WAN HU

EDUCATION, TRANSLATION AND GLOBAL MARKET PRESSURES

CURRICULUM DESIGN IN CHINA AND THE UK

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To Maike Oergel
An inspiring supervisor and a lady with my lifelong admiration

Preface

Setting the Scene

The process of globalisation and the intensified international exchanges in the political, economic and cultural sectors have facilitated the growth of the translation industry worldwide (Tang and Gentzler 2008). This indicates that far more qualified professional translators are needed to ensure the quality of translations and to help the translation profession to meet the challenges posed by the expanding multilingual environment (EMT 2010). Over the last decades, we have also seen an enormous increase in translation programmes around the globe in response to the expansion of the translation industry, including in the UK and China. 'Such programmes are largely delivered by universities, and increasingly at postgraduate level' (Schäffner 2012, p. 37). In this context, questions such as what constitutes reasonable curriculum design, appropriate teaching methods and techniques, and realistic criteria for assessment are taken into consideration by the course designers, with the purpose of designing a well-thought-out system to educate high calibre translators.

Moreover, the neo-liberal political and economic reform, which has taken place in the last two decades of the 20th century, has had a profound influence on today's political, economic, cultural and social systems. Higher Education (HE), as an essential part of the educational system, cannot be immune to neo-liberal ideals. In short, neo-liberalism and globalisation have brought about a new relationship between the government, the HE sector and the market.

Defining the Theme 'Tension Between Education and Theory'

The global climate of economic neo-liberalism demands that education is economically, professionally and socially useful beyond developing an individual's personal knowledge and growth. This, however, brings a tension between education and training, as well as between its different facets: theory and practice, and research and product. By education, we mean academic/liberal arts/whole person/criticality education, which is idea-based. Training, on the other hand, refers to professional training, which is mainly achieved through hands-on skills competence, as opposed to abstract knowledge. Secondly, theory is an abstraction of reality, and refers to 'universal' systems which formulate particulars or disparate data. Practice is the practical activity of translation, and also helps to more easily describe the 'object' of translation. Research investigates data to formulate theory, and theory results from research. Product here refers to the outputs or impacts which are generated by research. This is a thematic thread running through the whole book. Potentially the 'tension' is a general question facing Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), and influences the way they teach, and the purpose of research. In our own field, the delivery of pertinent translation programmes has also faced tensions from both academia and the professional world.

The Aims of the Book

This book is located in the 'Applied' branch of Translation Studies, with a particular focus on the analysis of the current curricula for Master's programmes in Translation (English and Chinese) in China and the UK. The analysis uses case studies to examine how the translation programmes have responded to the tension between academic and profession, and how theoretical units and practical units are balanced in their curriculum content.

My key questions are: how has the impact on the market affected the translation programmes in both countries, and how have the six programmes investigated in this book responded to the tension between education and training, or between theory and practice in the context of neo-liberal economic globalisation? Answering the questions will provide policymakers and course designers with illuminating examples for curriculum development of translation programmes, and this is one of the major contributions the book intends to make.

The Originality of the Book and Wider Implications

This book distinguishes itself as the first and only study to date that seeks to provide both cross-national (UK and China) and cross-disciplinary (neo-liberalism, studies in higher education, translation studies) perspectives in analysing the curricula of translation programmes which contribute to the development of knowledge in an important area of translation studies; it also has some ramifications on educational study. This is the first holistic and comprehensive study to explore the relationship between educational content and professional needs in curricula and translation programme design in two different contexts. The market-driven transformation of the HE sectors and the responses given by the translation programmes are also integrated in this study for the first time.

This book has wider implications for students, policymakers and course designers of translation programmes in the UK, China and other regions in the world. Firstly, the book outlines different competencies required by the market and provides readers with adequate examples of how translation programmes are delivered. In this sense, this book could be 'used' to help potential students to differentiate between translation programmes and select according to their own interests. This book has also provided course designers with a reference framework for the design and development of their own programmes. They may consider how they can fit their translation programmes into a global world. If course designers understand the global context, they will understand more of what is needed. In view of the above, the research shown in this book could provide universities that want to establish or optimise translation programmes with illuminating examples.

The Structure of the Book

This book is organised as follows. The introduction presents the background, defines the key terms and introduces the aims, originality and wider implications of the book. Chapter 1, as the foundation of the whole argument, prepares for the in-depth discussions in the following chapters. To be more specific, Chapter 1 initially introduces the changing roles of universities in the context of neo-liberal economic globalisation. One direct influence of these neo-liberal ideals on universities is that they have to make their courses more professional in order to meet the demands of the market, employers and students. Therefore, Chapter 1 proposes the question of balancing academic and professional pedagogies in university-based degree courses for all the subjects in general, and for translation programmes in particular. The recognition and development of Translation Studies as an independent academic discipline in both the West and China are also introduced in Chapter 1. Finally, this chapter discusses how the present analysis can be conducted with the help of a case study.

In Chapter 2, the existing literature about curriculum design and translation teaching is critically reviewed. Furthermore, due to the fact that the translation programmes in both the UK and China share the aim of preparing their students to become qualified professional translators, it is of paramount significance to identify what the demands and needs of the translation profession are. This chapter therefore analyses the market standards from Europe, the UK and China, which can represent the regional, national or even international industry needs. These standards, in turn, can become references for the curriculum development of translation programmes at universities.

