means that

translation students actually spent most of time in lectures. The courses of translation theory hold a smaller proportion of the total credits in all the programmes. Another fact is evident, that face-to-face teaching in class is the main teaching method. There is little indication to show how many private study hours (or independent e-learning, group learning or out-of-class project activities) the students need or are expected to carry out. This depends on individual devotion. Based on my experience, the teacher usually asks all his students to study after class, but there is little efficient monitoring, feedback or explicit use of such learning in subsequent classes.

A possible counter-argument against such varied or more flexible (non-lecturing) teaching and learning approaches is that: in China classes are large, time is short, teachers' workloads are heavy, and traditionally focused exams dominate the assessment. However, this counter-argument has limited validity. All of this is equally true of College English, taken by millions of undergraduates every year; however as the 'New Standard College English' course textbooks (both in the Integrated, and Listening and Speaking series) and, particularly, the Teacher Development Books (Jin and Cortazzi, 2009, 2010, etc.) show explicitly how a huge variety of learner-centred participatory alternatives are possible, desirable, feasible and effective, including ways of integrating out-of-class preparation and learning; many teacher development workshops with Jin and Cortazzi (2000-2012, personal communication) have demonstrated this in many cities in China for hundreds or even thousands of College English and English major teachers (including, though not specifically, translation teachers).

Though the government attempts to reach a uniform and high-quality educational outcome for all postgraduate courses, in fact such highly centralised control, in my opinion, has some negative effects. On the one hand, it impedes and constrains innovative and creative development in curriculum design in institutional contexts. On the other hand, it tends to encourage passivity among students since the range of options is restricted, for all the postgraduates will spend one third of their total credits on designated courses which some think are irrelevant to their subject (presumably students are more likely to feel academic and emotional commitment to self-chosen courses). To some extent all these 'must dos' in the postgraduate-level curricula of various subjects embody political, ideological, educational and economic dominance. For example, heads in the department or school have the authority to choose or at least strongly suggest which textbooks to purchase for their students (e.g. see C1 teachers' interview translation script_8; C1students' interview translation script_40-42).

In postgraduate translation programmes, since the subject of translation is being progressed into a discipline, as many Chinese translation academics have been urging (Mu Lei, 1999b, Zhang Nanfeng, 1998, 2001; Wang Ning, 2001, 2003), its teaching position has significantly changed in the past ten years. Theoretically there has been a consensus that translation teaching should be treated as a subject and should be independent of foreign language teaching. This investigation shows that currently there are three types of postgraduate programmes relevant to translation in mainland China: first, the vocation-based type which refers to translator and interpreter training (of which C1 is an example); second, the translation-oriented type which involves such multi-disciplines as linguistics/psycho-linguistics,

literature, cultural studies, philosophy, socio-culture, etc. This type of translation postgraduate programme indicates that translation knowledge either in theory or in skill is not specialised but generalised (as shown in C2). Hybridity is another ideal facet of the translation-oriented type which attempts to combine translation and interpreting training with academic study in the interdisciplinary subjects of linguistics, applied linguistics or literature. However, this facet is still being developed. The third type is a Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI), which I reviewed in Section 2.5.2. Based on my research here, I should explore more below about the features of MTI since this programme is supported by the Chinese Ministry of Education.

In the light of the MTI guidelines, this programme aims to bridge the gap between the educational and practical stages. The purpose is to set up training for professional and specialist translators, and interpreters, as claimed in the MTI programme documents. However, the fact is that the MTI programme is still operated in those academic institutions which run translation postgraduate courses academically. According to the MTI programme, apart from adding a few practical courses relevant to translation and interpretation, their training models, teaching staff, teaching methods and curricula are similar to their own postgraduate programmes in translation. This leads to my personal conclusion that the MTI programme in mainland China currently has little novelty and supplements the other institutional translation postgraduate programmes – with the same teaching, same staff, a similar curriculum and similar teaching style in the same environment. The similarities exist not only in the same university but also among the fifteen pilot universities. The MTI programme apparently merely adds another new choice or

new name to translation postgraduate programmes. The degree sounds more specialist and professional than the other masters' degrees in translation, but the expectations may not be the same as described in the MTI guidelines in view of the current MTI teaching and administrative mechanisms. This can be viewed clearly from the curricula of the two universities which I list as follows: first, that of the MA in Dual-Language Simultaneous Interpreting and that of the year 2008's orientation in Interpreting of Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI) at a Beijing Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation (GSTI); the second is that of the orientation of MA Conference Interpreting and that of the year 2008's orientation in Conference Interpreting of Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI) at a School of Interpreting and Translation Studies (SITS) in Guangdong province (see Table 7.2 and Table 7.3).

Table 7.2: Comparison of MA and MTI curricula, GSTI, Beijing

The curriculum of MA in Dual-Language Simultaneous Interpreting and Curriculum of the orientation in Interpreting of Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI), updated by January 2013

The curriculum of MA in Dual-Language Simultaneous Interpreting					***Curriculum of the orientation in Interpreting of Master of (MTI), 2013***				
Course type	*Course title*	*Semester*	*Assessment*	*Credit*	*Course type*	*Course title*	*Semester*	*Assessment*	*Credit*
Public compulsory courses	Theory of Marxism-Leninism	2	Exam	6	Public compulsory courses	Theory of Marxism-Leninism	1	Exam	3
	Relevant other languages courses	2	Exam	4		Chinese language and Culture	2	Exam	3
Compulsory courses of first-class subject	World Literature	1	Exam	2	Compulsory specialist courses (6 credits)	Basic interpreting	1	Oral exam	2
	General Linguistics	1	Exam	2		Basic translation	1	Exam	2
Compulsory specialist courses	English into Chinese Translation	2	Exam	4		Translation Studies	3	Exam	2
	Chinese into English Translation	2	Exam	4	Compulsory orientation courses (10 credits)	Consecutive interpreting	2	Oral exam	4
	Sight Translation	2	Oral exam	4		Simultaneous interpreting	3	Oral exam	4
	Consecutive Interpreting from English into Chinese	2	Oral exam	4		Sight translation	1	Oral exam	2
	Consecutive Interpreting from Chinese into English	2	Oral exam	4	Optional courses (8 credits)	Second Foreign Language	1	Exam	2
	Simultaneous Interpreting from English into Chinese	2	Oral exam	8		Topic-based Interpreting	2	Oral exam	2
	Simultaneous Interpreting from Chinese into English	2	Oral exam	8		Mock Conference Simultaneous Interpreting	4	Oral exam	2
	Translation Theory	1	Exam	2	Internship period	Computer-aided Translation	3	Inspection	2
Optional courses	Written Translation specialise in French, German, Russian	2	Exam	4					
	Interpreting Courses specialise in French, German, Russian	2	Oral exam	4					
	Communication Skills in English	2	Exam	4					

Table 7.3: Comparison of MA and MTI curricula, SITS, Guangdong

Curriculum in orientation of MA Conference Interpreting and Curriculum of the orientation in Conference Interpreting of Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI), updated on 10 January 2013

Curriculum in orientation of MA In Conference Interpreting								***Curriculum of the orientation in Conference Interpreting (MTI), 2013***					
Course type	*Course title*	*Credit*	*Hours*	*Semester*	*Assessment*	*Required /Optional*	*Course type*	*Course title*	*Credit*	*Hours*	*Semester*	*Assess-ment*	*Required /Optional*
Basic courses required by the degree	Politics and Its Theory	3	54	1	Exam	Required	Public compulsory courses	Politics and Its Theory	3	54	1	Exam	Required
	Second Foreign Language	4	72	1	Exam	Required		Chinese language and Culture	3	54	1	Exam	Required
Compulsory courses required by the degree	Introduction to Translation Studies	2	36	1	Exam	Required	Specialist compulsory courses	Introduction to Translation Studies	2	36	1	Paper	Required
	Simultaneous Interpreting	2	36	2	Exam	Required		Consecutive Interpreting	2	36	1	Exam	Required
	Consecutive Interpreting	2	36	1	Exam	Required		Theory+Skills of Written Translation	2	36	1	Exam	Required
Optional courses required by the degree		2	36	1	Exam	Optional	Orientation compulsory courses	Topic-based Interpreting	4	72	2	Exam	Required
	Advanced English-Chinese Interpreting	2	36	1		Optional		Simultaneous Interpreting	4	72	2	Exam	Required
	Methodology of Translation Studies	2	36	1	Paper	Optional	Optional courses	Second Foreign language	2	36	2	Exam	Required option
	Academic Writing	2	36	1	Paper	Optional		History of Chinese+ Western Translation	2	36	2	Paper	Required option
	Research Design and Statistics	2	36	1	Paper	Optional		Translation Criticism and Appreciation	2	36	2	Paper	Required Option
	Topic-based Interpreting	2	36	2	Exam	Optional		Intercultural Communication	2	36	2	Paper	Required Option
	Sight Interpreting	2	36	2	Exam	Optional		Comparative Chinese+Western Language	2	36	2	Paper	Required option

	Applied Translation	2	36	2	Exam	Optional		Introduction to Stylistics	2	36	2	Paper	Required Option
	Introduction to Interpreting Studies	2	36	2	Paper	Optional		International Politics & Economy	2	36	2	Paper	Required Option
	Institutional Translation	2	36	2	Exam	Optional		Professional Ethics & Rules	1	18	2	Exam	Optional
	Translation Workshop	2	36	2	Exam	Optional		Mock Conference Interpreting	2	36	3	Exam	Optional
	Mock Conference Interpreting	1	18	3	Exam	Optional		Sight Interpreting	2	36	3	Exam	Optional
	Interpreting Workshop	1	18	3	Exam/ Paper	Optional		Literary translation	2	36	2	Exam	Optional
	Interpreting for Foreign Affairs	2	36	3	Exam	Optional		Non-literary translation	2	36	2	Exam	Optional
	Intercultural Communication and Translation	2	36	3	Paper	Optional		Interpreting for foreign affairs/Diplomacy	2	36	3	Exam	Optional
	Recommended Readings	2	36	3	Paper	Required		Interpreting workshop	2	36	3	Exam	Optional
Teaching Practice and research Training		1	18	3		Required		Audience and appreciation for Interpreting	1	18	3	Exam	Optional
Forum/ Seminar		1	18	1－3		Required		Use of *Trados*	2	36	3	Exam	Optional
								Court Interpreting	2	36	3	Exam	Optional
								Business Interpreting	2	36	3	Exam	Optional
							Internship period		2	36	3		

7.4 Overall interpretation and discussion

Based on the documents of the UK translation programmes I collected and analysed (and personal communications with staff), British higher education allows institutions relative independence (in fact, recent government interventions, for instance, regarding funding and tuition fees or for setting undergraduate student numbers, have been construed by many staff as interference and threats to this autonomy). Generally speaking, programme planning or design in the UK institutions is systematic, devoted and rigorous under the guideline standards of higher education qualifications which are established by the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA)[4]. The main elements of programme design, enactment in teaching and assessment, monitoring and any changes are internally organized with each university independently, with the programme leader, course committee, and senior committee for all programmes (with perhaps different names in different universities) taking the leading roles and responsibilities. As I experienced my studies in the UK, the teaching style has a mixture of lectures, seminars, workshops and tutorials. In terms of postgraduate translation programmes, lectures fulfil a variety of different teaching functions, including providing of basic information, presenting of specific problems and methods of resolution, modelling argumentation and reasoning in practical applications, stimulating debate, sharing enthusiasm and giving encouragement to study further. Seminars and workshops are

[4] QAA was formed in 1997 to rationalise the external quality assurance of higher education that existed up to this date. It is independent of UK governments and is owned by the organisations that represent the heads of UK universities and colleges (Universities UK, Universities Scotland, Higher Education Wales and the Standing Conference of Principals). QAA judges how well universities and colleges fulfil their responsibility and the effectiveness of their processes for doing this. QAA safeguards the public interest in sound standards of higher education qualifications. It also encourages universities and colleges to keep improving the management of quality in higher education. More recently QAA inspections are said to 'have a light touch' and leave much, but not all, monitoring to university's own internal processes.

an important part of the core modules and the practical translation modules. They are designed to help develop collaborative problem-solving, and interpersonal and communication skills. Translation programmes in the UK have developed into a considerable variation of size and emphasis between the programmes on offer (see Section 2.5.2). Generally, translation programmes in the UK universities have their own academic and administrative team. That is to say, they are relatively independent of foreign language teaching and cultural studies. Some twenty universities run post-graduate courses leading variously to MA, M.Sc. or other post-graduate diplomas (see Section 2.5.1). As the titles of the degrees and diplomas are different, they reflect the different emphasis at each institution. Most programmes are located in departments or schools of modern languages and linguistics, or in Language Centres. Usually the postgraduate translation programme is a taught course of one-year's full-time or two-year's part-time study. The programme of each university is based on its own features and strengths. Curriculum design is varied and depends on individual programme objectives and assessments. The assessment system varies according to the institution, but tends to reflect its quality control of teaching and learning. Assessment tasks tend to be varied across and even within modules so that there is a planned mixture of modes and methods of assessment. The main information of translation programmes can be accessible on the websites of UK universities since most of the UK translation programmes (listed in Section 2.5.2) have their web pages.

On the whole, the analysis and discussion of the complementary data have provided a broader context to look at the issues of the three programme cases. It gives further evidence to show that teachers' knowledge and expertise of translation, pedagogy

and assessment are important components in the construction of students' translation knowledge and competence. Moreover, the evaluation, reflection and application of principal findings, along with the reflections and limitations of this research are to be contributed in Chapter 8.

Chapter 8 Evaluation and application of principal findings

Evaluation and application of principal findings:

1. Principal findings and pedagogical applications
2. Focus group reflections on findings
3. Answers to the research questions
4. Reflectivity and limitations

Fig. 8.1: Chart showing the organization of chapter 8

Chapter 8 highlights the principal findings, which I intend to apply to my teaching and research in future. An illustrative and exploratory analysis of some reflections and comments on part of the findings from my colleagues is presented in this chapter. Although this reports the analysis of a further level of 'results' (see chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7), it is given here because these are colleagues' reflections on previous results from students and teachers in the three cases. And arguably these reflections belong in this chapter about applications and reflections. The answers to the research questions are summarised. Finally, this chapter ends with the reflexivity and limitation of the research project.

8.1 Principal findings and pedagogical applications

The data analyses and discussions of Chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7 have displayed multiple findings from different angles. Principal findings and factors from the two Chinese groups are singled out and summarised in this section. Though this project is conducted from the UK, I hope that these highlighted findings will prove valuable for an improved understanding of translation pedagogy and the knowledge

construction of a translation student within these cases, in particular, that they will be relevant for my future development in teaching of translation and research in Chinese contexts.

1. The pitfall of linguistic approaches to translation students

The analyses of the translated texts made by the 24 participants from the three different programmes have shown the different choices of translation unit solutions in the students' use of translation theories and strategies and in identifying translation problems. Although the theories and strategies used by the participants in the translation task covered linguistic or grammatical, textual, functional and social-cultural aspects, the findings indicate that the students from the two Chinese universities, in particular the second Chinese university, used linguistic and grammatical approaches excessively in the task. The Chinese participants frequently liked using dictionaries to find out equivalents. Furthermore, few students from either Chinese university could, apparently, consider textual, functional and social-cultural approaches when translating if such approaches seemed necessary. Evidently the UK3 students could adequately use translation theories and strategies beyond linguistic approaches; in fact, more than half of the UK3 students referred to textual, functional and social-cultural theories in the task.

As far as identifying translation problems was concerned, students from both Chinese universities used more word and phrase unit translation strategies, but they made more translation errors in these two aspects. The analysis of their translated texts showed that they did not use a text unit translation strategy, and they had some difficulty in identifying translation errors at a macro level. UK3 students made

fewer translation errors and were able to deal with translation errors in the translation task.

These choices of translation unit solutions in the translation process, as investigated, indicate that it is a basic and preliminary reaction that the students used linguistic micro-level strategies in rendering their translated texts. This may explain Chesterman's (1997) 'production strategies of translation' (see Section 2.3.3). The knowledge of linguistics for translation students - including contrastive linguistics - was indeed shown to be needed 'as a prerequisite for exhaustive description' (Malmkjær, 2002: 117). The findings from C1 and C2 students suggest that translation students who are influenced by foreign language learning or who bring the traditional second-language education approach to translation are aware of formally equivalent structures in two languages. They tend to render translation practice with the understanding that word-for-word transcoding is what they are supposed to do for 'loyalty' in translation. However, learning translation is not merely learning how to produce equivalent products. The chart derived from Williams' (2013) categorization and summaries of research and references in Fig. 2.4 illustrates that translation involves the clustering of product-process-translator theories. This means that translation students should learn theories beyond a linguistic domain; translation, as reflected by the students' performance in the translation task, is not simply a matter of translating one word by another one. The findings in Chapter 6 also indicate that the course syllabi of translation theory of the two Chinese cases appeared inadequate to fulfil the students' knowledge construction – they do not at all engage students in the kind of range of theories indicated in Williams' (2013) outline.

Translation in real or professional contexts requires that the translator go beyond linguistic knowledge, thus it is insufficient for translation students to only possess language knowledge. If the students, who appear grooved into the linguistic domain, are to be educated in translation, they should be equipped with translation-relevant knowledge based on a more contemporary translation curriculum and pedagogy.

2. Issue of 'the brief' in translation task

The analyses of the data from the post-task focused interviews with the students from the three different groups provided detailed insights into the translation programmes they studied. The comments on students' performance in the translation task showed that C1 and C2 students had problems in understanding the 'Translation brief' in the first page of the translation task (see both C1 students' interview original notebooks_27032008, p.9; C2 students' interview original notebooks _15042008, p. 15; also Section 5.1.1); whereas this is not the case for UK3 students. There was no indication to show that UK3 students had difficulty with the concept of 'Translation brief' in the procedure of rendering the English text. This possibly suggests that C1 and C2 students had experienced few practical or simulated translation activities, either their teachers did not know about briefs or they did not use authentic materials in their teaching. Accordingly, the students they taught would treat translation as a neutral activity.

In my view the input of the understanding 'translation brief' in teaching is important, because any piece of translation in the real world offered by a translation agency or a client is often presented (explicitly or implicitly) with a 'translation

brief', which describes how this translation should be considered in its socio-cultural community, that is, the ethics and ideology of translation. This is why we cannot say that translation is a neutral activity as Tymoczko (2007) claims (see Section 2.1.3.3). Nord's concept of 'translation brief' (see Section 2.3.5), suggests it is a practical activity to position students in socio-cultural contexts of the real world. In this research the students' reactions to the translation task and subsequent actions they took individually indicate that whether they could respond well to the 'translation brief' in the process of translation. Arguably, the nature of the translation assignment with its brief plays an important role in modulating style and pitching register to show understanding of both source and target texts, particularly in dealing with non-formulaic and non-technical texts. This is what I wanted to explore in how the students performed their translation competence in the task. For example, I wanted to see if the students would read and recognise the elements of the social community which the translation task and its brief covertly include and how they made decisions, so that they automatically work out the translated text to address the intended readership in the target community. This involvement of the translator's subjectivity, ideology and decision in the translation process reflects Williams' (2013) third strand of theories: the theories about the translator (see Section 2.6). In this sense, I consider that translation brief evidently has its important position in translation pedagogy, particularly in training translation students' professional orientation. Unfortunately, this issue of translation brief seems to be ignored in Chinese translation teaching. This conclusion is admitted by the reflections from my colleagues (see below).

3. Self-awareness and self-confidence

The analysis and discussion of the data from the comments on the translation task, the reaction and satisfaction related to this task the participants undertook also suggest the importance of establishing students' self-awareness and self-confidence in translation (see Section 5.1). Part of the findings showed that the C1 and C2 students possessed less self-awareness and self-confidence than the students from the UK university. In particular, the findings indicated that the C2 students appeared insecure and lacked confidence in translation. While there might be local explanations for this in terms of particular contextual features related to particular student psychological profiles, a more likely explanation is that C1 and C2 students were influenced by traditional language learning. Recognizing that they were aware of formally equivalent structures in keeping with the requirement of loyalty to source text and that they studied translation, they hardly seemed fully provided with translation knowledge and expertise that would be expected of translation students at Masters level. These findings correspond closely to Kussmaul's (1995) and Sonia's (2003) arguments for developing translator students' self-awareness and self-confidence. Arguably, it is the responsibility of their teachers to purposely cultivate their students so that they possess self-awareness and self-confidence through simulated practice, including working to a range of briefs. This quality may likely be developed if translation students have enough apprenticeship in a real translation world. This point is expressed in the chart - after Williams' (2013) - that self-awareness, self-confidence and self-concept in translator training and competence are necessary.