Chapters 3 and 4, using six postgraduate translation programmes (three each for China and the UK) as case studies, focus on investigating how the translation courses are presented within different national traditions in teaching and learning from the perspective of course aims and module content in the UK and China. The key issue, namely the relation between educational content and market needs is fully embedded in the analysis of the curricula, and the translation market needs outlined in Chapter 2 are used as indicators to match the module content of the programmes in both countries.

The crux of this book is Chapter 5, which recaps on the contextual issues proposed in Chapter 1 and uses the findings from Chapters 3 and 4 to make in-depth comparisons. More specifically, Chapter 5 provides a thorough discussion of the impacts of neo-liberalism on the HE systems in the UK and China, and also contrasts the analysis by placing both contexts within a 'global system'. This chapter also argues the direct result of the market forces: the tension between education and training in universities, and how this tension is interrelated with Translation Studies. The final section of Chapter 5, from the aspects of course aims, module content, ethos of teaching and education resources, compares how differently the six translation programmes in the UK and China have reflected the 'tension' and have responded to market forces.

Finally, the concluding remarks review the main research findings in this book and provide readers with possible directions for future research.

Beijing, China

Wan Hu

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Contents

Abbreviations

A (language)	Native Language
AHRC	Arts and Humanities Research Council
AQSIQ	General Administration of Quality Supervision, Inspection and Quarantine of the People's Republic of China
ATS	Applied Translation Studies
B (language)	Foreign Language
BFSU	Beijing Foreign Studies University
BTI	Bachelor of Translation and Interpreting
CAT	Computer-Assisted Translation
CATTI	China Accreditation Test for Translators and Interpreters
CBT	Competence-Based Training
CCTV	China Central Television
CGTN	China Global Television Network
CI	Confucius Institute
CPC	Communist Party of China
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
CSSCI	Chinese Social Sciences Citation Index
DGT	European Commission's Directorate General for Translation
DipTrans	Diploma in Translation
EMT	The European Master's in Translation
EU	The European Union
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FIT	International Federation of Translators
FLTRP	Foriegn Language Teaching and Research Publishing
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
GSTI	Graduate School of Translation and Interpreting

HE	Higher Education
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
IO	International Organisations
IP	Intellectual Property
KTPs	Knowledge Transfer Partnerships
LSP	Language Service Providers
MATI	MA in Translation and Interpreting
MATIS	MA in Translation and Interpreting Studies
MATS	MA in Translation Studies
MBA	Master of Business Administration
MLA	Master of Language Administration
MoE	Ministry of Education
MPA	Master of Public Administration
MTI	Master of Translation and Interpreting
PACTE	Process of Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation
PBL	Project-based learning
RAE	Research Assessment Exercise
REF	Research Excellence Framework
T&I	Translation and Interpreting
TAC	Translators Association of China
TOT	Training of Trainers
TS	Translation Studies
UCL	University College London
UN	The United Nations
UNESCO	The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WEG	Wanli Education Group
WTO	World Trade Organisation

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CHAPTER 1

Translation Studies in Higher Education Systems: The UK and China

1.1 Introduction

Universities have never before (in human history) been so significant (Collini 2012). The role of universities has also been a perennial question in the field of higher education. In defining and encapsulating the idea of the university, Wilhelm von Humboldt at the turn of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and John Henry Newman in the mid-nineteenth century made invaluable contributions. Humboldt's idea of the university, as Holford puts it, 'is freedom of scientific research and autonomy in teaching: for Newman, students, and their liberal education and character information, are at the heart of the idea of the university' (2014, p. 13). An assumption they both shared is that the purpose of universities should be the pursuit of knowledge for individuals. The social role of universities was given attention, but with a greater focus on the individual contribution to society.

In today's world, however, 'modern information technology is spreading information more widely than ever before in history' (Nye 2004, p. 1). The connections among both nations and industries have been largely increased. The commercialisation of higher education is being pushed ahead by governments worldwide (Bok 2004). As a result, the purpose of universities has changed in accordance with increasingly knowledge-driven economies, indicating that knowledge is required in order to make their contribution to society. This demands that degree courses need to be developed with the market's needs in mind to

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ensure a good match between graduates' competence and employers' requirements (Schäffner 2012). This has also been the case for the translation programmes in both China and the UK.

In view of the above scene-setting, this chapter will introduce the roles of universities in history, and the changing roles of universities in the global climate of economic neoliberalism, and will then analyse how educational content and professional needs are balanced in degree courses and in the case of translation programmes. Moreover, as the foundation of the whole book, this chapter will also discuss how Translation Studies has been recognised as an academic discipline in both the West and China, and will also introduce the selection of the research objectives—case translation programmes—in this book.