As a teacher, I understood how C1 and C2 students felt and how they looked disappointedly at themselves in their negative performance when I was with them in

the post-task interviews. They wished that they could have done their translation better after years of studies in translation. The result was not at all up to their expectation. As a both translator and interpreter I fully understand how it is important to be fully aware and confident of a task that a translator encounters. Here I concur with Kussmaul's argument that the better informed translation students are about the processes involved in translating and the more they know about translating, the greater the degree of self-awareness they gain (1995: 31-32). Though students' self-awareness and self-confidence are personal qualities, they 'cannot derive from a pre-fabricated instructor's syllabus' (1995: 113-114). However, a strong indication revealed from the findings (see Sections 5.4.2 and 6.3) was that if translation students were provided with authentic materials and their practice was situated in the context of a real world or realistic professional translation experiences, like professionals in any field, self-awareness and self-confidence could be acquired by putting students in situations that would give them a sense of translating professionally. Training self-awareness and self-confidence in a translation pedagogy should be fostered as a major objective through designing a series of appropriately graded challenges working to realistic briefs based on relevant guidance and feedback. This is another consideration regarding translation competence for translation teaching within a university in China.

4. A solid body of translation theories

The findings displaying participants' use of translation theories (synthesized by the participants' written submissions in Section 4.4), indicate what kind of translation theories the participants could recognise, and report the participants' perceptions on translation theories in their studies (Sections 5.2, 5.4). These findings were

substantiated by the analyses and discussions of syllabi of translation theory which each case study group had learned (see Sections 6.2, 6.3), which are broadly representative of many other courses in China and the UK respectively (Chapter 3). Although the analysis of the curriculum documents showed that the aims and objectives of each case programme claimed to help students lay a solid theoretical foundation in studying translation (Section 6.1), the students from the different cases expressed different opinions about the translation theories they had learned. In some ways all of them took the view that translation theory was necessary in their studies; few expressed any doubt that translation theory would be of use to them. However, though I can see that these findings in their different ways are in keeping with the main thrust of current research about the applications of translation theory to the teaching of translation (Chapter 2), students from the different cases understood translation theories in a different way.

Findings here suggest from different angles that most C1 and C2 students recognised and used linguistic translation theories more than any other theories such as functionalist, cultural and social-cultural ones (Chapters 4, 5 and 6). For example, C1 and C2 students had some vague awareness of text-linguistic translation approaches. Few of them could manifest the necessity of understanding register in translating. They could consider the linguistic structures at the textual micro-level but few could consider the socio-cultural elements of the text. The main reason for these apparent gaps in their knowledge and application of theory was that the theoretical knowledge the students received from their teachers was too diversified and at a shallow level (Sections 5.2.1, 6.2.4). Obviously C1 and C2 students could not construct a limited awareness and knowledge of translation within such a

constraint of thin theory broadly spread. Terms of Linguistic translation theories, on one hand, were used by the students for different techniques. In the translation task data these techniques were literal translation, word-for-word and students were looking for equivalents. This cluster of terms again reflects that students understood translation theories within linguistic domains, which led them to look at translation as the relationship between source and target texts and focus on the translation product. On the other hand, the findings show that linguistic translation approaches at a micro level are basic but not predominant in translation. These findings indicate that translation is not merely a process of looking for equivalents in a good quality translation; and looking for equivalents does not lead to successful translation. This potentially indicates that elements of theories of translation can affect students' performance. It remains open to question how other Chinese universities would treat translation theories in teaching, if these two prestigious Chinese universities could not provide adequate theoretical knowledge to their students and since other programmes in China seem similar; certainly in broad outline (Chapter 2), it seems at least quite likely that this issue may apply to some or many other Chinese translation programmes.

Therefore, the findings have shown that the solid theoretical foundation which C1 and C2 translation programmes claimed to provide for their students appeared insufficient. These findings reflect Williams' (2013) thought that teaching students to understand what happens in the process of translation can neither rely on a single theory or a group of theories nor teachers' preferences (see Section 2.6). A solid body of translation theories should cover the whole translation process, which is not merely confined to mental processes. With an overview derived by the present

writer from Williams' work (2013) illustrated in Fig. 2.4, I think that a solid body of translation theories should include a holistic balance of product-process-translator theories. Each vertical column lists the concepts and theories which serve the diagrammatic purpose to show potential interaction within and across theories and concepts in the other columns: the chart is conceived by this writer to suggest that pedagogically the vertical range of theories and concepts and the horizontal categories of theories represent a repertoire from which, for any given translation brief or task, students choose for knowledge, insight and application. This repertoire representation would provide translation students with a more holistic palette of theories to understand different theories for different purposes with different strengths and contexts of origin and application, but not in competition with each other. The chart format, derived by applying Williams' outline (2013), suggests that what matters pedagogically is for postgraduate students to have a clear idea of these theoretical developments and insights, together with some idea of the research behind them. The chart can thus be used pedagogically in translation classrooms to help students to be able to see these features as a repertoire of insights and strategies (after they know and understand more about all or most names, terms and concepts listed) from which they choose according to the brief or task in hand and the context in which they are translating. This chart could thus be used to support a translation assignment or assessment task in which students are asked to consider which features, vertically and horizontally, are relevant and how to combine them to assist the realization of the task, possibly with a rationale of why the chosen features are the most relevant in the given context. This notion suggests that part of the point in teaching theory can help reconstruct translation pedagogy, to broaden and deepen the students repertoires and give them a sense of what works for what, when, for

what purpose and for what reason, which is surely much better than simply knowing about a couple of theories and wondering how to apply them, if ever.

5. Pedagogical application of theory

The findings which were drawn from the students' perceptions of the translation programmes suggested that the components of curriculum planning varied in coherence. The components refer to programme aim(s), instructional objectives, curricular content (or syllabus), and the selection of teachers of translation (Chapter 6). Findings showed that these components should be considered in curriculum design, but it seemed to C1 and C2 students that these components were not planned and well linked (Section 6.1). Paralleling the students' perceptions on pedagogic methods (Section 5.3), findings showed that pedagogic methods concerning which C1 and C2 students had input were neither rigorous nor coherent (Section 6.3). The aims and objectives of their programmes also appeared less tightly constructed than those of UK3 (Section 6.1). The C1 and C2 students reported their dissatisfactions to their courses. From the complementary data (Chapter 7), the opinions on translation theory from both teachers and students and analyses of translation tasks further attested that the pedagogical issues of the C1 and C2 programmes are problematic.

As the findings showed, the students who studied translation with good English did not have the necessary experience to translate well. My experience as a translation teacher informs me that translation students should rely on an effective pedagogy which can help them focus on how and what kinds of translation knowledge should be learned or acquired. Then this kind of translation pedagogy should focus on how

best to simulate and provide translation-relevant experience in the translation classroom so as to develop students' competence. Based on evaluating the findings, and on my knowledge, I consider that translation pedagogy should cover at least three aspects: first, it should have a repertoire of different theories because translation pedagogy relates to multidisciplinary orientations from linguistics, language teaching, communication studies, culture, specialized knowledge and so on; second, it should have a theory of learning-and-teaching methodology to describe how translation processes and competences are learned and developed (this description can serve to provide principles for guiding translation teaching); third, translation pedagogy should have practical mechanisms or classroom strategies and techniques to activate the methodological theory with students through carrying out specific curricula, syllabi, evaluation schemes, materials selections, and other teaching practices. Thus, translation pedagogy should not be simply a way of teaching with skills and practice nor an instrumental activity. It is the pedagogic science of translation teaching based on research-informed decision-making and its theorisation.

To realise and conceptualise this translation pedagogy, the findings ground me with a broad view that the three aspects of translation pedagogy can (as one specific practical example of applying the above principles) be coherently taken into consideration using the Williams'-derived chart format of theories of translation (see Fig. 2.4). Theories of translation product, process and translator are listed respectively in three vertical columns. The concepts, theories and researchers in each column can complementarily underlie constructing a pedagogical approach to its translation purpose. Teaching can be undertaken in different stages according to

the different translation processes or these different translation processes can be interwoven in teaching; the chart might, of course, be suitably simplified for a given class. For a practical example, students could be encouraged to talk through the names and concepts under the relevant headings of the chart as a revision activity. As a likely technique to promote maximum student engagement, a class could be divided into three groups and each member in each group prepares a focussed revision presentation choosing and using features from a different column in the chart. Thus, three groups are classified as Product, Process and Translator groups. After due preparation, whether in class or out of class, the class is re-divided in a 'jigsaw' technique so that each new group comprises members from each of the previous Product, Process and Translator groupings. The activity then is that participants each take turns to explain their section to the other groups' members in their own words and with their own examples. To construct or reconstruct students' translation knowledge, more pedagogic methods and activities can be reconceptualised and reorganised following the Williams'-derived chart than traditional pedagogy. This chart thus becomes a pedagogic device for an interactive and participatory theory review. This could be followed up with a practical translation task for the same groups in which members of the Product, Process and Translator groups each strive to show the others how those theories, concepts or research represented in their column are relevant to the task in hand. After group discussion in this latter stage, a subsequent whole-class 'round-up' might then review all suggestions using Powerpoint or a similar visual representation so that major - and imaginative - suggestions from any group can be ranked by students for relevance, interest, usefulness and feasibility of application. This further demonstrates to students how criteria of theory application may be thoughtfully

employed to combinations of theories and that the idea that application of theory to a task in hand is not necessarily a yes-no decision but is more a matter of a continuum of relevance to specific goals and contexts. This proposed use of such a chart is thus designed to raise and discuss issues of applying a range of theories (rather than any one specific theory): evidently from the findings here, this is appropriate to the Chinese cases, and probably many others in China and elsewhere, because it should help students to see beyond a limited range of more linguistically oriented theories and gain a more comprehensive view. Specifically, in the context of the findings that many students and some teachers seem to feel that theory is boring and is usually taught in a lecture format, the pedagogic design of using a visual representation engagingly in a 'jigsaw' format applied here involves all students in a given class in forms of active participation so that students listen to each other and interact with the terms and concepts for a task in hand, which is likely to promote both cognitive and affective engagement in decision-making about some theories and their relevance, interest, usefulness and feasibility in context.

It might be a challenge for current translation teaching in China to establish such applications of translation pedagogy because of the lack of teachers with translation knowledge and expertise, and pedagogic skills. It might be feasible to establish a methodology of translation pedagogy for translation programmes like MTI when teachers of translation are willing to devote effort to specific examples and develop features of a translation pedagogy under, say, the Williams'-derived chart format.

8.2 Focus group reflections on main findings

As stated in Sections 3.3.3, I returned part of the findings to my colleagues to seek their reflections and comments. This is because 'I assume that the reflections of this focus group will carry on my pragmatic orientation to examine the connections between this method design and its social interaction' (Morgan, 2012: 162). A focus group may have a range of functions: one is discussion 'which concentrates on the 'co-construction of the meaning' (ibid.). This approach of to a focus group 'falls between the two most common approaches to designing and analysing focus groups… which 'emphasises either the meaning of the context in the discussion or the conversational dynamics that occur within that discussion' (ibid.). The second proposes a process of 'sharing and comparing as a basic element in participants' co-construction of meaning in focus groups (ibid.).

With the discussion and construction of interpretations, and reflection functions, in mind, I made an easy-to-understand summary of the findings and shared them with a focus group of my colleagues. As Morgan (2010) says, 'Choices about the analysis and reporting of interaction in focus groups must be made within the context of the needs and goal of the overall project'. I chose to seek the reflections and comments from this focus group for two reasons. One was to consolidate the former data from the triangulated methods by eliciting comments from six experienced teachers of translation in a Chinese university not dissimilar from the Chinese case study universities. The other was to 'carry on my pragmatic orientation to examine the connections between this method design and its social interaction' (Morgan, 2012: 162). Thus, I sorted out some of their comments and

interpretations responding to the results mentioned above. The whole comments from each of my colleagues can be seen in Appendix 16.

In terms of the findings that C1 and C2 students used more linguistic or grammatical translation approaches than UK3 students did, the six colleagues of mine reflected and commented in different ways how this was featured in China's translation teaching. Jiao (names are changed here) reflected that this phenomenon resulted from the fact that most translation courses in China were preliminarily based on traditional language learning and pedagogy. She explained that it was understandable within linguistic translation knowledge that few students could apply textual, functionalist and social cultural theories when necessary. Xiong, who was the only one among the colleagues who commented on the summarised findings in English, said：

> *Translation is a bilingual and bicultural transformation, in which a perfect command of two languages and two cultures are urgently needed, but most of our students are not conscious of them when they do translation, which gives rise to the misconception that the job of translating can be fulfilled if only one has acquainted the skills or knowledge of a foreign language. In the class of C-E [Chinese to English] translation, say literary translation, our students pay no attention to the author's style, the textual typology and the cultural elements. What they do care are avoidance of grammatical mistakes, and the accuracy of vocabulary. "Translationese" is featured typically in their translations. Perhaps the reason(s) stems from the students' language competence, which can pave the way for good translations. But most importantly, translation teaching is still incorporated into traditional language teaching in a great number of schools' [ie universities] syllabi, especially those of polytechnic schools. The reform of teaching methods merits our profound rethinking.*

In her comments, she pointed out the reason why students paid little attention to the author's style, the textual typology and the cultural elements when doing translation. Though Chinese teachers of translation generally think that translation is a '*bilingual and bicultural transformation*', it was little known if students were taught how to transform 'bicultural elements' in translation process.

Fanyu explained why Chinese translation students paid more attention to rendering words and sentences than the identification of title translation, text form, register and punctuation. She said：

> *Translation is a kind of activity to render the thought and content of one language exactly and concisely into another language. Chinese students pay more attention to micro-level translation, that is, they translate in words. They cannot go beyond translating words or sentences and do not know how to assess translation at a textual level, yet alone considering title, form, register and punctuation in the translation process.*

She further interpreted this phenomenon that students were used to using linguistic or grammatical approaches to translation as follows:

> *Chinese students tend to use linguistic or grammatical approaches because these are their teachers' approaches in class. Few teachers taught textual, functional and socio-cultural theories. Accordingly, practices in these aspects were few. This may relate to some prejudices among China's translation academics that translation has no theory. Therefore, there is no need to study theory to set up subject of translation studies.*

Similar comments and reflections are evident in what the other colleagues expressed. For example, Zeng commented on his students that '*my students basically translate in word and sentence levels. They dare not go one step beyond the prescribed limit.*' Hence, this prevailing phenomenon: Chinese students tend to use linguistic approaches. Indeed, both teachers and students wanted to improve but seemingly they could not break through the restraints because of the educated knowledge of language study. Such restraints can be further seen through Xiong's experience of teaching Chinese-English and English-Chinese translation in her current teaching commitment. She shared the following:

> *Till now I've taught C-E and E-C translation for five semesters, two semesters to juniors, and three semesters to sophomores [second and third year university students]. I found that juniors could, in a general way, perform better than sophomores in both C-E and E-C translation. Sophomores are thrown into shadow especially in terms of the choice of words and the flexibility of syntactic and sentential structures. But to speak as a whole, students in the two grades have poor awareness of the cultural and idiomatic use of English and*

Chinese. The Europeanization of Chinese in E-C Translation can be seen everywhere in their homework. So I always remind the students of the fact that the mastery of two languages is a prerequisite for the lingual equivalence of translation, but the cross-cultural competence can secure a deep-structured faithfulness of translation.

From such reflections, the point is that translation teachers should help students extend and the shift in their translation viewpoints from linguistic to translational horizons. The findings here (Chapters 4, 5 and 6) showed that this does not seem to be happening.

In terms of the issue of 'translation brief', coded as II (2), two of the six colleagues did not offer any comments. The other four colleagues expressed negative interpretations of these results. Their comments are listed in the following table.

Table 8.1: Comments on the summarised findings II (2)

Comments From	2. 他们不太了解什么是‘任务简介’。 2. They did not know 'translation brief' well.
Zeng	I've never had this concept of 'translation brief' in class.
Fanyu	Indeed, I myself have no idea of it very well.
Zhang	Probably they (students) did not know it very well.
Jiao	The 'translation brief' you mentioned is not accessible in classroom.

My colleagues agreed on the finding that there were few world translation workshops for students to practise translating professional texts. Zeng said, '*Basically I prepared a brochure of translation exercises for my students.*' Zhang wrote, '*... we had rare real world translation workshops.*' It appears, then, that students had little chance to develop their self-awareness and self-confidence for practising professional translation in real situations.

Regarding theories of translation which students should learn in their MA programmes, comments and reflections from my colleagues were different from one another. Concerning theories such as discourse or text-linguistic, functionalist, descriptive and socio-cultural elements, Zeng said that his students had little desire for them. He reported that lecturing on theories to students was dull so he had to make some jokes to revive his students. However, Fanyu regarded teachers as the key of whether students learned theories well or not. She emphasised that translation was not a discipline but a multidiscipline, so she suggested that teachers of translation should know the importance of having knowledge of other relevant disciplines. Rather than letting the teaching of theory be dependent on student interest, she said that teachers should cultivate students to have interest in learning translation theory and practice. Xiong said, '*Translation theories were not taken into consideration in teaching since teachers believed that theories couldn't give a rewarding guide to the practice, and translation strategies proved to be futile in most cases.*'

These collegial thoughts and attitudes toward theories reflected the findings of the interviews with C1 and C2 teachers: the theories of translation they referred to were linguistic translation theories and translation skills. They knew the importance of translation theories in teaching, but teaching translation theory was seemingly dependent upon a teacher's whim or idiosyncrasy.

In terms of translation pedagogy, my colleagues commented not much but expressed some wishes. For example, Fanyu wished to establish a learner-centred model for teaching translation students (cf. Li, 2012). She suggested adding

pragmatic texts for teaching materials, using role-play methods and getting students to do translation practice as much as possible. Xiong gave her reflections on current translation pedagogy, she said, '*But most importantly, translation teaching is still incorporated into traditional language teaching in a great number of schools' syllabi, especially those of polytechnic schools. The reform of teaching methods merits our profound rethinking.*' Hence, whether this is a wish or suggestion for translation pedagogy, my colleagues believe it is necessary to rethink the translation pedagogy suitable for the purpose of translation teaching. They had not, however, been exposed to the uses of such examples as the suggested use of the Williams'-derived (2013) chart presented earlier. Thus the comments and reflections from my colleagues were diverse and even a bit thin. Their opinions might not represent all the teachers of translation in Chinese universities, but there is an impression that their views would be shared, certainly by some other teachers elsewhere in China. Their reflections seem to strengthen the findings in this study and reinforce the need for newer translation pedagogies.

8.3 Answers to the research questions

The explorations of this research come to the end. As a conclusion to the analyses and discussions of data involved, the main findings of this qualitative multiple case study are grouped under the two research questions originally posed at both the ends of Chapters 1 and 2:

1. *What is the nature of any qualitative differences within and across of the three groups of cases?*

Superficially the three groups represented for the three different postgraduate translation programmes are different. Data analyses from the multiple methods and resources from different perspectives indicate the nature of major aspects of these qualitative differences within and across the three groups of cases lies in knowledge of translation theories and translation pedagogy. Some further differences are clearly embedded in the contexts in which the three groups were socio-culturally situated, not simply in geographical distances. The student participants were homogenous but had different identities; they shared a cognate language in Chinese but came from different Chinese ethnic and social backgrounds. Translation teachers and other staff in the interviews were nationally or internationally based. The raison d'etre of the three groups from the three case programmes was foregrounded in higher education, but shared in different higher education systems. These differences between and within the three groups of students permeated the contexts of the cases, the cases themselves, and thus the analysis and discussion of the collected data. Nevertheless, related to the major theme here, findings from these data showed that the translation knowledge of theories and translation pedagogy within the two Chinese groups were different and inadequate as opposite to the UK group. Much of the exploration here endeavoured to ascertain the nature of these differences in more detail, from which respective features were distinguished.

2. *What are the likely explanations for such qualitative differences?*

Since this inquiry focuses on exploring and developing an in-depth understanding of translation teaching, complex phenomena and relationships of the knowledge construction of input the students received in their studying, the

likely explanations for the qualitative differences of translation and translation pedagogy were in large part located within incoherent courses, the structure and level of knowledge with which students engaged, and the inadequate pedagogic methodology used to promote student learning. These issues have been substantiated by the analysis, evaluation and interpretation of the multiple data collected from the triangulated methods and additional supplementary data. Specifically, the explanations were undertaken along with exploring the students' performance in the translation task, the perceptions of both teachers and students regarding translation teaching, the documentary contents, course syllabi of translation theories and relevant assignments or tasks or projects as well. The discussions of the principal findings and the reflections of the focus group of my colleagues further enhanced the findings and explanations.