1.2 Abstract and Situation: The Relationship Between Academia and Profession

1.2.1 The Roles of Universities in History

In history, academia was rooted in the 'liberal arts of the historical trivium and quadrivium of Middle Ages' (Kearns 2008, p. 187). The trivium included grammar, logic and rhetoric; while the quadrivium consisted of arithmetic, geometry, astronomy and music. This scheme was then developed by the process of Renaissance humanism in the nineteenth century, leading to a greater emphasis on research than teaching alone (ibid.). The German educationist Wilhelm von Humboldt is a typical representative. University education was thought to foster research-type talent according to Humboldt (1809/1990). He also advocated the ideal of combining instruction and research. In short, the ideals of Humboldt formed the basis of our system of higher education. In the twentieth century, both teaching and research were emphasised as mass education and innovation are equally important. Humboldt's idea is crucial to both Western and Eastern modern university education, and he at least suggests that there should be a link between theory and practice. Many other scholars have also expressed opinions on the 'roles' of universities. Newman, for example, proposed that the rationale for a university was the provision of a liberal education to contribute to the cultivation of the mind, as education is the application of philosophical rationality (Newman 1927). In other words, the perceived role of universities in society is as educators in the humanistic tradition (Anderman and Rogers 2012, p. 65). The essence of their activities, as Duderstadt (2002, p. 5) argues, can be summarised as 'critical thinking, moral reasoning and judgement'. This represents education as being related to personal achievement, growth and fulfilment and the promotion of education for the social good (Lambert et al. 2007, p. 526). In short, traditionally the university has focused on the development of individuals. It tended to produce knowledge, to educate young generations and to spread culture and values, to name but a few goals.

1.2.2 The Changing Roles of Universities Under Neoliberalism

1.2.2.1 The Introduction of Neoliberalism

In the last two decades of the twentieth century, however, there have been dramatic changes in the nature of higher education since the arrival of neoliberalism, which first emerged in the 1970s as a new form of managerialism and governmentality[1] (Davies and Bansel 2007; Manteaw 2008), and was built on the belief that 'market forces will bring prosperity, liberty, democracy and peace to the whole of humankind' (Scholte 2000, p. 34). As defined by Harvey (2005, p. 2), neoliberalism is,

> …a theory of political economic practices that proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedom and skills within an institutional framework, characterised by strong property rights, free markets and free trade.

This specifies that the key principles of neoliberalism are 'market deregulation, state decentralisation, and reduced state intervention into economic affairs in general' (Campbell and Pederson 2001, p. 1). Despite criticism, it is acknowledged that neoliberalism has been regarded as the reigning policy framework in contemporary globalisation (Scholte 2000, p. 35) and still influences today's political, economic and cultural systems.

1.2.2.2 Major Changes in the HE Sector Caused by Neoliberalism

Although neoliberalism was primarily associated with the socio-economic domain, the scope of neoliberalism is not restricted to the economic sector, but has also been expanded to other spheres of life (e.g. political, cultural or ideological). The policies and practices that follow from neoliberalism have also influenced the purpose of higher education. According to Olssen and Peters (2005, p. 313), the predominance of neoliberalism during the 1980s and 1990s 'has produced a fundamental shift in the way universities and other institutions of higher education have identified and justified their institutional existence'. To be more precise, neoliberalism takes educational systems out of state control and into the global marketplace (Stromquist 2002; Frake 2008), which causes a changing relationship between universities, the government, students, employers and the market.

The application of neoliberalism to the HE sector has three main aspects. Firstly, the traditional view of the HE sector as primarily a public good is transferred to the new view that the HE sector is principally a private good (Jiang 2005). In particular, the HE sector was largely funded by the state or public authorities, but the neo-liberal market-driven strategy has resulted in cuts to public spending on the HE sector by many governments (e.g. the UK, New Zealand, Australia). So universities are mainly funded by their direct beneficiaries (students themselves and their future employers) (ibid., 2005), and they need to diversify their revenues by building up partnerships with the business sector, which gives rise to burgeoning relationships between universities and private industry (Lambert et al. 2007).

Secondly, education is now defined as a tradeable service worldwide. For example, according to a UNESCO estimate, education was a $2 trillion global 'industry' in 2000 (Kathleen 2006, p. 6). In this sense, the HE sector has become a tradeable commodity in the new borderless HE market in which the student is now the 'consumer' or 'client', and higher education is the 'supplier' or 'provider' (Frake 2008; Jiang 2005; Jameson et al. 2012). HE, on this account, has become commercialised and commodified. Therefore, higher education nowadays has been metaphorically described as the 'Tesco' model of education 'where learning is packaged and sold to suit economic need and consumer demand' (Foster 2002, cited in Jameson et al. 2012, p. 25), and it is more about the development of human resources and economic prosperity (Lambert et al. 2007, p. 526).

Thirdly, neoliberalism brings about a new institutional relationship between the HE sector and wider society in respect of research, teaching and learning. As regards research, many universities began to consider the broader impacts of their research beyond academia including the impact on the economy, society, health, the environment, policymaking and culture. In terms of teaching and learning, despite debate, the idea of embedding employability into the curriculum has been recognised in most universities. With market and global forces, the HE sector is now required to supply suitably skilled graduates to the workplace. Therefore, the strategy of enhancing the skills of students in order to meet employers' recruitment requirements has now been put on the agenda (Hills et al. 2003, p. 211; Rodríguez de Céspedes 2017).

According to Lambert et al. (2007, p. 526), the commercialisation and marketisation of education is a 'global' phenomenon, albeit the effects may be displayed in different ways due to different national educational systems. The HE sectors in both the UK and China,[2] the two subjects of this study, have also been affected by this global economic development in recent years.