The major aspect featured in the findings here, and discussed in some detail, is that the translation students in China are under-exposed to the broad range of contemporary theories and that the teaching of theory to which they are exposed in confined to some theories only, which seems to be taught by lecture transmission rather than by direct application, engagement and critical reflection. And thus, consequently, the students in the Chinese cases feel that theory must be relevant but are unsure of precisely how and uncertain about how to apply even the theories for which they have received input.

8.4 Reflectivity and limitations

This research, as stated at the end of Chapter 2, is exploratory and necessarily more tentative, less precise and less controlled than confirmatory or conclusive research.

Exploratory studies are often used where the research problem is not yet well defined; where particular information is sparse or where data are difficult to collect or where the real scope of an investigation is less clear because relevant factors and variables have yet to be fully ascertained. Exploratory research is therefore often used in case study investigations to provide insights rather than firmly generalizable conclusions. At most, conclusions from exploratory research are likely to be tentative and provisional in relation to wider contexts, though they may be reasonably firm about, and perhaps restricted to, the particular situations or cases which have been investigated. These comments which apply to the present exploratory study inevitably restrict any wider generalizations or insights that may derive from them.

Looking back with 'reflexivity' on this research process as Finlay urges (2012), this study has conceptually broadened my awareness that teaching translation students does not simply mean the mechanism of teaching them to express one language meaning in another, though translation is basically characteristic of linguistic behaviour for translation beginners. My knowledge of translation theories has widened and shown me that those theories encountered in China, by myself and apparently for students in general, were limited. As illustrated in the Williams'-derived (2013) chart, translation and its process involve dealing with research-based elaborations of features of product, process and translator. Because translation is a form of communicative interaction in a socio-cultural context, translation teaching, though it is intrinsically related to foreign or second language learning, is not coextensive with it, nor, as some Chinese classroom practices clearly imply, part of such language learning. The present study has explored the construction of

translation knowledge and application which the three groups of the participants experienced in the process of their studies, especially the application of theoretical elements, pedagogical issues involved and evaluation of relevant documents such as course syllabi, assignments and assessment methods. This has entailed re-examining the potential range of what the body of translation theories should be and reconceptualising translation pedagogy beyond language pedagogy, so that postgraduate development of translation theoretical understanding and professional practices should reflect the (re)construction and relationship between product, process and translator.

In terms of the process of investigation I undertook, it was not merely a matter of collecting and analysing data but involved overcoming problems and limitations (see above), many not previously envisaged. Making audio and video recordings was not feasible in the Chinese sites because the universities cared for the matter of image and prestige and were sensitive to issues of 'face' and problems if recording turned out to include 'inappropriate' comments. The reason given, officially, was that the students would feel nervous before these recording devices. Actually, it became clear that what worried the students more was potential teacher criticism and possible unfair consequences if were heard to make 'inappropriate' comments (see Section 3.5.3.2). Fortunately this survey focused on collecting general opinions on their studying. In fact, it was very helpful to have the facilitators at the survey sites in China and they were not necessarily monitors or censors. Without them this data collection would not have been possible. However, their presence at the survey sites made the student participants cautious about expressing themselves explicitly and they remained conservative and diplomatic. Some may have made comments to

flatter the programme organizers, yet they were active to say how they felt about what they did and what they learned. Since they knew me as both a Chinese and a teacher of translation, particularly my identity as a UK doctoral researcher, the students from the two Chinese groups believed I would understand them and their academic needs. The situation with the UK participants was relatively flexible (in Section 3.5.2). This left the students with more freedom of expression. Since, as a current Chinese teacher of translation and former university student from China myself, I faced data gathering difficulties, it is readily imagined how many barriers an outsider, a non-Chinese researcher, would face to get data in these contexts.

In addition, while the students were doing the translation task, I noticed how some students felt upset and embarrassed when I walked by them: it was apparent that they experienced some difficulty with the task and that this was unexpected for them. Using empathetic eye contact with those students, I smiled or gestured them to talk in a low voice or declined to answer irrelevant questions in whisper. This sympathetic demeanour encouraged them, in particular for their participation in post-task interviews. This leads me to reflect on how features of research can depend on the researcher in interaction, relating to participants in context as a person and not simply running through methods and protocols with a presumed impartiality; outside of ethnography this seems rarely written about as an explicit consideration which may affect that and how data are obtained and perhaps the very nature of the data, yet not to so engage humanly with participants would also affect the research process and perhaps lead to humanly impoverished data.

Regarding the interviews with Chinese teachers, they presumed that I understood them because I was a peer; they knew that I knew the situation in which they worked, and I knew that they knew I knew this: this experience perhaps reinforces some perception that their university context was similar enough to my own to be treated as an insider in the mini-world of translation teaching in Chinese universities, and that participants identified similarities between institutions. They were open to talk, but discursive. In all interviews, whether with students or teachers, the relations between the interviewees and interviewer were contextual since I had multiple identities: researcher for this project, teacher for the students and peer for the Chinese teachers of translation, besides many other features of my identity. I was regarded as an insider among the interviewees so that I could hear them and listen to their voices. Mutatis mutandis, the participants, of course, also had multiple identities well beyond being students and teachers. This thought reinforces the contextuality of identities at another level beyond the case study localization, and, I must suppose, would apply in some ways to many research projects.

In terms of collecting documents onsite in China, I met the 'doorkeeper' who literally watched over my making photocopies (Section 3.5.3) and simply did not provide some documents requested (Section 6.1.2). When I sought reflections and comments on the findings from a colleague of mine, she nervously resisted when she read the negative findings of Chinese students. She prevaricated and set up self-protection for a Chinese 'face' (see Section 3.8, Member validation). She understood later and happily offered her comments after I explained my study to her. There were also examples of 'Bartering relationships' which occurred in relation to the survey sites (Finlay 2012). That is, I offered talks or seminars to students and

staff in exchange of their help. Such reciprocation is mutually beneficial and may indicate how researchers often have to offer and cannot merely ask.

In surveying opinions on translation theory from British teachers, I did not, I think, have problems but received constructive support both with sharing opinions and documents. Whether gleaning opinions from Chinese teachers including my colleagues or British teachers, I found that Chinese teachers had conceptual knowledge from Western countries though the interview data showed that what they knew was very general. However, there were few British teachers in the survey who mentioned Chinese translation theories; this asymmetry may well be indicative of predominantly western orientation to theories which ignores some, even well-developed ones, from Asia and elsewhere (Williams 2103). I did not even have any responses of the survey emails from some Chinese teachers who taught translation in the UK. They might be busy or reluctant to reply or might not have the emails (see Section 3.5.3.6). This leads me to wonder why Chinese translation traditions were under-mentioned in the UK translation programmes, especially when they had many students from Chinese backgrounds who might well find that teaching Chinese theories would not only be relevant and interesting but, further, the act of a western teacher validating them, in a sense, by teaching them would carry wider pedagogic messages about the global reach of theories and about considering participants' identities. Therefore, I realise as a researcher that this qualitative multiple case study only provides a basis for further inquiry in translation teaching: there is a need to investigate much more and, as Karl Popper says somewhere, the answer to every good question is another question.

Chapter 9 Conclusion

This primary purpose of this study was to investigate whether China's translation programmes were run differently from those in the UK and to ascertain the nature and extent of any qualitative differences. The focus was to examine students' performance in doing a translation task and explore the outcome of applying translation theories, course curriculum and pedagogical issues. Its aim was to provide empirically an in-depth understanding of the construction of translation knowledge and expertise related to students' learning of translation, translation theories and their application and the complexity of these features in their particular social contexts of learning.

This study was a multiple case study, which was carried out on the base of Chinese and British universities. Three groups of postgraduate translation students from two universities in China and one in the UK participated in this study. Following the pre-set study protocol guided by the research aim and questions, triangulated methods such as administering a translation task, conducting interviews with participants and performing a documentary analysis were adopted to collect data. Additional supplementary data were collected to consolidate the former findings from the triangulated data. A theme coding strategy and analytical techniques of Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA) directed the data analysis. Thus, given the explicit reporting of procedures, data collection and analysis, and adopting a consistent effort to triangulate data analysis using complementary data sets, the quality evaluation of this empirical qualitative multiple case study strove to meet the now generally recognized criteria for much qualitative research of authenticity, credibility and trustworthiness.

Findings from this study indicated that the nature of the differences between and across the three groups was partly due to local contextual variation, but was also due to the roles of translation theories and translation pedagogy. Specifically, the findings from different perspectives showed that the restraints experienced by the two Chinese groups were such as to promote a tendency towards incompetence in aspects of students' translation performance, to enact an incoherent course content and pedagogical planning, and give students a relative lack of practical and professional training. These findings can be seen to support the validity of the proposed goal that students should be taught to understand the process of translation with a holistic balance of product-process-translator theories rather than rely on a single theory, or even on a group of theories, or simply on teachers' preferences (Williams 2013).

The findings from the documentary analysis of C1 and C2 showed how learning outcomes were largely ignored in the teaching of these programmes (see Section 6.3.4).). This result would seem to call for aligning teaching and learning activities with learning outcomes in curriculum design. This alignment should include selection of materials for both pedagogical implementation and professional training, employing various teaching methods following, say, the Williams'-derived (2013) chart format, and improving assessment methods (Li 2012). Learning outcomes ought to be used explicitly for the purpose of assessment and students' benefit, and thus should be known in advance by students and staff alike.

This study also suggested that translation pedagogy should be reconceptualised in this Chinese context, certainly in the two cases investigated here but surely elsewhere too, because findings showed that traditional language pedagogy with non-translation specialist teachers was still the chief element in translation pedagogy. This may prevent students from cultivating broader, more complex, more nuanced translation viewpoints and reconstructing knowledge of translation for professional application. Furthermore, the evaluation of the principal findings has sought to provide theoretical and pedagogical applications. Reflections from the focus group of my colleagues strengthened the main findings in this empirical study.

However, the obvious limitations in this study (see Section 8.4) included the restricted nature of exploring three cases with the difficulty of making generalizations beyond findings related to these particular cases, and the practical difficulty of ideally needing much more time locally to get better knowledge of each case through, say, more classroom observation and contact with students, perhaps in an ethnographic style of research. Numbers of participants in each case are, again, clearly limited mainly due to feasibility of access and the voluntary involvement of participants. The translation task was clearly limited to just the one task, with the danger that findings might adhere to the particular task, which in more extensive research would be offset with at least several different tasks, probably using different text types and social contexts. Interviews were limited in number, depth, and in nature, partly, in China, due to the contextual constraints and local sensitivities which limited students' and even teachers' expression. The documentary analysis was limited by availability of relevant documents and the feasibility of access to others which must have existed but which were said to be

‘unavailable’. These limitations reinforced the basic exploratory nature of the present research. The converse of each of these limitations would possibly contribute to further research, for example, larger sample sizes would be of value as would study of a greater number of cases in different universities.

Concluding from the findings of this inquiry, I think that the following suggestions should be taken into consideration at least for the Chinese cases, and for me and my colleagues in our context, for future teaching.

- For course design, there is an apparent need to clarify overall aims and objectives of postgraduate translation programmes
- Pedagogically, there is a need to establish a solid body of translation theories with which students will engage in order for them to reconstruct knowledge and expertise in translation: this would involve a broader range of theories than those currently encountered by students and should include theories related, for example, to product, process and translator, and would emphasize the application of relevant theories in professional translation contexts.
- For programme design, the pedagogy of course delivery, and for a more holistic ‘engagement’ approach to translation teaching and learning in interaction, to develop systematically an adequate and dynamic mechanism of translation pedagogy to enact the teaching and learning of theory and professional application in ways that engage students cognitively, socially and emotionally so that they interact thoughtfully in particular tasks with real-world briefs which are seen to be professionally related.

Bibliography

Alvesson, M. & Sköldberg, K. (2000) *Reflexive Methodology, new vistas for qualitative research*, London: Sage Publications.

Arrojo, R. (1998) The Revision of the Traditional Gap between Theory and Practice and the Empowerment of Translation in Postmodern Times, *The Translator*, 4 (1), 25-48.

Arrojo, R. (2005) The Ethics of Translation in Contemporary Approaches, in M. Tennent (Ed.) *Training for the New Millennium*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp. 225-245.

Baer, B. J. & Koby, G. S. (Eds.) (2003) *Beyond the Ivory Tower: Rethinking translation pedagogy,* Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Baker, M. (1992) *In Other Words: A Coursebook on Translation,* London and New York: Routledge.

Baker, M. (Ed.) (1998) *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies*, London: Routledge.

Baker, M. (2006) *Translation and Conflict: A Narrative Account*, London and New York: Routledge.

Baker, M. (2009) Norms, in M. Baker & G. Saldanha (Eds.) *Routledge encyclopedia of translation studies,* Milton Park, Abingdon and New York: Routledge, pp. 189-193.

Baker, M. (Ed.) (2010) *Critical Readings in Translation Studies,* London: Routledge.

Barnett, R. & Coate, K. (2005) *Engaging the Curriculum in Higher Education*, Maidenhead, Berkshire, England: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.

Bassey, M. (1999) *Case Study Research in Educational Settings,* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Bassnett-McGuire, S. (1980) *Translation Studies,* London: Methuen.

Bassnett, S. & Lefevere, A. (1990) General Editors' Preface, in A. Lefevere *Translation, Rewriting and the Manipulation of Literary Fame,* London and New York: Routledge, pp. vii-viii.

Bell, R. T. (1991) *Translation and Translating: theory and practice,* London: Longman.

BERA (2012) *Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research*, London: British Educational Research Association.

Berg, B. L. (2007) *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences,* Boston: Pearson.

Bernardini, S. (2001) Think-aloud Protocols in Translation Research, *Target* 13 (2), 241-263.

Bernardini, S. (2004) Corpus-aided Language Pedagogy for Translator Education, in K. Malmkjær (Ed.) *Translation in Undergraduate Degree Programmes,* Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins, pp. 97-111.

Boase-Beier, J. (2006) Loosening the Grip of the Text: Theory as an Aid to Creativity, in M. Perteghella & E. Loffredo (Eds.) *Translation and Creativity: Perspectives in Creative Writing and Translation Studies*, London & New York: Continuum, pp. 47-56.

Bourdieu, P. (1990) *In Other Words: Essays Toward a Reflexive Sociology*, trans. by M. Adamson, Stanford: Stanford University Press; translation of *Choses Dites*, 1987.

Bourdieu, P. & Wacquant, Loïc J. D. (1992) *An Invitation to Reflexive Sociology* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006) Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology, *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3, 77-101.

Breen, M. P. (2001) Syllabus design, in R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.) *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 151-159.

Brewer, J. D. (2000) *Ethnography,* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Caminade, M. & Pym, A. (1998) Translator-Training Institutions, in M. Baker (Ed.) *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies,* London and New York: Routledge, pp. 280-285.

Cannon, R. & Newble, D. (2000) *A Handbook for Teachers in Universities and Colleges: A Guide to Improving Teaching Methods*, 4th edition, London: Kogan Page.

Catford, John C. (1965/2000) *A Linguistic Theory of Translation. An Essay in Applied Linguistics*, London: Longman; see also the extract 'Translation shifts' in L. Venuti (Ed.) (2000) *The Translation Studies Reader,* 2nd edition, New York and London: Routledge, pp. 141-147.

Chau, S. S. C. (1995) Translation Education, in S-W Chan & D. E. Pollard (Eds.) *An Encyclopedia of Translation: Chinese-English, English-Chinese,* Hong Kong: Chinese University of Hong Kong, pp. 190-208.

Chan, S-W & Pollard D. E. (Eds.) (1995) *An Encylopedia of Translation: Chinese-English, English-Chinese,* Hong Kong: The Chinese University Press.

Chesterman, A. & Wagner, E. (2002) *Can Theory Help Translators? A dialogue between the Ivory Tower and the Wordface*, Manchester, UK & Northampton, MA: St. Jerome.

Chesterman, A. (1997) *Memes of Translation*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins.

Chesterman, A. (2001) Proposal for a Hieronymic Oath, *The Translator*, 7 (2), 139-154.

Chestermam, A. (2002) A Causal Model for Translation Studies, in M. Olohan (Ed.) *Intercultural Faultlines: Research Models in Translation Studies I: Textual and Cognitive Aspects*, Manchester, UK & Northampton, MA: St. Jerome, pp. 29-42.

Chesterman, A. (2005) Causality in Translator Training, in M. Tennent (Ed.) *Training for the New Millennium*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins, pp. 191-208.

Chesterman, A. (2007) Bridge Concepts in Translation Sociology, in M. Wolf & A. Fukari (Eds.) *Constructing a Sociology of Translation*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins, pp. 171-183.

Christensen, T. P. (2011) Studies on the Mental Processes in Translation Memory assisted Translation – the State of the Art, *trans-kom* 4 (2), 137-160.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2000) *Research Methods in Education*, London and New York: Routledge Falmer.

Colina, S. (2003) *Translation Teaching from Research to the Classroom: A handbook for teachers*, New York & San Francisco: McGraw Hill.

Colina, S. (2009) Further Evidence for a Functionalist Approach to Translation Quality Evaluation, *Target*, 21 (2), 235-264.

Cook, G. (2010) *Translation in Language Teaching*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Corbin, J. & Strauss, A. (2008) *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*, 3rd edition, Los Angeles, California and London: Sage Publications.

Cortazzi, M., Pilcher, N. & Jin, L. (2011) Language Choices and 'Blind Shadows': Investigating interviews with Chinese participants, *Qualitative Research*, 11 (5), 505-535.

Cronin, M. (2003) *Translation and Globalization*, London: Routledge.

Cronin, M. (2005) Deschooling Translation: Beginning of Century Reflections on Teaching Translation and Interpreting, in M. Tennent (Ed.) *Training for the New Millennium*, Amsterdam and Philadelphia: Benjamins, pp. 249-265.

Cronin, M. (2006) *Translation and Identity*, London: Routledge

Dam-Jensen, H. & Heine, C. (2009) Process Research Methods and Their Application in the Didactics of Text Production and Translation: Shedding Light on the Use of Research Methods in the University Classroom, *trans-kom* 2 (1): 1-25.

Degenhardt, M. (2006) CAMTASIA and CATMOVIE: Two Digital Tools for Observing, Documenting and Analysing Writing Processes of University Students, in Luuk Van Waes, Mariëlle Leijten & Christine M. Neuwirth (Eds.) *Writing and Digital Media*, Oxford/Amsterdam: Elsevier, pp. 180-186.

Delisle, J. (1988) *L'analyse du discours comme méthode de traduction: Initiation à la traduction française de textes pragmatiques anglais, théorie et pratique* (Ottawa: Presses de l'Université d'Ottawa, 1980), Part I was translated into English by Patricia Hogan and Monica Creery as *Translation: An Interpretive Approach*, Ottawa: University of Ottawa Press.

Denscombe, M. (2010) *The Good Research Guide: for small-scale social research projects*, 4th edition, Maidenhead, England: McGraw-Hill/Open University Press.

Denzin, N. K. (1997) *Interpretive Ethnography: Ethnographic Practices for the 21st Century*, Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE publications.

Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.) (2005) *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research*, 3rd edition, Thousand Oaks and London: Sage Publications.

Díaz Cintas, J. (Ed.) (2008) *The didactics of Audiovisual Translation*, Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Dollerup, C. & Lindegaard, A. (Ed.) (1992) *Teaching Translation and Interpreting: Training, Talent and Experience: papers from the first Language International Conference, Elsinore, Denmark, 31 May-2 June 1991***,** Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Dollerup, C. & Lindegaard, A. (Ed.) (1994**)** *Teaching Translation and Interpreting 2: insights, aims, visions***,** Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Dollerup, C. & Appel, V. (Ed.) (1996**)** *Teaching Translation and Interpreting. 3, New horizons: papers from the third Language International Conference, Elsinore, Denmark, 9-11 June 1995***,** Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Duff, P. (2008) *Case Study Research in Applied Linguistics*, London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007) *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Methodologies*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2003) *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Even-Zohar, I. (1978/2000) The Position of Translated Literature within the Literary Polysystem, in L. Venuti (Ed.) (2000) *The Translation Studies Reader*, London: Routledge, pp. 192-197.

Even-Zohar, I. (1990) *Polysystem Studies*, (Tel Aviv: The Porter Institute for Poetics and Semiotics. Durham: Duke University Press, (=*Poetics Today* 11: 1, 1-6.)

Fetterman, D. M. (1998) *Ethnography, Step by Step*, 2nd edition, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.

Finlay, L. (2012) Five Lenses for the Reflexive Interviewer, in J. F. Gubrium, J. A. Holstein, A. B. Marvasti & K. D. McKinney (Eds.) *The SAGE Handbook of Interview Research: The Complexity of the Craft*, Los Angeles : SAGE, pp. 317-331.

Flick, U. (2009) *An Introduction to Qualitative Research*, 4th edition, London: SAGE.

Geisler, C. & Slattery, S. (2007) Chapter 9: Capturing the Activity of Digital Writing, in Heidi A. McKee & Danielle DeVoss (Eds.) *Digital Writing Research: Technologies, Methodologies, and Ethical Issues*, Cresskill N.J.: Hampton Press, 185-200.

Gentzler, E. (2008) A Global View of Translation Studies: Towards an Interdisciplinary Field, in Wang, Ning & Sun, Yifeng (Eds.) *Translation, Globalisation and Localisation: A Chinese perspective*, Clevedon/Buffalo/Toronto: Multilingual Matters, pp. 111-126.

Gile, D. (1995) *Basic Concepts and Models for Interpreter and Translator Training*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Gillham, B. (2005) *Research Interviewing: The range of techniques*, Berkshire: Open University Press.

Gläser, J. & Laudel, G. (2004) *Experteninterviews und qualitative Inhaltsanalyse als Instrumente rekonstruierender Untersuchungen*, Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschafen.

Golden, S. (2001) Professional Translator and Interpreter Training Programmes, in Sin-Wai Chan & D. E. Pollard (Eds) *An Encyclopaedia of Translation: Chinese-English, English-Chinese*, Hong Kong: Chinese University Press, pp.1075-1084.

Göpferich, S., Jakobsen, A. L. & Mees, I. M. (Eds.) (2008) *Looking at Eyes: Eye-Tracking Studies of Reading and Translation Processing*, Copenhagen Studies in Language 36, Kopenhagen: Samfundslitteratur Press.

Göpferich, S. & Jääskeläinen, R. (2009) Process Research into the Development of Translation Competence: Where Are We, and Where Do We need to Go? *Across Languages and Cultures*, 10 (2), 169-191.

Gouanvic, J.-M. (2005) A Bourdieusian Theory of Translation, or the Coincidence of Practical Instances: Field, "Habitus", Capital and "Illusio", *The Translator*, 11 (2), 147-166.

Greenall, S. Newbold, D. & Friedland (2009) *Real Communication, an integrated course (New Standard College English* (Books 1 to 4). Beijing: Macmillan / Foreign Languages Teaching and Research Press.

Guba, E. G. & Lincoln, Y. S. (2008) Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences, in N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds) *The Landscape of Qualitative Research*, 3rd edition, London: Sage Publications, pp. 253-291.

Gubrium, J. F; Holsten, J. A; Marvasti, A. B. & McKinney, K. D. (Eds.) (2012) *The SAGE Handbook of Interview Research, the complexity of the craft*, Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.

Gutt, E.-A. (2003) 'On the impossibility of practising translation without theory', Paper presented at the *Colloque International La traduction: De la théorie à la pratique et de la pratique à la théorie*, Université de Bretagne Sud, Lorient, France. In J. Peeters (Ed.) (2005) On the Relationships between Translation Theory and Translation Practice, Berlin: Peter Lang.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1985) *Spoken and Written Language*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hansen, G. (2005) Experience and Emotion in Empirical Translation Research with Think-aloud and Retrospection, *Meta*, 50 (2), 511-521.

Hardy, C., Harley, B. & Phillips, N. (2004) Discourse analysis and content analysis: Two solitudes? *Newsletter of the Qualitative Methods Division of the American Political Sciences Studies Association*, Spring, 19-22.

Hatim, B. & Mason, I. (1990) *Discourse and the Translator,* London: Longman.

Hatim, B. & Mason, I. (1997) *The Translator as Communicator,* London: Routledge.

Hatim, B. (2001) *Teaching and Researching Translation,* London: Longman.

Havac, J. (2010) Ethical Implications in Situations Where the Language of Interpretation Shifts: The AUSIT Code of Ethics, *Translation & Interpreting,* 2 (3), 29-43.

Hermans, T. (Ed.) (1985) *The Manipulation of Literature: Studies in Literary Translation*, London: Croom Helm.

Hermans, T. (1998) Translation and Normativity, *Current Issues in Language and Society*, 5 (1 & 2), 50-72.

Hermans, T. (1999) *Translation in Systems: Descriptive and system-oriented approaches Explained,* Manchester: St. Jerome.

Holes, C. (2000) The Koran, in P. France (Ed.) *The Oxford Guide to Literature in English Translation,* Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 141-145.

Holmes, J. S. (1988) *Translated! Papers on Literary Translation and Translation Studies,* Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Holmes, J. S. (1988) The Name and Nature of Translation Studies, in Holmes, J. S. *Translated! Papers on Literary Translation and Translation Studies*, Amsterdam: Rodopi, pp. 67-80. This is an expanded version of a paper presented in the Translation Section of the Third International Congress of Applied Linguistics, held in Copenhagen, 21-26 August 1972. Originally issued in the APPTS series of the Translation Studies Section, Department of General Literary Studies, University of Amsterdam, 1972, presented here in its second pre-publication form (1975). It was reprinted in Toury, G. (Ed.) (1987) *Translation Across Cultures,* New Delhi: Bahri Publictions.

Holz-Mänttäri, J. (1984) *Translatorisches Handeln. Theorie und Methode,* Helsinki: Suomalainen Tiedeakatemia (quoted in Schäffner 2001: 14).

Hönig, H. G. & Kussmaul, P. (1982/1991) *Strategie der Übersetzung. Ein Lehr und Arbeitsbuch,* 4th edition, Tübingen: Narr.

House, J. (2000) Consciousness and the Strategic Use of Aids in Translation, in S. Tirkkonen-Condit & R. Jääskeläinen (Eds.) *Tapping and Mapping the*

Processes of Translation and Interpreting: Outlooks on Empirical Research, Amsterdam: Benjamins, pp. 149-162.

Hsieh, H. & Shannon, S. E. (2005) Three Approaches to Qualitative Content Analysis, *Qualitative Health Research*, 15(9), 1277-1288.

Hung, E. (2006) "And the Translator Is." Translators in Chinese History, in T. Hermans (Ed.) *Translating Others*, Manchester/Kinderhook: St Jerome, vol. 1, pp. 145-160.

Hung, E. & Pollard, D. (2000) Chinese Tradition, in M. Baker (Ed.) *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies*, London: Routledge, pp. 365-376.

Hurtado Albir, A. (2007) Competence-based Curriculum Design for training Translators, *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 1 (2), 163-195.

Inghilleri, M. (2003) Habitus, Field and Discourse. Interpreting as a Socially Situated Activity, *Target*, 15 (2), 243-268.

Inghilleri, M. (2005a), 'Mediating Zones of Uncertainty: Interpreter Agency, the Interpreting Habitus and Political Asylum Adjudication', *The Translator*, 11 (1), 69-85.

Inghilleri, M. (2005b) The Sociology of Bourdieu and the Construction of the "Object" in Translation and Interpreting Studies, *The Translator*, 11 (2), 125-145.

Jakobson, R. 1959/2000 On Linguistic Aspects of Translation, in L. Venuti (Ed.) (2000) *The Translation Studies Reader*, New York and London: Routledge, pp. 113-118; first publ. in R. A. Brower (Ed.) (1959) *On Translation*, Cambridge: Mass, pp. 232-239.

Jääskeläinen, R. (2000) Focus on methodology in Think-aloud studies on translating, in S. Tirkkonen-Condit & R. Jääskeläinen (Eds.) *Tapping and Mapping the Processes of Translation and Interpreting*, Amsterdam: Benjamins, pp.71-82.

Jakobsen, A. L. (2006) Research Methods in Translation – Translog, in Kirk P. H. Sullivan & E. Lindgren (Eds.) *Computer Key Stroke Logging and Writing: Methods and Applications*, Oxford: Elsevier, pp. 95-105.

Kearns, J. (Ed.) (2008) *Translator and Interpreter Training: Issues, Methods and Debates*, London: Continuum.

Kohlbacher, F. (2006) The use of qualitative content analysis in case study research, [89 paragraphs]. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research* [On-line Journal], January, 7(1), Art. 21. Available from: http://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/75/153 <accessed on 27 April 2013>

Kovačič, I. (2000) Thinking-aloud Protocol – interview – text Analysis, in S. Tirkkonen-Condit & R. Jääskeläinen (Eds.) *Tapping and Mapping the Processes of Translation and Interpreting*. Amsterdam: Benjamins, pp.97-109

Liu, Miqing (1995 Translation Theory from/into Chinese, in S-W Chan & D. E. Pollard (Eds.) *An Encyclopedia of Translation: Chinese-English, English-Chinese,* Hong Kong: Chinese University of Hong Kong, pp.1027-1047.

Jin, L. & Cortazzi, M. (2009, 2010) *Teacher's Book: Real Communication, an integrated course (New Standard College English* (Teacher's Books 1 to 4), Beijing: Macmillan / Foreign Languages Teaching and Research Press.

Jones, F. R. (2001) Translation in Language Teaching, in S.-W. Chan & D. E. Pollard (Eds.) *An Encyclopaedia of Translation: Chinese-English, English-Chinese*, Chinese University Press, pp. 487-503.

Kearns, J. (Ed.) (2008) *Translator and Interpreter Training: Issues, Methods and Debates*, London: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Kiraly, D. C. (2000) *A Social Constructivist Approach to Translator Education: Empowerment from Theory to Practice*, Manchester: St Jerome.

Kiraly, D. C. (2003) From Instruction to Collaborative Construction: A Passing Fad or the Promise of a Paradigm Shift in Translator Education?, in B. J. Baer & G.. S. Koby (Eds.) *Beyond the Ivory Tower: Rethinking Translation Pedagogy Volume VII*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 3-26.

Kiraly, D. C. (1995) *Pathways to Translation, Pedagogy and Process*, Kent, Ohio: Kent State University Press.

Königs, F. G. (1986) Anlehnung-Ablehnung-Entlehnung oder: Muß die Übersetzungsdidaktik den gleichen Weg wie die Fremdsprachendidaktik gehen?' [Imitation-rejection-borrowing or: Does translation teaching have to take the same path as foreign language teaching?] *Fremdsprachen und Hochschule* 18, 54-76.

Kussmaul, P. (1995) *Training the Translator,* Amsterdam/Philadelphia: Benjamins.

Lane-Mercier, G. (1997) Translating the Untranslatable: The translator's aesthetic, ideological and political responsibility, *Target*, 9, 43-68.

Lederer, M. (March 2007) Can Theory Help Interpreter and Translator Trainers and Trainees?, *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer* (ITT), 1 (1), 15-35.

Leonardi, V. (2010) *The Role of Pedagogical Translation in Second Language Acquisition: From Theory to Practice*, Peter Lang.

Li, Defeng (2001) Needs Assessment in Translation Teaching: Making translator training more responsive to social needs, *Babel: International Journal of Translation*, 46 (4), pp.289-99.

Li, Defeng (2002) Teaching of Specialized Translation Courses in Hong Kong: A curricular Analysis, in *English Language Teaching and Translation for the 21st Century*, Macau: Macau Polytechnic Institute, pp. 476-490.

Li, Defeng (2005) Teaching of Specialized Translation Courses in Hong Kong. *Babel: International Journal of Translation*, 51(1), 1-16.

Li, Defeng (2007) Translation Curriculum and Pedagogy: Views of administrators of translation services, *Target: International Journal of Translation Studies*, 19 (1), 105-33.

Li, Defeng (2012) *Curriculum Design, Needs Assessment and Translation Pedagogy*, Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press; Verlag: LAP LAMBERT Academic Publishing.

Li, Defeng & Hu, Mu (2006) Curriculum Development in Translation Education: A learner-centered approach, *Journal of Foreign Languages*, 162 (2), 59-65.

Li, Defeng & Hu, Mu (2009) Research on Translation Teaching: Progress, problems and prospects (B), *Chinese Science & Technology Translators Journal*, 22 (3), 44-47.

Liu, Miqing (1995) Translation Theory from/into Chinese, in S-W Chan & D. E. Pollard (Eds.) *An Encyclopedia of Translation: Chinese-English*, Hong Kong: The Chinese University Press, pp. 1029-1047.

Lörscher, W. (1986) Linguistic aspects of translation processes, in J. House & S. Blum-Kulka (Ed.) *Interlingual and Intercultural Communication*, Tübingen: Gunter Narr, pp. 277-292.

Lörscher, W. (1991) *Translation Performance, Translation Process and Translation Strategies: A psycholinguistic investigation*, Tübingen: Narr.

Malmkjær, K. (2002) Translation and linguistics: What does the future hold?, in Alessandra R. (Ed.) *Translation Studies: Perspectives on an Emerging Discipline*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 111-119.

Malmkjær, K. (Ed.) (2004) *Translation in Undergraduate Degree Programmes*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Mayring, P. (2000) Qualitative content analysis [28 paragraphs], *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research* [On-line Journal], June,

1(2), Art. 20. Available at: http://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/1089 [Accessed on 15 March 2013].

Miller, K. S. & Sullivan, Kirk P. H. (2006) Keystroke Logging: An Introduction, in Kirk P. H. Sullivan & E. Lindgren (Eds.) *Computer Keystroke Logging and Writing: Methods and Applications*, Studies in Writing 18, Oxford: Elsevier, pp. 2-9.

Morgan, D. L. (2010) Reconsidering the Role of Interaction in analysing and reporting focus groups, *Qualitative Health Research*, 20, 718-722.

Morgan, D. L. (2012) Focus Groups and Social Interaction, in Jaber F. G., J. A. Holstein, A. B. Marvasti & K. D. McKinney (Eds.) *The SAGE Handbook of Interview Research: The Complexity of the Craft*, Los Angeles : SAGE, pp. 161-176.

Motas, D. et al. (1992) New Translation Departments – Challenges of the Future, in M. Snell-Hornby, F. Pöchhacker and K. Kaindl (Eds.) *Translation Studies: An Interdiscipline*, Amsterdam: Benjamins, pp. 431-434.

Mu, Lei (1999a) Translation Teaching in China, *Meta*, XLIV, 1, 198-208.

Munday, J. (2001) *Introducing Translation Studies*, London: Routledge.

Munday, J. (2008) *Introducing Translation Studies: Theories and Applications*, 2nd edition, London: Routledge.

Neubert, A. (1991) Models of Translation', in S. Tirkkonen-Condit (Ed.) *Empirical Research in Translation and Intercultural Studies. Selected papers of the TRANSIF seminar*, Tübingen: Gunter Narr, pp. 17-26.

Neubert, A. (2000) Competence in Language, in Languages, and in Translation, in C. Schäffner & B. Adab (Eds.) *Developing Translation Competence*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 3-18.

Newmark, P. (1981) *Approaches to Translation*, Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Newmark, P. (1988) *A Textbook of Translation*, Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall International.

Newmark, P. (1991) *About Translation*, Clevedon: Multilingual matters.

Nida, E. A. (1964) *Toward a Science of Translating. With Special Reference to Principles and Procedures Involved in Bible Translating*, Leiden: Brill.

Niska, H. (2005) Training Interpreters: Programmes, Curricula, Practices, in M. Tennent (Eds.) *Training for the New Millennium*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 35-64.

Nord, C. (1991a) *Textanalyse und Übersetzen*. Theoretische Grundlagen, Methode und didaktische Anwendung einer *übersetzungsrelevanten Textanalyse* (Heidelberg: Groos, 1988), trans. as *Text Analysis in Translation: Theory, Methodology and Didactic Application of a Model for Translation-Oriented Text Analysis*, Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Nord, C. (1991b) Scope, Loyalty and Translational Conventions, *Target*, 3 (1), 91-109.

Nord, C. (1997) *Translating as a Purposeful Activity: Functionalist Approaches Explained*, Manchester: St Jerome.

Nord, C. (2006) *Text Analysis in Translation: Theory, Methodology and Didactic Application of a Model for Translation-Oriented Text Analysis*, 2nd edition, Amsterdam: Rodopi.

O'Brien, S. (2006) Eye-tracking and Translation Memory Matches, *Perspectives: Studies in Translatology*, 14 (3), 185-205.

O'Brien, S. (2008) Processing Fuzzy Matches in Translation Memory tools: An eye-tracking analysis, in S. Göpferich, A. L. Jakobsen & I. M. Mees (Eds.) *Looking at Eyes*. *Eye-tracking Studies of Reading and Translation Processing*, Copenhagen: Samfundslitteratur, pp. 79-102.

O'Brien, S. (2009) Eye-tracking in Translation-process Research: Methodological Challenges and Solutions, in I. M. Mees, F. Alves & S. Göpferich (Eds.) *Methodology, Technology and Innovation in Translation Process Research. A Tribute to Arnt Lykke Jakobsen*, Copenhagen Studies in Language 38, Copenhagen: Samfundslitteratur, 251-266.

PACTE (2003) Building a Translation Competence Model, in F. Alves (Ed.) *Triangulating Translation: Perspectives in Process Oriented Research*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 43-66.

PACTE (2008) First Results of a Translation Competence Experiment: "Knowledge of Translation" and "Efficacy of the Translation Process", in J. Kearns (Ed.) *Translator and Interpreter Training: Issues, Methods and Debates*, London: Continuum, pp. 104-121.

Patton, M. Q. (1990) *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods*, 2nd edition, Newbury Park/London/New Delhi: Sage.

Patton, M. Q. (2000) *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods*, 2nd edition, Newbury Park, CA: Sage

Pei, Denghua (2010) The Subjectivity of the Translator and Socio-cultural Norms, *English Language Teaching*, September, 3 (3), 29-34.

Pym, A. (Ed.) (2001) The Return to Ethics, *The Translator*, 7 (2), special issue.

Pym, A. (2006) On the Social and the Cultural in Translation Studies, in A. Pym, M. Shlesinger & Z. Jettmarová (Eds.) *Sociocultural Aspects of Translation and Interpreting*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Pym, A. (2010) *Exploring translation theories*, London; New York: Routledge,

Ran, Shi-yang (2009) Macro-perspective in Translation Teaching, *US-China Foreign Language*, 7 (7), 29-35.

Reiss, K.& Vermeer, H. J. (1984/1991) *Grundlegung einer allgemeinen Translationstheorie*, 2nd edition, Tübingen: Niemeyer.

Reiss, K. (1989) Text Types, Translation Types and Translation Assessment, in A. Chesterman (Ed.) *Readings in Translation Theory*, Helsinki: Oy Finn Lectura Ab, pp. 160-171.

Rico, C. (2010) Translator Training in the European Higher Education Area: Curriculum Design for the Bologna Process. A Case Study, *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 4 (1), 89-114.

Richards, K. (2003) *Qualitative Inquiry in TESOL*, Houndmills, Hampshire: Palgrave.

Richards, K. (2011) Case study, in E. Hinkel (Ed.) *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*, New York: Routledge, pp. 207-221.

Robson, C. (1993) *Real World Research: a resource for social scientists and practitioner-researchers*, Oxford: Blackwell

Robson, C. (2011) *Real World Research: a resource for users of social research methods in applied settings*, 3rd edition, Chichester: Wiley.

Ryan, G. W. & Bernard, H. R. (2000) Data Management and Analysis Methods, in N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, Thousand Oaks: Sage, pp.769-802.

Sarantakos, S. (2005) *Social Research*, 3rd edition, Houndmills, UK and New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Schäffner, C. & Wiesemann, U. (2001) *Annotated Texts for Translation: English-German Functionalist Approaches Illustrated*, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Schäffner, C. & Adab, B. (2000) Developing Translation Competence: Introduction, in C. Schäffner & B. Adab (Eds.) *Developing Translation Competence*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins, vii-xvi.

Schäffner, C. (Ed.) (2004) *Translation Research and Interpreting Research: Traditions, Gaps and Synergies*, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Schreitmüller, A. (1994) Interlinguale Relationen, *Lebende Sprache* 39 (3), 104-106.