The period since the introduction of neo-liberal values has witnessed numerous changes to UK universities, including the expansion of higher education as well as the strengthening of the higher education market in a global context (Krause 2009). These changes come from many directions. Firstly, 'an opening up of the student recruitment market is spiced by a sense of consumerism among those who will pay higher fees (or strictly, higher graduate contributions)' (Greenaway and Rudd 2014, p. 1). Secondly, students request that greater employability skills be taught in academic classroom hours (Atkins 1999; Boden and Nedeva 2010; Jameson et al. 2012), which poses tensions between academia and profession, and between theoretical teaching of content and the skills needed in the market in many degree programmes. Thirdly and most importantly, in order to maintain the UK HE sector as a byword for excellence in the global market, the HE-Business engagement[3] is much enhanced nowadays. This engagement can be explained as a bilateral relationship between the HE sector and the private sector including business and industry. Within this partnership, HE providers serve as sources of graduate talent, academic expertise, international reach and technology, while companies have the capacity to absorb innovation, to support business growth, trade and inward investment (Rudd 2013; Greenaway and Rudd 2014). This HE-Business interface belongs to the wider method of 'knowledge transfer partnerships (KTPs)', which refers to a range of activities usually directed at producing practical outcomes, often stemming from research (Schofield 2011, p. 5). In the UK, knowledge transfer is a growing tendency with regard to the research and impact mission among most universities. This process could mutually benefit both universities and the business sector in many ways,[4] but the notion is still controversial among some academics, and it may be too naïve to expect academics fully and suddenly to accept business engagement and innovation due to the longer established research-intensive system, and it could be more difficult for academics working in the Arts and Humanities to build up partnerships with industry and to generate enough impact on the wider society than for their colleagues in the faculties of science and engineering. In view of all these changes, universities in the UK are becoming practical in terms of knowledge and technology transfer, and economic development and global forces. They are increasingly considered as an instrument to boost economic growth via creating and applying new knowledge.

Since its integration into the world economy, the Chinese government has also emphasised the importance of knowledge in enhancing its economic development and ability to compete in the global economy. Despite the fact that each country might adopt different national policies, similar developments and challenges can be found in China in that the HE sector has also experienced pressures from neo-liberal globalisation. In this sense, policy arrangements should be implemented along market lines, and educational reforms are required to be in line with those in economic sectors to establish close links between education and the market. This has been the most prominent orientation (Yang 2012). The social and economic impacts of universities are also reinforced by government, specifying that the optimised higher education structure needs to meet national and regional socio-economic development needs. These themes have formed the milieu for the reform of China's higher education sector since the 1980s (Jiang 2005; Mok 2009; Yang 2012). As such, a series of reforms and strategies have been adopted in its HE system in response to market forces. Firstly, in order to create more opportunities for access to universities, China has witnessed the expansion of higher education in both student numbers and in the number of Chinese universities since the late 1990s. This indicates that a massification of the HE sector in China has been implemented. Another change in Chinese society is the introduction and adoption of a decentralisation policy, which replaces the former 'centralised' and 'state-dominated model'[5] and gives more authority to local governments in terms of allocating resources, financing higher education, and managing personnel and salaries in universities (Mok 2001, 2009; Mok and Ngok 2001); while the Ministry of Education (MoE) acts as coordinator and mediator. In addition, Chinese HE has also been affected by the 'strong tide of marketization and privatisation' (Mok 2009, p. 290), such as the promotion of private universities run by enterprises, individuals, public organisations, or even Sino-foreign partnerships (Jiang 2005; Hou et al. 2011). Furthermore, professional degree courses have also been established and developed in China since the 1990s in order to meet professional requirements in pertinent industries, and then to nurture more application-oriented talents so as to compete with other countries in the global competitive market.

Viewed from the above discussion, although the UK and China follow different strategies in their HE sectors in response to neo-liberal ideals due to different educational paradigms and ideas, the massification and commercialisation of the HE sector is a common issue for both countries. This trend urges the HE sector to take 'key, core, transferable and employability skills into the heart of students' learning experience' (Atkins 1999, p. 267). The following section then addresses the balance of academic (abstract concepts) and professional (transferrable skills) curriculum content in general, and in Translation Studies in particular.

1.2.3 Balancing Academic and Professional Pedagogies

The relationship between professional demands and the 'classical humanist traditions' of academia has always been a hot topic (Kearns 2008, p. 184). 'Ideally, there should be a match between the learning outcomes of the students and the employment market into which they proceed after graduation. However, a majority of graduates from the target degrees go into jobs in which their degree knowledge base would appear to be of little benefit' (Hills et al. 2003, p. 222). This indicates that there are still tensions between what employers and students need and what universities are producing (Atkins 1999). More specifically, employers in the current labour market may prefer to recruit people who have competent job-specific skills and can be responsible for tasks and projects as soon as they get hired. This means that the disciplinary knowledge or abstract theory taught in the universities cannot always equip their graduates with skills needed in the workplace.

More recently, neo-liberal principles have posed several challenges to the orientation of degree programmes and teaching content in universities. An increasing expectation, therefore, is that the education which universities offer should directly provide graduates with skillsets which can be applied immediately in a specific work environment (Kearns 2008, p. 188). Moreover, the participation rates in universities are higher than ever, and the student population is more diverse. The mission of higher education and modes of delivery have changed as well. As such, the major drive in teaching nowadays is more contingent on professional programmes and considers teaching effectiveness (Biggs and Tang 2011).