Schwandt, T. A. (2003) Three epistemological stances for qualitative enquiry: interpretivism, hermeneutics, and social constructivism, in N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.) *The Landscape of Qualitative Research, theories and issues,* 2nd edition, Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications, pp. 292-331.;

Schwandt, T. A., (2007) *The SAGE Dictionary of Qualitative Inquiry*, 3rd edition, Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.

Scott, J. (1990) *A Matter of Record: Documentary Sources in Social Research*, Cambridge: Polity Press.

Seale, C. (1999) *The Quality of Qualitative Research*, London: SAGE Publications.

Silverman, D. (2005) *Doing Qualitative Research: A Practical Handbook*, 2nd edition, London: SAGE.

Simeoni, D. (1998) The Pivotal Status of the Translator's Habitus, *Target*, 10 (1), 1-39.

Simeoni, D. (2005) Translation and Society: The Emergence of a Conceptual Relationship, in P. St-Pierre & P. C. Kar (Eds.) *Translation: Reflections, Refractions, Transformations*, New Delhi: Pencraft International, pp. 3-14.

Small, M. L. (2009) How many cases do I need? – On science and the logic of case selection in field-based research. *Ethnography*, 10(1), 5-38.

Snell-Hornby, M., F. Pöchhacker & K. Kaindl (Eds.) (1994) *Translation Studies: An Interdiscipline*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Snell-Hornby, M. (2006) *The Turns of Translation Studies*, Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Snell-Hornby, M. (2009) What's in a Turn? On Fits, Starts and Writhings in Recent Translation Studies, *Translation Studies* 2 (1), 41-51.

Stake, R. E. (1995) *The Art of Case Study Research*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Stake, R. E. (2000) The case study method in social inquiry, in R. Gomm, M. Hammersley & P. Foster (Eds.) *Case study Methods: Key issues, key texts,* London: Sage Publications, pp. 19-26

Stamenov, M. I., Gerganov, A. & Popivanov, I. D. (2010) Prompting cognates in the bilingual lexicon: Optimizing access during translation', in G. M. Shreve &

E. Angelone (Eds.) T*ranslation and Cognition*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 323–347.

Sun, Yifeng & Mu, Lei (2008) Translation Studies in China: A “Glocalised” Theoretical Practice, in Wang Ning & Sun Yifeng (Eds.) *Translation, Globalisation and Localisation: a Chinese Perspective*, Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters, pp. 50-74.

Sun, Sanjun (2011) Think-Aloud-based translation process research: Some Methodological Considerations, *Meta: Translators' Journal*, vol. 56 (4), 928-951.

Tan, Zaixi (2008) Towards a Whole-Person Translator Education Approach in Translation Teaching on University Degree Programmes, *Meta LIII*, 3, 589-608.

Tennent, M. (Ed.) (2005) *Training for the New Millennium*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Titscher, S., Meyer, M., Wodak, R. & Vetter, E. (2000) *Methods of Text and Discourse Analysis*, trans. by Bryan Jenner, London: Sage.

Toury, G. (Ed.) (1987) *Translation across Cultures*, New Delhi: Bahri Publictions.

Toury, G. (1995) *Descriptive Translation Studies and Beyond* Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Tymoczko, M. (2007) *Enlarging Translation, Empowering Translators*, Manchester, UK and Kinderhook,NY, USA: St. Jerome.

Ulrych, M. (2005) Training Translators: Programmes, Curricula, Practices, in M. Tennent (Ed.) *Training for the New Millennium*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp. 3-33.

van Wynsberghe, R. & Khan, S. (2007) Redefining case study. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 6(2), 80-94.

Venuti, L. (Ed.) (1992) *Rethinking translation: discourse, subjectivity, ideology*, London: Routledge.

Venuti, L. (1995) *The Translator’s Invisibility,* New York and London: Routledge.

Venuti, L. (1998) *The Scandals of Translation: Towards an Ethics of Difference*, London: Routledge.

Venuti, L. (Ed.) (2000) *The Translation Studies Reader*, 2nd edition, London: Routledge.

Vermeer, H. J. (1989/2000) Scopos and Commission in Translational Action, in A. Chesterman (Ed.) *Readings in Translation Theory*, Helsinki: Oy Finn Lectura Ab, pp. 99-104 (also in L. Venuti (ed.) (2000), pp. 221-232).

Vermeer, H. J. (1996) *A Skopos Theory of Translation (Some Arguments For and Against),* Heidelberg: TEXT con TEXT.

Vinay, Jean-Paul & Jean Darbelnet, *Stylistique comparée du français et de l'anglais: méthode de traduction* (Paris: Didier, 1958, 2nd edition 1977), trans. and ed. by Juan Sager & Marie-Josée Hamel as *Comparative Stylistics of French and English: A Methodology for Translation* (Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1995); also the extract 'A Methodology for Translation', in L. Venuti (Ed.) (2000) *The Translation Studies Reader*, London: Routledge, pp. 84-93.

Wang, Ning & Sun, Yifeng (Eds.) (2008) *Translation, globalisation and localisation: a Chinese perspective*, Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Wang, Ning (2000) Globalization, Cultural Studies and Translation Studies, *Translation Quarterly*, (15), 37-50.

Wang, Ning, (2001) Translatology: Toward a Scientific Discipline, *Chinese Translators*' *Journal*, 6, 2-6.

Wang, Ning (2003) Translation Studies: Interdisciplinary Approaches, *Perspectives: Studies in Translatology*, 11 (1), 7-10.

Wang, Zouliang (1995) Translation Standards, in S-W Chan & D. E. Pollard (Eds.) *An Encyclopedia of Translation; Chinese-English, English-Chinese,* Hong Kong: Chinese University of Hong Kong, pp. 997-1003.

Widdowson, H. G. (1984) English in Training and Education, in H. G. Widdowson (Ed.) *Explorations in Applied Linguistics 2*, Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 201-211.

Williams, J. (2013) *Theories of Translation,* Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan.

Wilss, W. (1996) *Knowledge and Skills in Translator Behaviour*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Witte, A., Harden, T. & Alessandra Ramos De Oliveira Harden (Eds.) (2009) *Translation in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Wolf, M. & A. Fukari (Eds.) (2007) *Constructing a Sociology of Translation*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Yannakopoulou, V. (2008) Norms and Translatorial Habitus in Angelos Vlahos' Greek Translation of Hamlet, in P. Boulogne (Ed.) *Translation and Its Others.*

Selected Papers of the CETRA Research Seminar in Translation Studies 2007, 1-32, available at http://www.kuleuven.be/cetra/papers/Papers2007/Yannakopoulou.pdf <assessed on 24 October 2011>.

Yin, R. K. (2003) *Case Study Research*, 3rd edition, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Yin, R. K. (2009) *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*, 4th edition, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Zhang, Y. & Wildermuth, B. M. (2009) Qualitative Analysis of Content, in B.M. Wildermuth (Ed.), *Applications of Social Research Methods to Qualitative Studies in Information and Library*. Available at http://www.doc88.com/p-902293997585.html <accessed on 22 September 2013>

Zhou,Yali & Lin, Yan (2012) Probe into Translation Process Based on Think-aloud Protocols, *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2 (7), 1376-1386, available at http://ojs.academypublisher.com/index.php/tpls/article/view/tpls020713761386 <Accessed on 27 March 2013>

Chinese work cited

Chen, Hongwei 陈宏薇 (1996) Xin Shiyong Han Yi Ying Jiaocheng《新实用汉译英教程》 [*A New Practical Textbook of Translation from Chinese into English*], Wuhan: Hubei Education Press = 武汉：湖北教育出版社.

China's Division of Higher Education 中国高教司 (2004) Daxue Yingyu Kecheng Jiaoxue Yaoqiu (shixing)《大学英语课程教学要求（试行）》[*College English Curriculum Requirements (for Trial Implementation)*], Beijing: Higher Education Press = 高等教育出版社.

China's Division of Higher Education 中国高教司 (2007) Daxue Yingyu Kecheng Jiaoxue Yaoqiu (shixing)《大学英语课程教学要求》[*College English Curriculum Requirements*], Beijing: Higher Education Press = 高等教育出版社.

China's Ministry of Higher Education 中国高教厅(1990) Daxue Yingyu Jiaoxue Dagang 《大学英语教学大纲》 [*College English Language Teaching Guidelines*], Beijing: Higher Education Press = 高等教育出版社.

English Teaching Group of the Guide Committee of Foreign Language Teaching of China's Higher Education 高等学校外语专业教学指导委员会英语组 (2000) *Gaodeng Xuexiao Yingyu Zhuangye Jiaoxue Dagang* 《高等学校英语专业教

学大纲》[English Teaching Requirements for China's Higher Education], Beijing: Higher Education Press = 高等教育出版社.

Fan, Zhongying 范仲英 (1994) Shiyong Fanyi Jiaocheng 《实用翻译教程》 [*Practical Translation Textbook*], Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press = 外语教学与研究出版社.

Gui, Qianyuan 桂乾元(1986) Wei Queli Juyou Zhongguo Tese de Fanyixue er Nuli – Cong Guowai Fanyixue Tanqi 为确立具有中国特色的翻译学而努力—从国外翻译学谈起 [Striving for Establishing a Discipline of Translation with Chinese Characteristics --- Talking about Foreign Translation Studies], *Chinese Translators' Journal* = 中国翻译, (3), 12-15.

Huang, Long 黄龙 (1988) Fanyi Yishu Jiaocheng 《翻译艺术教程》 [*A Course in Translation Art*], Nanjing: Nanjing University Press= 南京大学出版社.

Ke, Ping 柯平(1993) Yinghan yu Hanying Fanyi Jiaocheng 《英汉与汉英翻译教程》 [*A Course on English-Chinese and Chinese-English Translation*], Beijing: Beijing University Press = 北京大学出版社.

Lao, Long 劳陇 (2003) Fanyi Jiaoxue de Chulu – Lilun yu Shijian Xiang Jiehe' 翻译教学的出路 -- 理论与实践相结合 [Outlet of Translation Teaching: the Combination of Theory and Practice], in Yang Zijian (Ed.) *Fanyi Xin Lun 1983-1992* 《翻译新论 (1983-1992) 》 [A Series of Translation Studies in China 1983-1992], Wuhan: Hubei Education Press = 武汉：湖北教育出版社, pp. 647-657.

Li, Zhengzhong and Wang Enmian 李正中、王恩冕(Eds.) (1992) Xin Bian Yinghan Fanyi 《新编英汉翻译》 [*A New Coursebook on English-Chinese Translation*], Beijing: China's International Broadcast Press = 中国国际广播出版社.

Liu, Minqing 刘宓庆 (2003) *Fanyi Jiaoxue: Shiwu yu Lilun*《翻译教学:实务与理论》 [Translation Teaching: Practice and Theory], Beijing: China Translation and Publishing Corporation = 北京: 中国对外翻译出版公司.

Luo, Xinzhang 罗新璋 (1983) Woguo Zicheng Tixi de Fanyi Lilun 我国自成体系的翻译理论 [Our Country's Translation Theory: A System of Its Own], in Luo Xinzhang 罗新璋(Ed.) (1984) *Fanyi Lunwen Ji* 《翻译论集》[*An Anthology of Translation Theory*], Beijing: Commercial Press = 商务印书馆, pp. 1-19; first publ. in Fanyi Tongxun 翻译通讯 [*The Translator's Notes*], (7), 9-13; (8), 8-12.

Lü, Ruichang et al. 吕瑞 昌 等 (Eds.) (1983) Hanying Fanyi Jiaocheng 《汉英翻译教程》[*A Coursebook for Chinese-English Translation*], Xi'an: Shanxi People Press = 陕西人民出版社.

Mu, Lei 穆雷 (1999b) Zhongguo Fanyi Jiaoxue Yanjiu 《中国翻译教学研究》[*A Study of Translation Teaching in China*] (Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press =上海外语教育出版社.

Mu, Lei 穆雷 (2000) Fnyixue: Yige Nanyuan de Meng? 翻译学: 一个难圆的梦? [Translatology: An Unreal Dream?], *Foreign Languages and Translation* = 外语与翻译, (7), 47-49.

Mu, Lei 穆雷 (2003) Wenbu Fazhan Zhong de Fanyi Yanjiu 稳步发展 中的翻译学研究 ['Steady Development for Translation Studies in China'], *Chinese Translators' Journal* = 中国翻译, (2), 32-36.

Mu, Lei (2008) Jianshe Wanzheng de Fanyi Jiaoxue Tixi 建设完整的翻译教学体系 [Conceptualizing a System of Translation Pedagogy], translators Association of China = 中国译协网, (1), 41-44. <http://www.tac-online.org.cn/ch/tran/2009-09/27/content_3161611.htm> [assessed on 18 January 2011]

Pan, Hong 潘红 (2004) Shangwu Yingyu Yinghan Fanyi Jiaocheng 《商务英语英汉翻译教程》[*A Course in English-Chinese Business Translation*]，Beijing: Commercial Press = 北京：商务印书馆.

Pan, Wenguo 潘文国(2002) Dangdai Xifang de Fanyixue Yanjiu – Jiantan Fanyixue de Xuekexing Wenti 当代西方的翻译学研究 — 兼谈"翻译学" 的学科性问题 [Contemporary Translation Studies in the West: Translation Studies as an Independent Academic Discipline], *Chinese Translators' Journal* = 中国翻译, (1), 31-34; (2), 34-37 and (3), 18-22.

Sun, Zhili 孙致礼 (1997) Guanyu Woguo Fanyi Lilun Jianshe de Jidian Sikao 关于我国翻译理论建设的几点思考 [Some Thoughts on China's Establishment of Translation Theory], *Chinese Translators' Journal* = 中国翻译, (2), 10-12.

Tan, Zaixi 谭载喜 (1987) 'Bixu Jianli Fanyixue' 必须建立翻译学 [On the Development of a Science of Translation], *Chinese Translators' Journal* = 中国翻译, (3), 2-8.

Tan, Zaixi 谭载喜 (1988) Shi Lun Fanyixue 试论翻译学 [Further propositions for a science of translation], in Yang Zijian 杨自俭 (Ed.) (2003) *Fanyi Xin Lun 1983-1992* 《翻译新论 (1983-1992)》 [*A Series of Translation Studies in*

China 1983-1992], Wuhan: Hubei Education Press [武汉：湖北教育出版社], pp. 293-305 (first pub. in *Foreign Languages* = 外国语, 3, 22-28).

Tan, Zaixi 谭载喜 (1995) Zhongxi Xiandai Fanyixue Gaiping 中西现代翻译学概评 [A Comparative Study of Chinese vs. Western Approaches to Translation], *Foreign Languages* = 外国语, (3), 13-18.

Tan, Zaixi 谭载喜 (1998) Fanyixue Bixu Zhongshi Zhongxi Yilun Duibi Yanjiu 翻译学必须重视中西译论比较研究 [Translation Studies Must Stress Contrastive Studies in Chinese and Western Theories], *Chinese Translators' Journal* = 中国翻译, (2), 12-16.

Tan, Zaixi 谭载喜(1999) Zhongxi Yilun de Xiangsixing 中西译论的相似性 [Similarities between Chinese and Western translation theories], *Chinese Translators' Journal* = 中国翻译, (6), 25-28.

The Academic Degree Committee of China's Ministry of Education 国务院学位委员会 (2007) *Fanyi Shuoshi Zhuangye Xuewei Shezhi Fangan* 《翻译硕士专业学位设置方案》[Master of Translation and Interpretation (MTI) Programme], available at: http://www.tac-online.org.cn/tran/2009-09/24/content_3156107.htm

The National Technology Evaluation Bureau of China (NTEBC) 中国国家技术鉴定局 (1992) *Kecheng Fenlei Bianma* (GB/T13745-92)《课程分类编码 (GB/T13745-92) 》[The Subject Category and Code (GB/T13745-92)], Beijing: Higher Education Press = 高等教育出版社.

Xu, Jun 许钧 (1999) Guanyu Jiaqiang Fanyi Xueke Jianshe de Jidian Kanfa 关于加强翻译学科建设的几点看法 [Thoughts on Promoting the Construction of the Discipline of Translation], *Shanghai Journal of Translators for Science and Technology* =上海科技翻译, (4), 1-3.

Xu, Jun 许钧 (2001) Qieshi Jiaqiang Yixue Yanjiu he Fanyi Xueke Jianshe 切实加强译学研究和翻译学科建设[The Need to Strengthen Translation Studies and to Promote Its Establishment as an Academic discipline], *Chinese Translators' Journal* = 中国翻译, (1), 2-8.

Xu, Yuanchong 许渊冲 (2001) Zaitan "Jingsailun" he "Youshilun" – Jianping *Zhongshi Shi Yizhe de Tianzhi*' 再谈'竞赛论'和'优势论'—兼评《忠实是译者的天职》[Further Discussion on 'Competition' and 'Superiority' – with Comments on *Fidelity is the only duty of a translator*], *Chinese Translators' Journal* = 中国翻译, (1), 51-52.

Xu, Yuanchong 许渊冲 (2003) Tan Zhongguo Xuepai de Fanyi Lilun – Zhongguo Fanyixue Luohou yu Xifang Ma? 谈中国学派的翻译理论—中国翻译学落后于西方吗? [On the school of Chinese translation theory: does Chinese Translation Studies fall behind its Western counterpart?], *Foreign Languages and Teaching* = 外语与外语教学, (1), 52-54.

Yang, Lili 杨莉藜 (1993) Yinghan Huyi Jiaocheng 《英汉互译教程 (两册) 》 [*A Course in Translation between English and Chinese Vol. 1-2*], Kaifeng: Henan University Press = 开封：河南大学出版社.

Yang, Zijiang 杨自俭(1989) Guanyu Jianli Fanyixue de Sikao 关于建立翻译学的思考 [Thoughts on Establishing Translatology], in Yang Zijian 杨自俭 (Ed.) (2003) *Fanyi Xin Lun 1983-1992* 《翻译新论 (1983-1992)》 [*A Series of Translation Studies in China 1983-1992*], Wuhan: Hubei Education Press = 武汉：湖北教育出版社, pp. 325-333; first publ. in *Chinese Translators' Journal* = 中国翻译, (4), 7-9.

Zhang, Jinghao 张经浩 (1999) Fanyixue: Yige Wei Yuan qie Nan Yuan de Meng 翻译学：一个未圆且难圆的梦 [Translatology: An Incomplete and Unrealistic Dream], *Foreign Languages and Teaching* =外语与外语教学, (10), 44-48.

Zhang, Jinghao 张经浩 (2001) Zai Tan "Fanyi Xue" zhi Meng 再谈"翻译学"之梦 [More about the Dream of "Translatology"], *Shanghai Journal of Translators for Science and Technology* =上海科技翻译, (2).

Zhang, Meifang 张美芳 (2001) Zhongguo Yinghan Fanyi Jiaocai Yanjiu (1949-1998) 《中国英汉翻译教材研究 (1949-1998) 》 [*English-Chinese Translation Textbooks in China (1949-1998)*], Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press =上海外语教育出版社.

Zhang, Nanfeng 张南峰 (1995) Zouchu Sihutong Jianli Fanyixue 走出死胡同 建立翻译学 [Step Out of the Dead Lane and Establish Translation Studies], *Foreign Languages* = 外国语, (3), 1-3.

Zhang, Nanfeng 张南峰 (1998) An Applied Discipline Obsessed with "Loyalty" – On the Chinese Tradition of Translation Studies' [以"忠实"为目标的应用翻译学]，*Journal of Translation Studies* = 翻译学报，(2), 29-41.

Zhang, Nanfeng 张南峰 (2000) Texing yu Gongxing: Lun Zhongguo Fanyixue yu Fanyixue de Guanxi 特性与共性—论中国翻译学与翻译学的关系 [Characteristics and Generality – On the Relation between Chinese Translation

Studies and Translation Studies], *Chinese Translators' Journal* = 中国翻译, (2), 2-7.

Zhang, Nanfeng 张南峰 (2001) Cong Bianyuan Zouxiang Zhongxin (?) – Cong Duoyuan Xitonglun de Jiaodu Kan Zhongguo Fanyi Yanjiu de Guoqu yu Weilai' 从边缘走向中心(?)—从多元系统论的角度看中国翻译研究的过去与未来 [From Periphery to Centre (?): Past and Future of Chinese Translation Studies as Viewed from a Polysystemic Perspective], *Foreign Languages* =外国语, (4), 61-69.

Zhang, Nanfeng 张南峰 (2004) Zhong Xi Yi Xue Piping《中西译学批评》 [*Criticism on Chinese and Western Translation Studies*] (Beijing: Qinghua University Press = 北京：清华大学出版社.

Zhang, Peiji, et al. 张培基等 (Eds.) (1980) Yinghan Fanyi Jiaocheng 《英汉翻译教程》 [*A Course in Translation from English into Chinese*], Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press =上海外语教育出版社.

Websites cited

The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA), UK

<http://www.qaa.ac.uk/academicinfrastructure/programSpec/guidelines06.asp> [accessed on 27 April 2007]

Higher Education Evaluation Centre of the Ministry of Education, P.R. of China

<http://www.pgzx.edu.cn/> [accessed on 15 May 2007]

Chinese-Tools.cpm

http://www.chinese-tools.com/tools/converter-tradsimp.html

Chartered Institute of Linguistics, UK

<http://www.iol.org.uk/> [accessed lately on 25 October 2013]

Appendices

Appendix 1: Two samples of 24 evaluated translation tasks and categories extracted

One is C1-6, scoring the lowest mark in the translation task; the other is UK3-8, scoring the highest.

Subject code: C1-6

Translated text:
没有翻译标题

- 将臀部往椅子的前部移动，你可以用手支撑扶手架帮助自己。
- 可以使用椅子的两个扶手或椅面来推动自己站起来.
- 极力要保证你的脚和臀部在一条直线上，站着让身体处于直立.
- 一当底部移到椅子的前面，要有节奏的从椅子上站起来，即可以分三个步骤：准备—直挺—站住.
- 即使身体摇动时，必须掌控自己，往前走.
- 站好后，将双手放在框架上.
- 当这个运动完成后，要抬头向前走。

Script protocol:

Source text code	No	Items	Unit solutions	
ST1	0			
ST2	1	using your bottom	Phrase	(-)
	2	Shuffle forward	Phrase	(-)
	3	this can help	Syntactic	(-)
	4	Through	Word	(-)
	5	Hands	Word	(-)
	6	the chair arms	Phrase	(+)
	7	To help you to stand	Phrase	(-)
ST3	8	use ... or the base of the chair	Phrase	(-)
	9	to help	Word	(-)
	10	push yourself up	Phrase	(-)
	11	your feet	Word	(+)
ST4	12	are in line with	Phrase	(-)
	13	Hip	Word	(-)
	14	Stay	Word	(-)
	15	Steady	Word	(-)
	16	on your feet	Phrase	(-)
	17	once standing	Phrase	(+)
	18	Once your bottom is ... the chair	Syntactic	(-)
ST5	19	TIMING	Word	(-)
	20	to help you stand up	Phrase	(-)
	21	STEADY	Word	(-)
	22	do the rocking	Phrase	(+)
ST6	23	start the way you need ... i.e. forward.	Syntactic	(-)
	24	your frame	Word	(-)
ST7	25	with your HEAD	Phrase	(-)
Text		0		

Data analysis summary

Translation unit	Total
Word	10
Phrase	12
Syntactic	3
Text	Unaccepted/

Translation errors	Total
Word	9
Phrase	9
Syntactic	3
Text	Unaccepted/Accepted

Global evalution		
Rater A	Rater B	Average
1.1	1.0	.05

Translation theories and strategies used					
T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6
1	1	0	0	0	0

T1 = linguistical/grammatical; T2 = lexical; T3 = syntactic; T4 = textual
T5 = functional; T6 = social-cultural;
0 = No; 1= Yes

Subject code: UK3-8

Translated text:
指导手册—从坐姿转变为站姿

- 臀部向前挪动，可借用双手拖动椅子的扶手助自己一臂之力。
- 要站起来，使用椅子扶手或椅座来帮助自己将身子向上推起来。
- 务必要保证双脚和髋部一致，一旦站起来之后，可以有助于你站着逗留久点。
- 当臀部已挪到椅子的前端时，借用节奏记时来帮助你从座椅上站起来，即准备—坐稳—站起来。
- 如果身子摇晃不定，就做结束的动作，就是将身体向前倾斜。
- 一旦站起来之后，把你的双臂放在拐杖上。

Script protocol:

Source text code	No	Items	Unit solutions	
ST1	1	Manual	Word	(-)
	2	Handling Guidelines	Phrase	(+)
ST2	3	Shuffle forward ... the chair arms.	Syntactic	(+)
ST3	4	To help you to stand ... up.	Syntactic	(+)
ST4	5	Ensure that your feet are ... standing.	Syntactic	(+)
ST5	6	Once your bottom is ... STAND.	Syntactic	(+)
	7	STEADY	Word	(-)
ST6	8	When do the rocking ... forward.	Syntactic	(+)
ST7	9	Once you are ... on your frame.	Syntactic	(+)
ST8	10	Whilst completing ...HEAD.	Syntactic	(+)
Text		1		

Data analysis summary

Translation unit	Total
Word	2
Phrase	1
Syntactic	7
Text	Accepted

Translation errors	Total
Word	2
Phrase	0
Syntactic	0
Text	Accepted

Global evalution		
Rater A	Rater B	Average
3.6	3.8	3.7

Translation theories and strategies used					
T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6
1	1	1	1	1	1

T1 = linguistical/grammatical; T2 = lexical; T3 = syntactic; T4 = textual
T5 = functional; T6 = social-cultural;
0 = No; 1= Yes

Appendix 2: Sample of reflections on the findings from Chinese teachers

翻译教师对研究结果的看法
(Reflections on the findings from my colleagues)

姓名：曾剑平　　职称:教授
学位：　学士　　教学课程：翻译理论与实践
单位：江西财经大学　　访谈日期:2013 年 3 月 2 日

尊敬的曾院长：

您好！

我的研究是一个实证比较案例分析，其主要内容是对来自中英大学的三组《翻译研究学》的研究生在翻译任务的表现进行分析探索。

主要的数据分析结果分两类列在下面，有中英文对照。请您结合你的教学或自己的经历对各结果给予您的看法和评论。没有篇幅的限制，你的看法和评论请写在每个结果下面，中英文皆可。

谢谢您的大力支持。

邹美兰

数据分析结果

一、学生在翻译任务中的表现：
I. In terms of students' performances in the translation task
来自中国的两组学生与在英国学习的华人小组比较，他们更多地使用语言或语法翻译法，鲜有学生在必要时，能运用文本、功能翻译或社会文化理论处理他们的翻译问题。
The two Chinese cohorts used linguistic or grammatical translation approaches more than the UK cohort did. There were few students who could apply textual, functionalist and social cultural theories when necessary.
你的看法和评论：我不知道在英国学习的华人如何学习翻译。但我的学生翻译基本上是词比句次，不敢越雷池一步。文本、功能翻译或社会文化理论处理他们的翻译问题虽然在本科阶段会涉及一些，但学生翻译起来难，主要是把握不好，怕对原文不忠。不知道哪些该译，哪些该省。

1. 中国的学生实际上不太使用翻译策略。有些学生表明他们没有这方面的概念，他们习惯频繁地使用字典，逐字地做翻译任务。

Few students from the two Chinese cohorts practically employed translation strategies. Some of them indicated that they had little idea of translation strategy. They liked to use dictionaries very frequently and translated the task word for word.
你的看法和评论：他们习惯频繁地使用字典，逐字地做翻译任务，这是普遍现象。主要是因为，一是他们的词汇量有限，二是翻译没有经验，翻译练习做得少，对翻译技巧或翻译策略还没有到驾轻就熟的程度。

2. 中国的两组学生比英国小组使用更多的字词组翻译，但他们在这方面的翻译错误也最多。

They used more word and phrase unit translation approaches than the UK cohort, but they made more translation errors in these two aspects.
你的看法和评论：主要是选词不当，要么大词小用，要么小词大用，不注意词语的文体特征和语域。

3. 中国小组的大多数学生注重词句翻译，却忽视对文章标题、文本形式、语域和标点符号的翻译。

Most of the students from the two Chinese cohorts paid more attention to rendering words and sentences than the identification of title translation, text form, register and punctuation.
你的看法和评论：没注意到。

二、两组中国学生在访谈中对翻译课的看法：
II. In terms of students' perceptions in the post-task interviews, students from the two Chinese cohorts gave their opinions on their own translation programmes:

1. 他们很少有仿真翻译作坊。
2. They had less real world translation workshop.

你的看法和评论：是的。基本上是翻译我印的小练习册。不知口译是否如此？

3. 他们不太了解什么是'任务简介'

They did not know very well of 'translation brief'.
你的看法和评论：课堂上没讲过任务简介。

4. 除了语法和词语、文句和段落级别的翻译，他们的翻译理论学习很缺乏。他们希望能更多地了解语篇、或文本语言学、功能翻译、描述翻译和社会文化等方面的翻译理论。

They did not receive enough translation theories except for grammatical and word-，sentence- and paragraph-level approaches. They wanted to know more theories of discourse or text-linguistic, functionalist, descriptive and social-cultural aspects.
你的看法和评论：本科阶段主要讲微观的翻译技巧或策略。学生没有表现出希望能更多地了解语篇、或文本语言学、功能翻译、描述翻译和社会文化等方面的翻译理论。

5. 他们对学习翻译理论的态度消极。

They had a negative attitude to learning translation theory.
你的看法和评论：谈不上。主要是我没有专门讲翻译理论，而是讲翻译实践时附带理论。所以学生不会觉得枯燥。此外，我上课插科打诨，风趣幽默，打消了理论的苦燥。

6. 学生不满意他们的课程设计，认为他们课程没有为他们提供真正地翻译能力训练。

Some of them were not satisfied with their curriculum design, which they thought did not provide them with real translation competence.
你的看法和评论：不同意。我的课有针对性，实用性强。讲课内容都是我的心得。

7. 来自中国的两组学生表明他们的翻译理论课教学大纲，翻译材料和教材，翻译老师，教学法和评分等方面应该改善以迎合翻译教学的需要。

The students from the two Chinese cohorts suggest that course syllabus of translation theory, translation materials and textbooks, translation staff, teaching methods and assessments should be improved to meet the need of translation teaching.
你的看法和评论：翻译教材主要是给学生自学用。而上课内容的翻译练习应该自编。翻译教师应该从事过翻译实践，且有丰富的经验。教学方法应该多元化，理论讲解，翻译实践，语言对比，正误评价等，都应该有。

Appendix 3: Case study protocol

Protocol for Conducting Case Study of Translation Theory in Teaching

A. Introduction to the case study and purpose of protocol
   1. Case study aim, questions, and propositions
   2. Produce a logic model of theoretical framework for the case study
   3. Agenda for guiding the case study
   4. Make a pilot group to rehearse the methods of using the task and interviewing

B. Data collection procedures
   1. Names of sites to be visited, the persons to be contacted
   2. Data collection plan
      - The type of materials
      - Role of the helpers
      - People to be interviewed
      - Documents to be collected
   3. Expected preparation prior to site visits
      - Specific information to be reviewed
      - Issues to be covered (e.g. identity, bio)
      - Prior to going on site
      - Topic to be addressed

C. Outline of case study report
   1. The reality of the students' performance in translation
   2. The reality of translation theory in teaching in the cases
   3. The comparison of programmes
      - Programme design
      - Course in translation theory
      - Teaching and assessment methods
   4. The implication of translation theory and teaching
      - Theory and programme planning
      - Theory and translation competence
      - Theory and translation pedagogy

D. Case study questions
   1. Students' performance of translation
      - Describe translation practice, including the translation material in detail, the application of translation theory, translation problems and evaluation of the translation quality.
      - Find out the evidence of translation problems.
      - How do the students assess their application of translation theory?
      - What are the students' opinions of translation theory?
      - What is the implication of translation theory, competence and translation pedagogy?
   2. Evaluation
      - What is the design for evaluating translation performance, and who is doing the evaluation?
      - What part of the evaluation has been carried out?
      - What are the main former empirical results being used, and what results have been identified to date?

Appendix 4: Sample of f the translation task and student's submission

Translation focus group (Mainland China)

CHCASE2-1

Dear all,

Your contributions are invaluable to my research project. Therefore, I would appreciate it if you would like to finish this work and return it to Susan Meilan Zou. Please note that your comments are treated as confidential as well as anonymous.

Translation task:

I. Translate the following manual into Chinese. The translated version will be used by day-care nurses, disable people and some therapists who know Chinese. Translated text should be accurate, coherent and communicative. Change its form if appropriate according to TT.

A **Manual Handling Guidelines --- from Sit to Stand Transfer**

B
- Shuffle forward using your bottom, this can help through using your hands to pull along the chair arms.

C
- To help you to stand use the arms or the base of the chair to help you push yourself up.

D
- Ensure that your feet are in line with your hip, to help you stay steady on your feet once standing.

E
- Once your bottom is at the front of the chair use RHYTHM AND TIMING to help you stand up from the chair – READY – STEADY – STAND

F
- When do the rocking start the way you need to finish i.e. forward.

G
- Once you are standing, place your arms on your frame.

H
- Whilst completing this movement, always lead with your HEAD.

1

Translation focus group (Mainland China)
Time:
Place:
Researcher: Susan Meilan Zou

WARWICK

II. Translated text:

1, 用~~脚~~下肢~~慢慢~~摇动向前移. 这样能有助于你用于拉动椅子的扶手.

2 使用扶手来帮你站立起来或使用椅子的靠座来~~帮助你向~~~~将自身推~~推动你站起来.

3. 确保你的脚跟你的臀部保在一直线上, 这样能有助于你在站立后能稳稳地站住脚跟.

4. 如果你的下肢处于椅子的前端, 使用"节奏/调速"按键来帮助你从椅子上站立起来, 步骤如下: 准备 — 缓缓起立 — 站直.

5. 如果发生震动, 你要停止当前进行的动作. 比如说停止前行之类.

6 一旦站立后. 请将双臂置于身体两侧.

7 动作完成之后. 请保持头部伸直.

2

Translation focus group (Mainland China)
Time:
Place:
Researcher: Susan Meilan Zou

WARWICK

III. Please answer the questions after you finish the translation

1. What is the genre/text type of the text?

   Narrative essay.

2. How do you approach to its translation?

   It's kinda manual, talking about how to use a chair.
   First I should read it whole, get the main picture and then start the translating.

3. What kind of procedures do you use in rendering?

   ~~To understand how the chair functions, and imagine what~~
   To see what kind of people may need this chair and imagina how it probably works.

4. Can you identify the translation problems in the translation? If you can, name the translation problems and the examples in the appropriate grid. (e.g., 'bottom' is a lexical translation problem.)

Name of the translation problem	Example
No visual image of this chair hard to understand how	
it exactly works	
Some speical words on this	"STEADY", rocking
occasion	
unfamilar use of phrases	lead with your head

5. List the necessary translation strategies you have used if possible.

3

Appendix 5: Sample of survey email to British teachers and response

1. City University

Zou, Meilan
Actions
To:
M
Karen.Seago.1@city.ac.uk
Sent Items
07 December 2012 08:48

Dear Dr Seago,
My name is Meilan Zou from China, a research student in translation teaching at the University of Warwick. I was one of your students at Londonmet in the academic year 2004-2005.
I am writing to ask for your kind favour. I want to obtain some opinions of teaching translation theory and practice for your postgraduate students: do you think that it is necessary? What kinds of theories do you teach to your students, for example, linguistic, cultural, literary, or philosophical aspects, etc.? You say what you want to say.
In addition, would you kindly forward an example of translation tasks relating to theory or practice modules?
I would appreciate that I have your kind help. Your contributions are invaluable to my research project. Your comments are treated as confidential as well as anonymous.
Thanks for your time and help.
I look forward to hearing from you.
Kind regards
Meilan Zou

Seago, Karen [Karen.Seago.1@city.ac.uk]

Actions
To:
M
Zou, Meilan
07 December 2012 08:57
You replied on 07/12/2012 13:47.
Dear Meilan,
I'm happy to answer your questions but this is a very pressured time for me. Could you get in touch with me again in January when I will have a bit more time?
It would also be easier if we do this as an interview rather than me writing the answers. Perhaps we can set up a telephone or skype appointment?
Best wishes
Karen
Dr Karen Seago
Programme Director
Centre for Creative Writing, Translation and Publishing
Department of Creative Practice and Enterprise
School of Arts and Social Sciences
City University
Northampton Square
London EC1V 0HB
+44(0)20 7040 8253
Office hours: Tuesday, 5pm - 6pm
Room: College Building ALG07
MA Translating Popular Culture http://www.city.ac.uk/courses/postgraduate/translating-popular-culture
The Journal of Specialised Translation http://www.jostrans.org

Appendix 6: The ethical approval from the Centre for Applied Linguistics, Warwick

Participant identification number where applicable

CONSENT FORM

Project Title: Applying Translation Theories and Pedagogy: a multiple case study exploring postgraduate translation programmes in China and the UK

Name of Researcher: Meilan Zou (邹美兰)
(to be completed by participant)

I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet dated on 26th February 2013 by email. For the above project which I may keep for my records and have had the opportunity to ask any questions I may have.

I agree to take part in the above study and am willing to:

List any procedures that are to occur
Eg – be interviewed, to have my interview videotaped

I understand that my information will be held and processed for the following purposes:

List any purposes for which data will be used including future use and any organisations/persons (generic if necessary) who may need access to the information.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.

_Zeng_____	**02/03/2013_**	**Zeng Jianping _____**
Name of Participant	**Date**	**Signature**
_____	**_____**	**_____**
Name of person taking consent if different from Researcher	**Date**	**Signature**
Meilan Zou_____	**_____**	**_____**
Researcher	**Date**	**Signature**

Appendix 7: Sample of extracting categories from C1-3 (Andrew's translated task)

ST1 (the title): Manual Handling Guidelines --- from Sit to Stand Transfer
Translated text: 手册/指南 ---- 如何/从/座/到/站/
Back translation: /Handbook/ guide/ ---- /how /from /seat /to arrive /station/
Acceptable units: manual (word +), guideline (word +);
Unacceptable units: from Sit to Stand (phrase -)

In translating the title, Andrew did not translate the two key words 'Handling' and 'Transfer'. There was no hint to show why he omitted them. Judging from the translated text, it seems that he wanted to keep the title translated smoothly by not translating them. Moreover, Andrew could not identify the parts of speech of the words 'Sit' and 'Stand'. He translated 'Sit' into 'seat'. Probably he wrote a wrong Chinese, but he also translated 'Stand' into Chinese '*dao zhan*' (到站) which would cause different understanding. The translated title sounds acceptable until it is compared with the source text title. However, because of the omission the meaning of the translated title is incomplete and distorted compared to the original title. The translated title ends up meaning 'A handbook to guide how to arrive station from the seat'.

The second sentence (ST2) below also illustrates Andrew's first sentence. Judging from the key points in this source sentence, he was able to translate the phrase 'shuffle forward' successfully. However, he was rather careless in dealing with this sentence in transfer. For example, the word 'hands' is plural in the English sentence; Andrew translated 'using your hands' into 'using a hand' in Chinese, whereas he should have translated it as theplural. It means something entirely different when it is translated into the singular in Chinese, and this unit of translation is not adequate. He also neglected translating the clause 'this can help', which is one of the main components of the source sentence. This missing clause caused the translated sentence to be both incomplete and inaccurate.

ST2: Shuffle forward using your bottom, this can help through using your hands to pull along the chair arms.
Translated text: 用/臀部/向前/慢慢地/移动/.
用/手/沿着/扶手椅/推动/.
Back translation: Use/buttock/forward/slowly/move/.
Use/hand/along/armchair/impel/.
Acceptable units: shuffle forward (Phrase +), bottom (Word +), pull (Word +).
Unacceptable units: through using your hands (Phrase -), this can help (Syntax -)

In ST3, Andrew again did not translate the source sentence properly. In fact, three key phrases were incorrectly translated. First, in his translated text he omitted the infinitive phrase 'To help you to stand', which expresses the purpose of the original sentence. Second, the verb 'use' he translated was not accurate Though one of the Chinese equivalent meanings of the word 'use' means 'borrow and make use of', the equivalent to 'borrow' in the translated text is not accurate. Third, the phrase 'pushes yourself up' in the source sentence does not mean 'stand up', and therefore renders the translated sentence unacceptable.