In order to bridge this gap and to link degree programmes to employability, one solution could be to establish degree programmes with a vocational orientation (van der Merwe et al. 2013) or work-based learning programmes (Atkins 1999; Hills et al. 2003). In this case, course aims, module content and teaching methods may have a clear focus that fits employers' needs (Boden and Nedeva 2010). The Chinese professional degree at master's level (including the MBA programme) is such an example. Moreover, if such professional-oriented courses were accredited or recognised by business and industry (e.g. Accountancy; Banking and Finance), professional associations may have an impact on the design and delivery of relevant programmes in that professional bodies' requirements may be integrated into the curricula so as to gain accreditation (van der Merwe et al. 2013). Work placements may also be provided in such courses with the aim of providing students with useful career insights and workplace awareness by learning skills which might be useful in the workplace.

Another method is associated with teaching content, which is now required to meet the demands of the market and employers as well as to satisfy students' needs. This could be understood as the 'employability' of graduates, which has become a common aim among governments around the world and has been imposed on national higher education systems (Yorke and Knight 2006, p. 3). Thus, employability-related skills are advocated to be embedded into university curricula. In the context of the HE sector, these skills in this case include two facets: transferrable or generic skills, and disciplinary knowledge and understanding or subject-related skills. Generic skills, such as communication skills, IT skills, problem-solving skills, interpersonal skills and teamwork, allow people to succeed in a wide range of different careers, tasks and jobs (Training Agency 1990; Atkins 1999; González and Wagenaar 2003; Hurtado Albir 2007). In some domains, employers tend to value generic skills more highly than disciplinary-based understanding and skills (e.g. social work) (Harvey et al. 1997); while in others, disciplinary knowledge and understanding are vital (e.g. computer science)

(Yorke and Knight 2006). The ideal case is that the combination of both generic skills and subject-related knowledge could be found in one person, who can 'have relevant disciplinary understanding and skills and the 'soft' or generic skills that enable the disciplinary base to be deployed to optimal effect' (ibid., p. 5). Here it is also important to highlight that due to differences in disciplinary ethos and available resources, policy-makers may adopt different methods to embed both generic skills and subject-related knowledge in their degree courses. The following discusses how the above discussed skills (both subject-related and transferrable) can be applied to the translation subject.

1.2.4 Balancing Academic and Professional Pedagogies in Translation Programmes

The discipline of Translation Studies resembles law and engineering and business studies, which are 'bulwarks of academia while remaining eminently vocational' (Kearns 2008, p. 191), in that linking academic requirements to market demands is not a paradox in these fields. In fact, similar to other disciplines, a number of scholars have discussed the relationship between translator education in universities and the profession, and believe that professional elements are vital in terms of curriculum content. Dollerup (1994, p. 124), for example, approves the importance of authentic teaching materials and methods in translator education and training. Fraser (2000), Kelly (2005), and Schäffner (2012) also evaluate translators' competences from the perspective of mastering the market needs. Furthermore, Anderman and Rogers (2000, 2012) stress that education for translation ought to be more responsive to the needs of the markets. Meanwhile, they realise the importance of generic skills in the field of translation, arguing that instead of merely preparing graduates for particular jobs, it is more appropriate for universities to introduce students to research, evaluation, translational practice, and to introduce them to transferrable skills (ibid.). In this regard, students acquire both translation knowledge and generic skills at universities, which enable them to have professional mobility between sectors of the job market.

1.2.4.1 What the Translation Profession Has to Say

As most translation training programmes claim that the overall objective is to cultivate professional translators, it is rational to acknowledge what the professional standards and demands are. Before taking into consideration market standards in different areas (see Chapter 2), the following three examples of demands expressed by the market may shed some light on the trade-off between academic and professional curriculum content in TS programmes. Firstly, a UK-based company describes the attributes of a perfect translator as follows[6]:

1. Understands the subject matter of the source text.
2. Understands what the customer is aiming to achieve by ordering the translation.
3. Can put the source text in context (aim/register/style/authorship).
4. Can quickly familiarise him/herself within the specific industry sector (Internet research, competitors).
5. Uses the right terminology for the client/sector (client glossaries).
6. Uses legacy/help material effectively.
7. Quickly forms a productive relationship with the client contact (agency PM or direct client contact).
8. Observes deadline and other job instructions (file formats, localisation conventions, text sections not required, etc.).
9. Asks relevant questions (attention to detail).
10. Has boundless professional curiosity (craves understanding of source text and its background/context).

To be more precise, attribute (1) means that qualification is very important for a translator. It is vital for a translator to ask him/herself whether he or she is qualified to translate the task before he/she accepts a project from a commercial company. Attribute (2) reiterates the importance of readership for a translation task. For example, potential readers of texts on human resources differ from those of texts on sales. Another important quality is to form a positive relationship with the direct client or agency (see (7)).

Secondly, a job advertisement from SDL International, one of the largest international language service providers (LSP), requires its candidates to have a 'high level of computer literacy', to familiarise with 'translation memory tools such as Trados', and to have 'high level of interactive and communication skills (Kelly 2005, p. 25).

Thirdly, Gouadec conducted two surveys of job advertisements in the field of translation in the year 2002 and 2005, respectively. He then summarised 15 competences for translators according to the results of the surveys; for example, a trained translator 'has actually begun to specialise in one of the areas in demand'; should be 'proficient in technical writing and content management'; should 'know how to create and search relevant corpora'; should be 'familiar with proof-reading and revision techniques'; and 'can actually assist translation project managers if need arises and even take over in time', among others (2007, pp. 341–342).

The above attributes and requirements listed in these three examples show that disciplinary knowledge (skills) and transferrable skills are equally important in our field. Firstly, translators (trainee translators) need to know both native and foreign languages at word, grammatical, structural and pragmatic levels and also must have transferrable skills between these two languages. Secondly, in addition to language competence, permanent skills such as how to deal with a translation task, and new skills for a changing market, such as post-editing, technical writing or multimedia translation techniques, are also vital for a qualified translator. Thirdly, translators and language experts not only deal with translating words, sentences and speeches accurately, but also need to translate underlying cultures. In fact, the lack of cultural awareness and proper ways to address cultural differences will result in unrealistic expectations, frustrations, conflicts and failure in deepening cooperation on trade or bilateral investment, or in establishing a positive diplomatic relationship. Therefore, it is of paramount significance for translators to understand and accept cultural differences, and to have high calibre communication skills when they perform translation or interpreting tasks. Last but not least, interpersonal skills, belonging to the group of generic skills and including how to work in a team and how to build up negotiating and communicating skills between a translator and the client, are also indispensable elements for becoming a competent translator. If translators (trainee translators) can acquire all these skills and competences in advance, they may at least be more confident when they enter into the real job market.

It is not easy to include all the professional aspects presented above in a university-based curriculum; however, these three examples still make us aware of the requirements for a range of positions and professional skills that are needed in the translation industry. This may still give university lecturers some thoughts on where and how to embed industry skills in the curriculum.

1.2.4.2 A New Trend in China: Competence of Language Administration The term 'language services' is not new but did not arouse much public attention before 2008. There has also been limited research on this field in past decades. For example, in her journal article entitled *The Global Translator Sector: Past and Present* published in 2006, Hinkkanen (2006, p. 8), the former president of the International Federation of Translators (FIT), only mentioned 'language services' and 'language service providers (LSP)' twice. However, from the year 2008 onwards, there have been gradual changes and development of the language services industry globally.

Common Sense Advisory,[7] a well-established market research company in the US, has continually published the ranking of translation/language services companies since 2005. An interesting point is that before 2009, the title of such ranking was named 'Ranking of Top 22/25 Translation Companies', while in 2009, the title was altered to 'Ranking of Top 30 Language Services Companies'. In 2010, this ranking was renamed as 'The Top 35 Language Service Providers' (Yuan 2012, p. 81). Further, the Directorate General for Translation of the European Commission (DG Translation) published a comprehensive report: *Study on the size of the language industry in the EU* in 2009, which investigated the estimated value of the language industry in the European Union. It can be seen from the report that the language industry sectors include 'translation, interpreting, software localisation and website globalisation, language technology tool development, language teaching, consultancy in linguistic issues and organisation of international conferences with multilingual requirements, as well as language-related activities performed in corporate environments' (DG Translation 2009). Both examples from the US and the EU indicate that translation services are not merely dealing with translation from A language to B language or vice versa, but have been considered in a wider context in which almost all the language-related activities are included. However, despite the fact that both the EU and the US have realised the existence and importance of language services, the training foci for each educational institution are still translation and interpreting (T&I). Knowledge and skills about language services are included in part of the modules, rather than treated as an independent degree course.

In China, the development of 'language services' is closely associated with the Beijing Olympic Games. Before and during the Games, a department entitled Language Services was established to provide translation, interpreting and language services for athletes, officials and journalists. Four companies successfully bid to become language services providers for the Olympic Games offering translation, interpreting, language training and language technology services. Since then, the term 'language services' has been frequently reported in newspapers. Related business in this area has been expanding and now more conferences, symposiums and seminars are being organised to discuss language services industry needs and how to train professionals to be fit for this industry. There is no doubt that the important occasion of the Beijing Olympic Games accelerated the development of the language services industry in China (Yuan 2012, p. 80–81; TAC 2013).

But it was not until the '2010 China International Language Industry Conference' that the term 'language services' was officially introduced for the first time in China. The term 'language service industry' was then defined as a newly emerged industry consisting of translation and localisation services, language technology and tools, language teaching and training and language-related consultancies. The language services industry, like most other service industries, is horizontal; it crosses all vertical industries, has a wider scope than the traditional translation industry and offers a range of globalisation services (e.g. business services, consulting). Since then, the terms 'language service industry' or 'language industry' have been used more and more frequently in China to replace the more traditional term 'translation industry'. This marked the formal establishment of the language services industry in China.