ST3: To help you to stand use the arms or the base of the chair to help you push yourself up.
Translated text: 借/椅子扶手/或者/椅座/帮助/站起来/.
Back translation: Borrow/ chair arm/ or/ chair seat/ help/ stand up/.
Acceptable units: the base of the chair (Phrase +)
Unacceptable units: push ... up (Phrase -)

ST4 has four groups of meaning. If it is split up, it should read like 'Ensure //that your feet are in line with your hip//, to help you stay steady on your feet// once standing//.' In example 4 below Andrew mistranslated the main verb 'ensure'. This word has some synonymous

meanings such as ‘guarantee’, ‘make secure’, ‘assure’, ‘make sure’ and ‘warrant’; however these meanings are totally different when they are translated individually into Chinese. Andrew chose to translate ‘ensure’ into ‘guarantee’ or ‘warrant’ inits Chinese meaning. In fact, the word ‘ensure’ in its original sentence means ‘make sure’. The word ‘guarantee’ means ‘to assure of something by pledge or promise’. There are also two quite vague units of translation in ‘hip’ and ‘stay steady’, which can be recognised in back translation. The participial phrase ‘once standing’ which can be treated as a clause or sentence when translated disappeared in Andrew’s translation. Furthermore, there is an erroneous Chinese phrase for ‘are in line with’, which may be caused by a mistake in writing. In addition, Andrew did not translate the mood of this original sentence properly: he did not express it as an imperative in Chinese.

ST4: Ensure that your feet are in line with your hip, to help you stay steady on your feet once standing.
Translated text: 保证/双脚的/姿势/与/下肢/一直/. 站起来/之后/靠/双脚/站稳/.
Back translation: Guarantee/both feet/posture/with/lower limb/alongside/.
Stand up/after/by/both feet/stand/steady/.
Acceptable units: feet (Word +), in line with (Phrase +)
Unacceptable units: hip (Word -), stay steady (Phrase -), once standing (Syntax -),
on your feet (Phrase -)

ST5 (Example 5) appeared rather complex for Andrew, but it is a rigorous sentence. Andrew could not recognise where ‘RHYTHM’ was and did not know what ‘TIMING’ means. He did not know that ‘RHYTHM’ could be found in the vowels and the last consonants of the three words of ‘READY – STEADY – STAND. He also translated ‘TIMING’ into ‘time register’. Syntactically, this translated sentence was unreadable in translation.

ST5: Once your bottom is at the front of the chair use RHYTHM AND TIMING to help you stand up from the chair – READY – STEADY – STAND

Translated text: 当/臀部/移到/椅前/时/，使用/韵律/与/时间记数/来帮助/从/椅子上/站立/：/平衡/ —/站稳/ —/站立/.
Back translation: When/buttock/move to/chair front/, use/rhythm/and/time register/ helping/from/chair/stand up/: /balance/– /stand still/ – /standing/.
Acceptable units: at the front of the chair (Phrase +), your bottom (Word +)
Unacceptable units: RHYTHM AND TIMING (Word -), Once ... STAND (Syntax -)

In ST6, the source sentence was misunderstood, since the word ‘rocking’ is not equivalent to ‘shaking’. Andrew also added some unnecessary words in the target sentence like ‘forward’ and ‘backward’. Moreover, he translated the conjunction ‘when’ to give it the sense of ‘at the time that’, or as ‘while’. This option was illogical and it would have been better for him to regard the conjunction ‘when’ as ‘if’, according to the meaning of the source sentence.

ST6: When do the rocking start the way you need to finish i.e. forward.
Translated text: /当/前后/摇动/时/，/只/需/向前/倾/.
Back translation: /When/ forward backward/shaking/, /only/need/ forward/leaning/.
Acceptable units: forward (Word +)
Unacceptable units: do the rocking (Phrase -), start ... finish i.e. forward (Syntax -)

Sentence 7 (ST7) was actually acceptable except for the word ‘frame’. Andrew did not specifically translate the word ‘frame’, but used a phrase which had a vague meaning - ‘on something’ - to replace it in the translated sentence.

ST7: Once you are standing, place your arms on your frame.
Translated text: /一旦/站起/，/把/双臂/放在/上面/.
Back translation: /Once/stand up/, / place/both arm/ above surface/.
Acceptable units: Once you are ... on your frame. (Syntax -)
Unacceptable units: frame (Word -)

In sentence 8 (ST8), since Andrew did not appear to be sure of the meaning of the word ‘whilst’, he seemed to adapt this sentence when he put it in transfer. This adaption did not brighten this translation in a right way and this translated sentence was unacceptable.

ST8: Whilst completing this movement, always lead with your HEAD.
Translated text: /尽管/在/完成/这个/运动/的同时，/一直/保持/头部/向前/。
Back translation: Though/when/finishing/this/action/at the same time/, /continuously/keep/ head forward/.
Acceptable units:
Unacceptable units: Whilst (Word -), always (word -), lead your HEAD (Phrase -)

Based on the assessment of the translation of the entire text of C1-3, it turned out to be a poor translation. Several sentences had misunderstandings and distortions. There was also a problem of the use of punctuation. Andrew used the full stop in English instead of that of Chinese. Some key words were not accurate and even distorted. In this way the translated text was both inelegant and not communicative.

Summarizing the above, Example 1 in Section 11 displays a whole picture of assessing Andrew’s performance and categories extracted from his task.

Appendix 8: Full texts of the three case programmes

1. Case one (C1): Introduction

Background
The School of Interpreting and Translation Studies (SITS) was established in May 2005. To cater to the social, economic, cultural, and educational development of Guangdong Province in South China, all the university's resources for interpreting and translation teaching and research, including their highly qualified translation faculty, have been integrated for training high-caliber professionals in the School of Interpreting and Translation Studies in accordance with the principles of modern higher education and harmonious socio-economic development. The school has a highly qualified teaching team with rich experience in both the theory and practice of interpreting and translation, with the ultimate goal of becoming a first-rate training and educational center for professionals highly skilled in interpreting and translation for job assignments both at home and abroad. The School's Training Center for Interpreters and Translators is one of the designated training institutes approved by both the National Translation Test and Appraisal Center of the China International Publishing Group and the Chinese Translators Association. It is responsible for administering Chinese Aptitude Test for Translators and Interpreters in Guangdong Province.

The School endeavors to offer quality education to individuals who aspire to devote themselves to interpreting and translation, who determine to develop a global vision, a sense of innovation, and a great competence in intercultural communication. To achieve these goals, the School will help students lay a solid foundation in both English and Chinese and to equip them with a good command of skills required of competent interpreters and translators to conduct high-level interpreting and translation work in such areas as international relations, diplomacy, foreign economics and trade, culture and technology. Our graduates have already proved themselves qualified for simultaneous interpreting for international conferences, consecutive interpreting, translation and research for institutions of higher learning and research institutes.

Currently, the School has 5 departments:
- The Department of Interpreting;
- The Department of Translation Studies;
- The Research Center for Interpreting and Translation Studies;
- The Training Center for Interpreters and Translators;
- The National Resources Center for Translation Studies

The School provides a complete line of degrees, including:
- Bachelor's degree in Interpreting;
- Bachelor's degree in Translation;
- Dual Degree (4+1);
- Master's degree in Interpreting;
- Master's degree in Translation;
- PhD degrees in Interpreting/Translation.

The majority of its student body are graduate students. The School aims to help students lay a solid foundation in both English and Chinese and to equip them with a good command of skills required of competent interpreters and translators to conduct high-level interpreting and translation work in such areas as international relations, diplomacy, foreign economics and trade, culture and technology.

MA programs and PhD programs offered by the School of Interpreting and Translation Studies are as follows:
• **MA Program in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics**
This program includes six research orientations, which will be elaborated as follows:
MA in conference Interpreting Program
MA in Interpreting and Translation Studies

MA in Translation Studies
MA in Commercial Translation
MA in Legal Translation
MA in Media Translation

• MIT and MCI
The Master in Interpreting and Translation (MIT) and Master in Conference Interpreting (MCI) are still under preparation.
1. Prerequisite of the students
2. Facilities (IT centre, courseware, interpreting training facility)
3. Teaching staff
The School has a teaching staff with rich experience in teaching and great academic achievements. Among the 15 members of the faculty, 4 have doctoral degrees and three are currently furthering their studies as doctoral candidates, while the rest are holders of master's degrees. Two-thirds of the teaching staff are professors or associate professors.

II. Basic information of example programme(s)
Take MA in Interpreting and Translation Studies for example.
1. Title: MA in Interpreting and Translation Studies
2. programme code: 050211
3. Duration: 2 years
4. Method of attendance: (Full time):
5. Name of programme manager and the contact email:
6. Total credit: This program consists of courses which total 28 credits: 7 credits for core courses required of all students, 6 for compulsory degree courses, 12 for elective degree courses, 2 for teaching practice and research training, 1 for attendance at lectures. Students in this program are required to take the National Translation Certificate Examination (Level II) offered by the Ministry of Personnel.

Courses for MA Students Majoring in Interpreting and Translation Studies
Introduction to Translation Studies credit: 2

Course Type	Course Code	Course Title	Cre-dits	Total Class Hours	Sem-esters	Assess-ment	Course Status
Compul-sory	000001	Political Science	3	54	1	Exam	Compulsory
	000002	2nd Foreign Language	4	72	1	Exam	Compulsory
Compul-sory Degree Courses	010701	Introduction to Translation Studies	2	36	2	Exam	Compulsory
	010601	Consecutive Interpreting	2	36	1	Paper	Compulsory
	010801	Linguistic Theory	2	36	1	Exam	Compulsory
Elective Degree Courses	010502	Topic-based Interpreting	2	36	2	Exam	Elective
	010602	Introduction to Interpreting Studies	2	36	2	Paper	Elective
	010603	Advanced E-C Interpreting	1	18	1	Paper	Required Elective
	010604	Advanced C-E Interpreting	1	18	1	Exam	Required Elective
	010702	Literary Translation Studies	2	36	2	Paper	Elective
	010703	Philosophy of Translation	2	36	2	Paper	Elective
	010803	Language and	2	36	1	Paper	Elective

		Translation					
	010704	Methodology of Translation Studies	2	36	1	Paper	Required Elective
	010706	Translation Criticism and Appreciation	2	36	3	Paper	Elective
	010707	Specialised Translation	2	36	2	Paper	Elective
	010711	Translation Studies in China and the West: A Historical Perspective	2	36	3	Paper	Elective
	010712	Cognitive Studies of Translation and Interpreting	2	36	2	Paper	Elective
	010605	Institutional Translation	2	36	2	Paper	Elective
	010606	Intercultural Commu-nication and Translation	2	36	3	Paper	Elective
	010807	Discourse Analysis	2	36	2	Paper	Elective
	010808	Research Design and Statistics	2	36	1	Paper	Required Elective
	010713	Academic Writing	2	36	1	Paper	Elective
	010714	Recommended Readings	2	36	3	Paper	Required Elective
Teaching Practice and Research Training	010715		2		3		Compulsory
Lectures	010716		1	18	3		Compulsory

2. Case two (C2): Introduction

Background

The College of Foreign Languages and Cultures (CFLC) was founded in September, 1999, and is currently composed of the Department of English Language and Literature, the Department of Japanese Language and Literature, the Department of French Language and Literature, the Department of European Languages and Literatures and the College English Department. The College offers 5 undergraduate programs (English, Japanese, French, Russian and German), 1 first-level MA program (including English, Japanese, French, Russian, Foreign Linguistics & Applied Linguistics), 1 PhD program (English). Currently, CFLC has the Research Institute of Foreign Languages and Literatures, the Research Center of Japanese Language Education, the Research Institute of Bilingual Lexicography and Language & Culture, the Research Institute of European Studies, and 4 Foreign Language Test Centers and training centers.

At present, CFLC has a teaching and administrative staff of approximately 150, including 16 professors, 48 associate professors and 40 international scholars. CFLC has 1440 students, among whom 29 PhD students, 403 MA students and 1008 undergraduates. Besides, CFLC teaches English to non-English-majors to 13500 students in other colleges of the University.

CFLC has been expanding academic cooperation and exchange with other colleges and universities both at home and abroad. It has had corporation with universities in the UK, France, Japan and Russia, practicing the models of “3 plus 1” for undergraduate students (i.e. 3 years in

CFLC and 1 year abroad) and “2 plus 1” for postgraduate students (i.e. 2 years in CFLC and 1 year abroad).

In recent years, students in CFLC have done exceptionally well in all the nationwide foreign language proficiency tests. Graduates have always been welcomed by their employers in all parts of China, and played an important role in government institutions, schools, banks, state-own enterprises, joint ventures and foreign corporations.

The College English Department

Established in July 1985, the College English Department (CED) now has 80 teaching staff members, among whom are 4 professors and 22 associate professors. Within the Department are the following sections: First Teaching & Research Section, Second Teaching & Research Section, Listening Teaching & Research Section, Graduate Teaching & Research Section, Applied Linguistics Section, and the International Test Centre. CED is responsible for the teaching of general foreign languages to non-English majors in the University, including more than 10,000 undergraduate and over 3,000 graduate students. Every year, the International Test Centre administers TOEFL, BEC, PETS, and Xiamen University Certificate of Advanced English for thousands of students.

The teachers of CED have been carrying out the national syllabus for College English and bring out reforms in courses and teaching methodology, thus achieving marvellous results in teaching. The passing rates of their students and all other indices of the nation-wide Band 4 and Band 6 tests each year are well above the average level of the key universities in China. They won a national prize for their good teaching quality and the first prize for excellent teaching of Fujian Province.

MA Programmes in Foreign Linguistics & Applied Linguistics

Currently, the program enrols MA students in the fields of English Applied Linguistics, English & American Literature and narratology. It aims to bring out specialists with solid theoretical foundation and strong analytical ability. The program has 4 professors and 20 associate professors. Courses include sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, testing, pragmatics, semantics, contrastive studies in English and Chinese, narratology, English & American literature, American Postmodernist novels, English and American poetry, literary theory, and etc.

Contact Information: deleted

Courses in Master Student Programme

No	Serial No	Title of course	Type of courses	Credit	Semester	Total class hours
1	62001	Advanced Reading & Writing in English	R.C.	2	1	40
2	62002	Methodology of Research in English	R.C.	2	2	40
3	62003	Theories of Modern Literary Criticism	R.C.	2	2	40
4	62004	Western Humanities Canons	R.C.	2	1	40
5	62005	American Poetry	R.C.	2	2	40
6	62006	Consecutive Interpreting	R.C.	3	1	80
7	62007	Simultaneous Interpreting	R.C.	4	3,4	120
8	62008	Translation Theory	R.C.	2	3	40
9	62009	Theory&Application of Translation	R.C.	2	4	40
10	62010	Bilingual Lexicography: An Introduction	R.C.	2	3	40
11	62011	Cultural Semantics	R.C.	2	2	40
12	62012	Applied Linguistics	R.C.	2	1	40
13	62013	An Introduction to Linguistics	R.C.	2	1	40

14	62014	Psycholinguistics	R.C.	2	1	40
15	62015	Systemic Functional Grammar	R.C.	2	3	40
16	63001	British Poetry	O.C.	2	1	40
17	63002	Theories of Traditional Literary Criticism	O.C.	2	1	40
18	63003	20-Century Western Literary Theories	O.C.	3	3	60
19	63004	19-Century American Fiction	O.C.	3	3	60
20	63005	Jewish American Fiction	O.C.	2	1	40
21	63006	Afro-American Fiction	O.C.	2	2	40
22	63007	Nineteenth-Century American Literature	O.C.	2	1	40
23	63008	Academic Thesis Writing	O.C.	2	2	40
24	63009	Public Speaking in English	O.C.	2	1	40
25	63010	Discourse and Translation	O.C.	2	1	40
26	63011	Sight Translation	O.C.	2	2	40
27	63012	Culture and Translation	O.C.	2	1	40
28	63013	Interpretation Research	O.C.	2	1	40
29	63014	History of Western Civilization	O.C.	2	3	40
30	63015	Compilation of Dictionary of English Idioms	O.C.	2	1	40
31	63016	A Study of British and American Dictionaries	O.C.	2	3	40
32	63017	Lexicography: An Introduction	O.C.	2	1	40
33	63018	Lexicography: Selected Readings	O.C.	2	3	40
34	63019	Pragmatics and Discourse Analysis	O.C.	2	4	40
35	63020	They Study of English as A Second Language	O.C.	2	2	40
36	63021	Stylistics	O.C.	2	2	40

R.C. = Required course; O.C. = other course;

3. Case three (UK3): Introduction

Welcome

The Centre for Translation Studies (CTS@XXX) hosts the following renowned Masters programmes: MA Applied Translation Studies (**MAATS**), MA Conference Interpreting and Translation Studies (**MACITS**), MA Translation Studies and Interpreting (**MATSI, not on offer in 2012-13**), MA Audiovisual Translation Studies (**MAAVTS**) and MA Interpreting British Sign Language - English (**MAIBSL, we are no longer accepting applications for this programme**). The Centre also offers Postgraduate Diplomas in Conference Interpreting (**PG Dip CI**) and Applied Translation Studies (**PG Dip ATS**).

The working languages are English plus Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Greek, Italian, Japanese, Polish, Portuguese, Russian and Spanish.

These vocational programmes have the common goal of enabling students to develop into fully operational interpreters, translators and subtitlers, while acquiring a firm grounding in translation theory, as expected at masters level. The availability of 12 languages makes it possible to create realistic team-working scenarios for both translators and interpreters, reflecting the true demands of professional practice.

The teaching team demonstrates an excellent balance between contracted practitioners and academic members of staff. All CTS@XXX programmes involve practising translators or subtitlers or interpreters working for the EU, UN or other organisations.

The **facilities** at CTS@XXX reflect the state of the art. Students have access to two conference suites equipped with single and double interpreting booths, as well as a translation tools laboratory with 42 workstations running an extensive range of translation and subtitling software.
CTS@XXX **alumni** are highly sought-after by employers for their vocational skills and many progress to careers with leading private companies, governmental bodies or international political organisations, such as the UN.
The Centre's **research** was judged in a national peer review (RAE2008) to be 'world leading' or 'internationally excellent' in 80% of its publications. It hosts a vibrant community of **research students**. CTS@XXX is also engaged in **Knowledge Transfer** activities with a number of commercial and public partners, notably in the fields of translation technology, subtitling and interpreter training.

Taught Postgraduate Courses

The taught postgraduate courses offered by the Centre for Translation Studies (CTS@XXX) are distinctly vocational. Most students are aiming at employment as a professional linguist, and CTS@XXX graduates have a very good record of success in achieving this ambition. However, the courses also provide a sound basis for undertaking a research degree, and a number of MA graduates have gone on to study for a PhD, sometimes after a period of professional activity.
CTS@XXX offers four programme areas, each leading to the specialisation of your choice.

- MA Applied Translation Studies (**MAATS**) and Postgraduate Diploma Applied Translation Studies (**PG Dip ATS**): you specialise in Computer Assisted Translation, using and evaluating the latest commercial software. You will also acquire project management skills in team translation of e.g. websites into multiple languages.
- MA Conference Interpreting and Translation Studies (**MACITS**) and Postgraduate Diploma Conference Interpreting (**PG Dip CI**): you specialise in conference interpreting. In regular mock conferences with external delegates you provide simultaneous interpretation as a member of a student team.
- MA Translation Studies and Interpreting (**MATSI, not on offer in 2012-13**): you specialise in bilateral interpreting as practised in business and diplomatic settings (without simultaneous interpreting). You work in a variety of settings and with a wide range of topics.
- MA Audiovisual Translation Studies (**MAAVTS**); you specialise in audio-visual translation, not only for the cinema or TV screen but also for media such as web sites. You gain experience of subtitling both foreign languages and for the Deaf and hard-of-hearing.

If you choose to study MAATS, MACITS or MAAVTS, you will take part in the following three foundational modules.

- **Specialised Translation** covers the journalistic, administrative, technical and literary genres and requires students to produce translations weekly. Students review the work of their peers, just as revision is practised in industry.
- **Methods and Approaches in Translation Studies** provides the theoretical foundations for reflection on practice and for research.
- The **Summer Project** consists of producing either a 10,000 word dissertation or a translation portfolio comprising 10,000 words or subtitles for a 45-minute film clip, together with a commentary justifying strategic translation choices.

Since team working is the norm in the language professions, all CTS@XXX programmes nurture collaboration by creating situations where multilingual teams work together on authentic materials.

Compulsory modules:
Candidates will be required to study the following compulsory modules:

MODL5000M	Computer-assisted Translation	45 credits	Semesters 1 & 2	PFP
MODL5001M	Methods and Approaches in Translation Studies	30 credits	Semester 1	PFP

Optional modules:
Candidates will be required to study at least 30 credits (to one direction) from the following optional modules. Native speakers of Arabic, Chinese, Greek or Japanese may choose to translate only out of English into their mother tongue.