The following years have witnessed a great expansion of the language services industry in China. According to the *2014 Report on China's Translation Industry*, there were 37,197 companies entitled 'language services' or similar at the end of 2011; but in 2013, the number rose to 55,975, which means that another 18,778 language services companies were established in the course of two years, with an annual growth rate of 25%. These figures indicate that the growth of the language services industry in China is associated with China's rapid economic growth. Moreover, according to the statistics from TAC, 'China's foreign trade in 2012, which rose 6.2% year-on-year to $3.867 trillion, saw the best performance among major global economies. The growth of cultural trade is especially notable with China's effort to reduce the long-standing cultural trade deficit in recent years. This means more demand for language services and more opportunities for the language industry' (TAC 2013).

Such figures are still increasing. In late December 2015, the numbers of language services companies and related companies rose to 72,495 (TAC 2017).

The burgeoning of the language services industry in China has aroused attention from various parties (government departments, companies in service industry, LSPs, education institutions) and has had a profound influence on the training focus of professional translators at universities in China. As a result, one case university in this book: a research-oriented key university located in Beijing decided to shift the training focus of its Masters of Translation and Interpreting (MTI) programme from T&I to language administration in September 2013. It is stated in its postgraduate prospectus that on this new path, students are expected to master high-level language transferrable and language technical skills, and to obtain experience in managing language services after two years' intensive and comprehensive learning. Moreover, in addition to becoming qualified translators accredited according to the national regulations, students may also acquire managing skills for language services to pursue a career in the language services industry. In other words, translation graduates of the language administration pathway may become bilingual or multilingual administrators or human resource specialists of the language services industry dealing with more communicative tasks, like mediating between clients and current translators, providing language consultancy to specific customers, working within language customer services including account management or other daily logistics. The changing course aims have also brought about an update of curriculum content in order to meet the new market demands. Apart from the essential skills and competences needed for high calibre translators, language administration related skills and pertinent modules have also appeared in the curriculum of the MTI programme. This university offers an example of how the changing market provides inspiration for the design and development of the curriculum in the universities. However, it is still important to point out that although language services have been expanding greatly in China—and various parties which are related to this sector have realised the critical role of language services in promoting service trade and cultural trade between China and the rest of the world—the influence of language services on broad translator education and training is not overwhelming at the moment. This is still at a developing stage for all the parties.

1.3 The Development of Translation Studies as a Discipline in the West and China

1.3.1 Translation Studies[8] Recognised in the Academic Field in the West and China

As world trade has grown, so has the importance of translation (Munday 2012, p. 10). As a long established practical activity, translation has been playing an increasingly important role in mediating and facilitating understanding and communication between different cultures in the world. Despite the fact that the activity of translating has been in existence for millennia (Bassnett 2008), the study of translation as an established academic discipline was only initiated in the second half of the twentieth century (Munday 2008/2012), which makes it a relatively young academic discipline (Baker 2011, p. 4).

In earlier days, translation was merely regarded as an element of language teaching and learning, and as a testing device (Peverati 2009). This was known as the grammar translation method, which placed particular emphasis on the study of grammatical rules and structure of the foreign language (Munday 2012). Holmes' dichotomy of Translation Studies in the 1970s, which was regarded as the founding statement of the study of translation (Gentzler 2001), mapped out the very earliest version of translation as an independent discipline and categorised this field into 'pure' and 'applied' studies (see Fig. 1.1).

This map portraits what Translation Studies is, what 'pure' Translation Studies covers, and how it is related to practical applications of research. The former ('pure') focuses on descriptive studies of existing translations and relevant theories, while the latter ('applied') covers areas such as translator training, translation aids, and translation criticism (Munday 2008/2012).

The 'Applied Translation Studies' (ATS) branch of Holmes' map (Holmes 1988, p. 77) was expanded by Jeremy Munday in 2001/2008 and was modified again in 2012 (see Fig. 1.2). This gives clearer definitions of the three facets of ATS. For example, translator training now includes teaching methods, testing techniques and curriculum design. IT applications, dictionaries/grammar and expert informants are now grouped in the section of translation aids. Translation criticism, in the new version, refers to the evaluation of translations, 'including the marking of student translations and the reviews of published translations' (Munday 2012, p. 18).

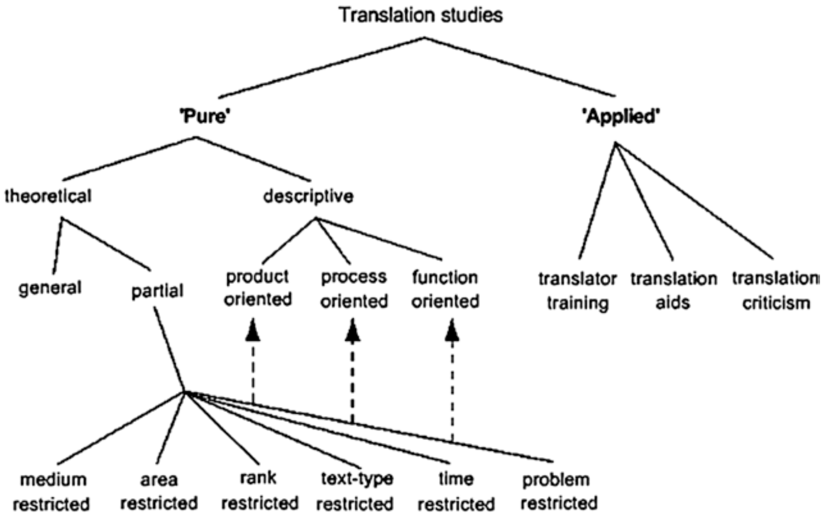

Fig. 1.1 Holmes's 'map' of Translation Studies (from Toury 1995, p. 10; cited in Munday 2012)