MODL5113M	Specialised French-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5114M	Specialised German-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5115M	Specialised Italian-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5117M	Specialised Portuguese-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5118M	Specialised Russian-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5119M	Specialised Spanish-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5120M	Specialised English-Arabic Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5123M	Specialised French-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5124M	Specialised German-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5125M	Specialised Italian-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5127M	Specialised Portuguese-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5128M	Specialised Russian-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5129M	Specialised Spanish-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5130M	Specialised English-Arabic Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5206M	Specialised Greek-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5211M	Specialised Arabic-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5212M	Specialised English-Chinese Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5216M	Specialised English-Greek Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5221M	Specialised Arabic-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5222M	Specialised English-Chinese Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5226M	Specialised Greek-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5306M	Specialised English-Japanese Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5312M	Specialised Chinese-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5316M	Specialised Japanese-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1	PFP
MODL5322M	Specialised Chinese-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5326M	Specialised Japanese-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5336M	Specialised English-Japanese Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5416M	Specialised English-Greek Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2	PFP

Candidates must choose one of the following 'summer project' modules:

MODL5301M	Dissertation: Translation Studies	30 credits	Semester 2	PFP
MODL5302M	Extended Translations	30 credits	Semester 2	PFP

Candidates may study up to 45 credits from the following optional modules. Candidates may not select a module from this module group that they have selected in another group.

MODL5003M	Principles and Applications of Machine Translation	15 credits	Semester 2
MODL5004M	Technical Communication for Translators: Software Documentation	15 credits	Semester 1
MODL5006M	Introduction to Screen Translation	15 credits	Semester 2
MODL5007M	Corpus Linguistics for Translators	15 credits	Semester 1
MODL5009M	English for Translators	15 credits	Semester 1
MODL5120M	Specialised English-Arabic Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1
MODL5130M	Specialised English-Arabic Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2
MODL5206M	Specialised Greek-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1

MODL5211M	Specialised Arabic-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1
MODL5212M	Specialised English-Chinese Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1
MODL5216M	Specialised English-Greek Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1
MODL5221M	Specialised Arabic-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2
MODL5222M	Specialised English-Chinese Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2
MODL5226M	Specialised Greek-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2
MODL5306M	Specialised English-Japanese Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1
MODL5312M	Specialised Chinese-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1
MODL5316M	Specialised Japanese-English Translation A	15 credits	Semester 1
MODL5322M	Specialised Chinese-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2
MODL5326M	Specialised Japanese-English Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2
MODL5336M	Specialised English-Japanese Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2
MODL5416M	Specialised English-Greek Translation B	15 credits	Semester 2

Elective modules:
Alternatively, candidates may study up to 45 credits of electives offered within the School of Modern Languages and Cultures, the Language Centre, or (with the Programme Director's agreement) elsewhere in the University.
Last updated: 01/07/2013

Appendix 9: Syllabi of the three courses of translation theory

Introduction to Translation Studies in C1
翻译研究导论

1、课程名称及课程性质
笔译理论与技巧
专业必修课
2、学分数及学时数
2 个学分
32 学时，具体构成：21 课内＋3 辅导＋8 课外自学
3、课程目标及教学方式
该课程所要达到的教学目标是让学生对翻译理论有比较全面的了解，并能以理论指导实践，灵活地运用各种翻译技巧，达到较高的笔译能力，能独立、出色地完成英汉互译的翻译任务，处理各种翻译现象。

具体来说，学生通过教师课堂介绍、课上讨论和课后自学相结合的方式，在笔译理论方面要对中外各理论流派的主要观点有所了解，并在某一个方面有比较深刻的研究。而在笔译实践方面，学生要能准确、通顺地翻译中英文材料，在大量的翻译实践中求得量到质的变化，因为实践多了才能遇到并处理各种翻译现象，从而提高整体的翻译水平。表现在课程设置上，既要有足够的翻译实践课，也要有一定的翻译理论课，使学生在实践和理论上平行发展，都有所建树。

该课程教学方式为 21 学时课堂教学＋3 学时 TA 辅导＋8 学时课外自学。课堂教学以 3 个学时为一个教学单元，共计 7 个单元。每一教学单元中，教师先对相关翻译理论和技巧进行综述，然后通过译文赏析、短文试译等课堂实践和感受激发学生进行相关问题的讨论。3 学时辅导课由学生在助教的指导下完成教师布置的课外练习。8 学时课外自学由学生自行完成教师布置的自学任务。
4、教学单元主题（3 课时/单元）
第一单元：翻译理论与技巧关系论
第二单元：翻译与文化
第三单元：译文操控的理论指引
第四单元：笔译的语言学方法
第五单元：笔译与译者的认知能力
第六单元：笔译的语言单位
第七单元：英汉与汉英笔译比较

5、课外自学任务
要求学生利用课外时间查阅相关资料，自学以下专题：
1. 翻译的标准
2. 翻译与审美
3. 不同文体的翻译

6、课外练习（在助教辅导下完成）
1．雨——《红楼梦》节选 曹雪芹
2．海洋可持续发展战略
3. Are Books an Endangered Species? Bob Greene
7、考核方式
闭卷笔试：翻译理论相关问题论述＋笔译题

8、教材及参考书目
该课程教材为教师自编教材

推荐阅读书目：

Syllabus of Translation Theory in C2
翻译概论教学大纲

1、课程性质
专业必修课

2、学分数及学时数
32 学分；21 课时+3 节辅导

3、课程目标及教学方式
本课程旨在让学生在纵向上了解翻译的发展历史，在横向上把握翻译过程及其各个环节的相互关系。该课程将具体地从翻译所涉及到的语言（包括译入语和译出语）、文本（译文和原文）以及主体（作者和译者）这三大元素入手，使学生深入地认识翻译中各元素的特点、翻译过程的本质以及翻译理论与实践的关系，为学生的翻译实践提供相应的学科背景。

4、教学单元主题 （3 课时/单元）
第一单元 总论：翻译研究的三个回归：语言、文本和主体
第二单元 翻译的语言观
1 源语和目的语的语言对比
2 源语和目的语的语言表述
3 英语的语言哲学
4 汉语的语言哲学及其语言观念对翻译的启发
第三单元 翻译的文本观
1 文学文本
2 诗歌文本
3 哲学社科文本
4 历史文本
5 科技文本
6 实用文本
第四单元 翻译的主体观
1 分析性主体
2 意向性主体
3 认知性主体
4 译者的文化身份
A 阐释者
B 阅读者
C 叛逆者/创造者
D 诗人/作者
第五单元 翻译的学科论
1 翻译与语言学
2 翻译与美学/诗学/文论/比较文学
3 翻译与哲学：本体论、认识论和语言论
4 翻译与自然科学
5 总论及考试题目
5、课外自学任务
A 中西翻译观念的比较
B 中西文化对翻译观念的影响
C 如何确立翻译者的主体性身份

6、课外练习 （无）
7、考核方式
课程论文
8、教材及参考书目
教材：《翻译论》，许钧著，湖北教育出版社 2006 年版。
参考书目：
Davis, Kathleen. (2005). Deconstruction and Language. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
Gentzler, Edwin. (2004). Contemporary Translation Theories. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
Katan, David. (2005). Translating Cultures: An Introduction for Translators, Interpreters and Mediators. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
Lefevere, Andre. (2004). Translation/History/Culture: A Source-book. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
Newmark, Peter. (2005). Approaches to Translation. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
Steiner, George. (2004). After Babel: Aspects of Language and Translation. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
Venuti, Lawrence. (2004).The Translator’s Invisibility: A History of Translation. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

MODL5001M Methods and Approaches in Translation Studies in UK3
30 credits
Module manager:
Email:
Taught: Semester 1
Year running
This module is not approved as an Elective
Objectives
On completion of this module, students should be able to:- Make use of the theoretical concepts studied in order to improve their practical translation performance. Use their familiarity with the features of a number of English text-types to develop effective translation strategies. Approach translation tasks with an awareness of how to solve common translation problems. Undertake a research exercise such as an MA dissertation or translation project.
Syllabus
The main aim of this module is to serve as an introduction to the theoretical issues relevant to translation. Areas to be covered will include: types of translation; limitations of interlingual equivalence; general translation problems; translation evaluation. Specific approaches to the translation of general, literary and subject-specific texts will also be considered. In this connection a number of different English-Language text-types will be studied with a view to facilitating the production of fluent translations in various genres; the registers examined will be those which will form the basis of the practical translation work in the Specialised Translation Modules. Practice will also be given in conducting similar analysis on further text-types which might be encountered in a professional context. Finally, one component of the module is designed to give students a grounding in the research methods and IT skills necessary to undertake advanced work in Translation Studies.

Teaching methods

Delivery type	Number	Length hours	Student hours
Lecture	10	1.00	10.00
Practical	4	1.00	4.00
Seminar	10	1.00	10.00
Private study hours			276.00

Total Contact hours	24.00
Total hours (100hr per 10 credits)	300.00

Methods of assessment

Coursework

Assessment type	Notes	% of formal assessment
Essay	3,000 word essay	70.00
Assignment	1,500 word translation commentary	30.00
Total percentage (Assessment Coursework)		100.00

Reading list
The reading list is available from the Library website
Last updated: 12/09/2013

Appendix 10: UK3 Learning outcomes

Module and Programme Catalogue

Year 1

(Award available for year: Master of Arts)

- **Learning outcomes**

On completion of the programme students should have shown evidence of being able to:
- demonstrate specialist knowledge and mastery of techniques relevant to the Interpreting and Translation Studies and to demonstrate a sophisticated understanding of concepts, information and techniques at the forefront of I & T Studies;
- exhibit mastery in the exercise of subject-specific intellectual abilities;
- demonstrate a comprehensive understanding of techniques applicable to their own research and professional activity;
- take a proactive and self-reflective role in working and to develop professional relationships with others, as well as to work in a team and cope under stress;
- proactively formulate ideas and hypotheses and to develop, implement and execute plans by which to evaluate these;
- critically and creatively evaluate current issues, research and advanced scholarship in I & T Studies.

- **Transferable (key) skills**

Masters (Taught), Postgraduate Diploma & Postgraduate Certificate students will have had the opportunity to acquire the following abilities as defined in the modules specified for the programme:

- the skills necessary to undertake a higher research degree and for employment in a higher capacity in Language Services of national and international organisations;
- evaluating their own achievement and that of others;
- self direction and effective decision making in complex and unpredictable situations;
- independent learning and the ability to work in a way which ensures continuing professional development;
- critical engagement in the development of professional/disciplinary boundaries and norms.

- **Assessment**

Achievement for the degree of Master (taught programme) will be assessed by a variety of methods in accordance with the learning outcomes of the modules specified for the programme and will involve the achievement of the students in:

- evidencing an ability to conduct independent in-depth enquiry within the discipline;
- demonstrating the ability to apply breadth and depth of knowledge to a complex specialist area;
- drawing on a range of perspectives on an area of study;
- evaluating and criticising received opinion;
- making reasoned judgements whilst understanding the limitations on judgements made in the absence of complete data.

- **Learning context**

For Masters (Taught), Postgraduate Diploma and Postgraduate Certificate students the learning context will include the analysis of, and decision making in, complex and unpredictable situations. The structure of the programme will provide breadth and/or depth of study and opportunities for drawing upon appropriate resources and techniques.

Opportunities will be provided for students to develop:
- interests and informed opinions
- their involvement in the design and management of their learning activities
- their communication of their conclusions.

Students will be expected to progress to fully autonomous study and work.

-- resourced from the website of UK3 course <accessed on 24 January 2012>

Appendix 11: Sample of marking sheet

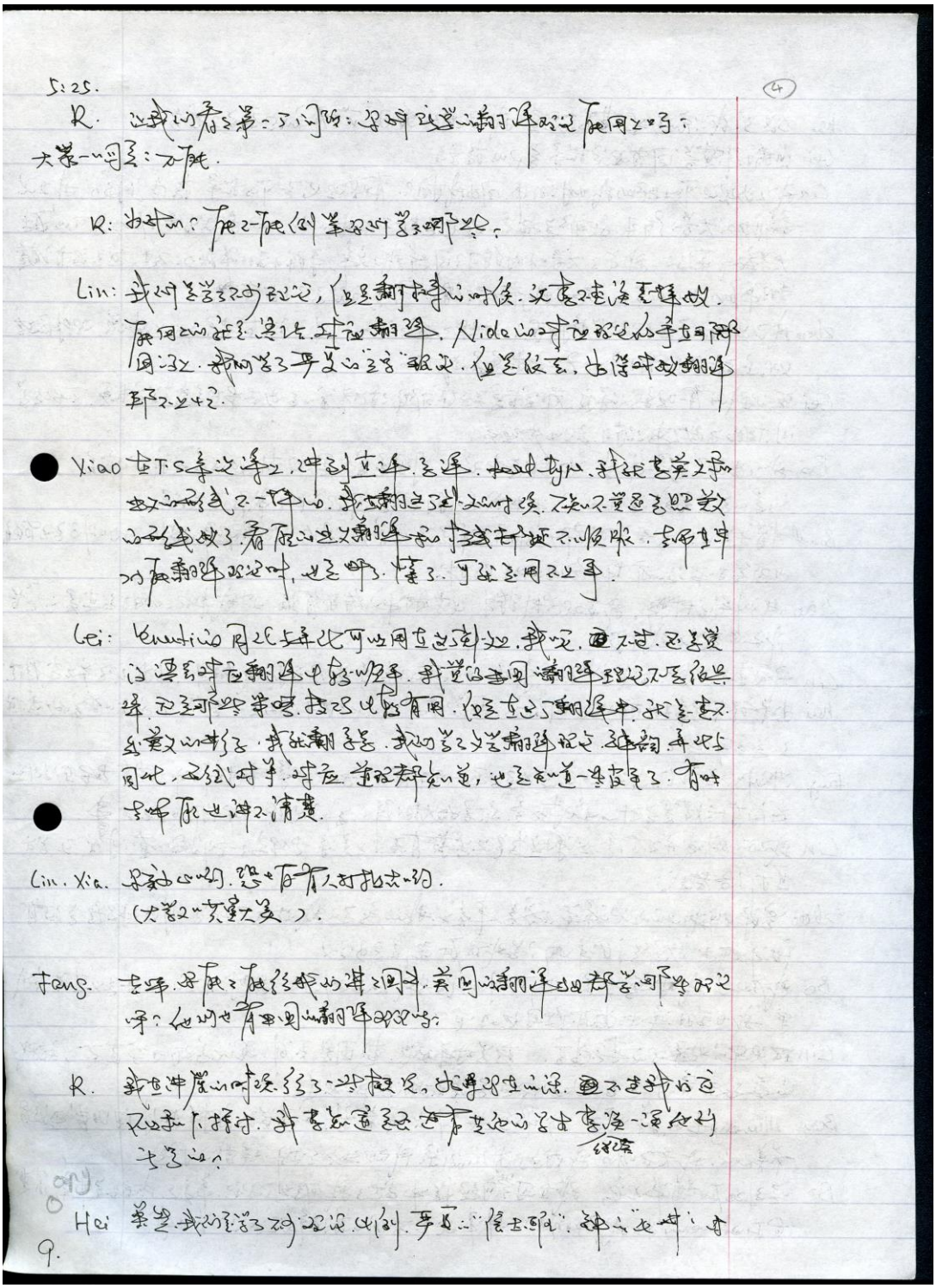
SM 2 MARKSHEET Assessment Criteria and feedback

Student's name:		
Module title:		
Agreed Mark: First marker: Second marker:		
Assessment Criteria, weighting and feedback	1st	2nd
1. Accurate overall transfer of message, including referential, semantic, and lexical rendering (decoding and encoding): 15		
2. Appropriate syntactical and grammatical structure, re-casting of sentences or clauses (encoding). 15		
3. Appropriate style and register 15		
4. Appropriate and equivalent rendering of idioms, collocations, specialist terminology and culture bound terms 15		
5. Text analysis, critical discussion of parallel texts used. Translation analysis and commentary referring to features of difficulties of transfer from source to target language 35		
6. General professional presentation, (Layout page and line numbering, spelling, accentuation, etc….) 5		
Totals first and second marker		
Second marker's comments:		

(Resources from MA APPLIED TRANSLATION STUDIES STUDY GUIDE 2004/5)

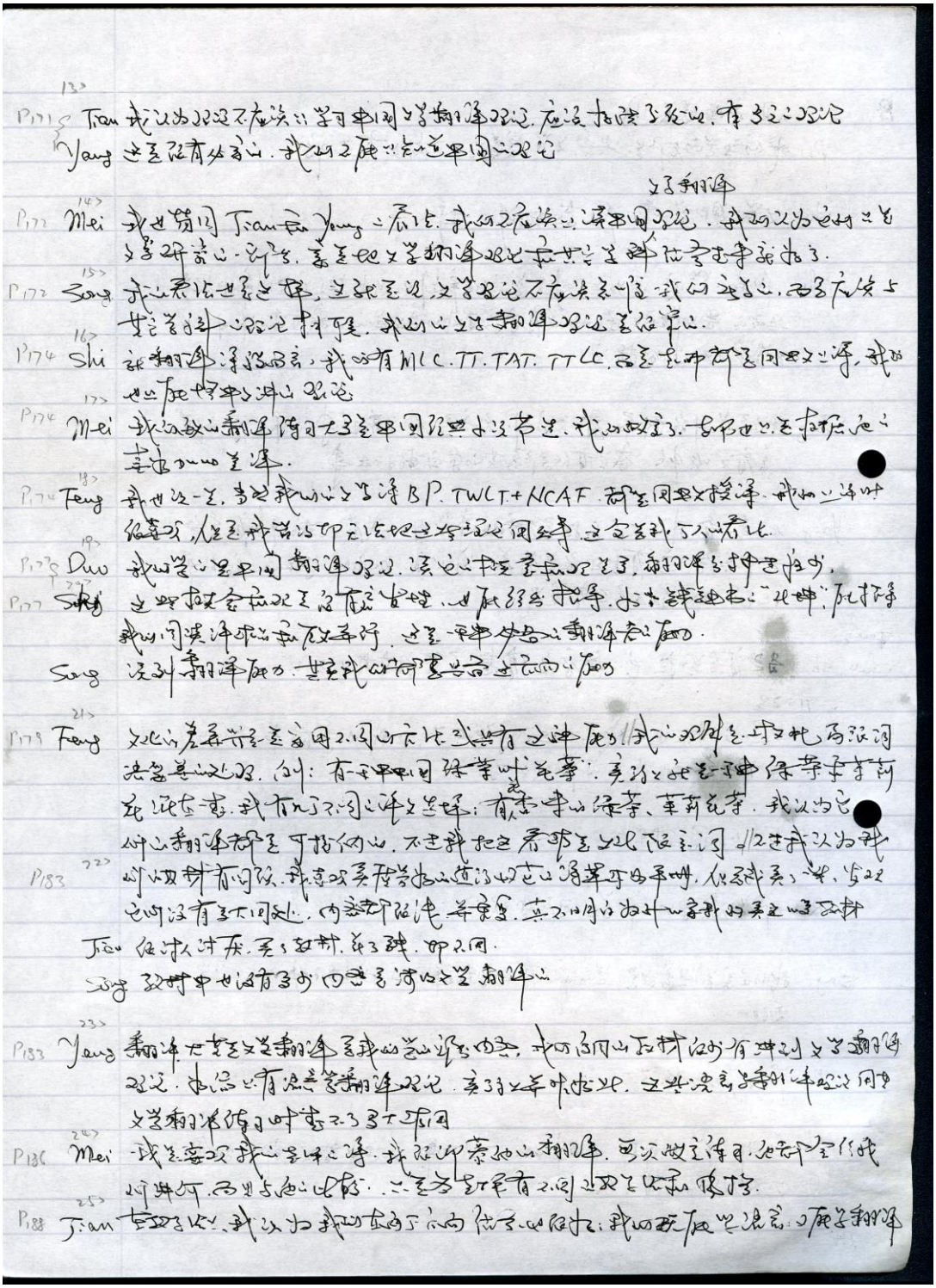
Appendix 12: Sample of original interview verbatim notes relating to Table 3.5:
An example of the second interview question with students in Section 3.5.3.2

This copy of verbatim notes corresponded to C1 student interviews from 31 Lin (C1-2) – 36 Hai (C1-5)



This copy of verbatim notes corresponded to C2 student interviews from 29 Song

(C2-8) – 41 Feng (C2-1)



This copy of verbatim notes corresponded to UK3 student interviews from 21 Willam

(UK3-7) – 25 Lewis (UK3-6)