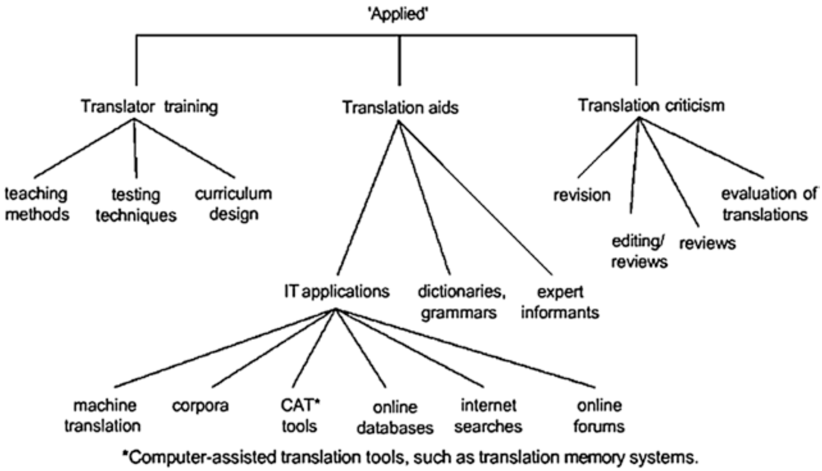

Fig. 1.2 Holmes's branch of 'Applied Translation Studies' expanded by Munday (2012, p. 19)

Translation Studies, as an independent discipline, expanded hugely in the following years (Bassnett 2008; Munday 2012). The late 1970s and the 1980s saw the rise of the polysystem theory, which was mainly proposed by Even-Zohar (1978, 1990, 2004) and regarded as a prominent move in the field. Polysystem theory regards translation as the evolution of a literary system operating in the wider social, literary and historical systems of the target culture (Shuttleworth and Cowie 2004). At the same time, functionalist theories advanced in Germany also developed quickly. These placed more emphasis on the translator's purposes (commissions) and the target reader than on the notion of sameness between languages, which signalled a move away from a mainly linguistic phenomenon towards a consideration of intercultural communication (Bassnett 2008; Munday 2012). The 1990s were an exciting time for Translation Studies as the study of translation-based topics was receiving increasingly high attention around the world (Shuttleworth and Cowie 2004). For example, TS underwent 'cultural and ideological turns' at that time, and the object of interest shifted again. Research areas in this period of time, for example, include (1) the analysis of translation from the perspective of cultural studies (Bassnett and Lefevere 1990); (2) gender and translation, which focuses on the feminists' translation project and gay identities and cultural transfer (Harvey 2004); and (3) the roles of translation in the colonisation process (Bassnett and Trivedi 1999). More recently, both research and the practice of translation have been influenced by globalisation, new technologies and media. In this regard, new research directions have been adopted, including translator training and process-oriented research (Kelly 2005; Kearns 2008; O'Brein 2006); audiovisual translation, which is primarily the subtitling and dubbing of films and is becoming very popular for applied descriptive studies (Díaz Cintas and Remael 2007); localisation and globalisation, which is 'a new translation practice and environment that alters notions of equivalence and of power' (Munday 2012, p. 267); and corpus-based translation studies, which mainly investigate translated language 'held in machine-readable form and capable of being analysed automatically or semi-automatically in a variety of ways' (Baker 1995, p. 225). Last but not least, despite debate, Translation Studies is now often considered as an interdiscipline, which has primary and secondary relationships to other disciplines, such as linguistics, modern languages, cultural studies, or other specialised subject areas (e.g. law, politics, medicine) (Munday 2012, pp. 22–26; see also Chapter 5, Sect. 5.4.3).

Translation Studies started to be recognised as an academic discipline in China around the late 1980s. China has seen an unprecedented boom in Translation Studies due to its intercultural interaction with the outside world, brought about by massive translation practice. This has also generated a rising interest in relevant pedagogy and research among Chinese translation scholars, who have a strong interest to learn from the West and are also playing an active role in promoting the development of the discipline (Wang and Mu 2009, p. 268; Sun 2012, p. 32).

New concepts, paradigms and directions in Translation Studies have led to heated discussions and debates among Chinese scholars. The core question is the position of translation in China. Scholars who support the establishment of the translation discipline in China strongly believe that Chinese translation scholarship should promote the standing of Translation Studies in order to keep up with international trends (Tan 1987; Zhang 1995; Xie 2001; Luo and Mu 2010). Others, who doubt that Translation Studies is an independent discipline, argue that the real situation in the field of translation is that translation practice and translation theories are not aligned. Translating activity depends much on the translators' own methods and strategies, and it is hard to conclude that translating activity can be accounted for by theory (Lao 1996; Zhang 1999).

Despite debates and disagreements, there is an overall consensus in Chinese scholarship that translation is now an independent discipline, rather than being a branch of, or dependent on, literature or linguistics. China has now widely recruited students to study translation at both undergraduate and postgraduate level. The past decades have also seen a proliferation of conferences, books, journals and translation associations in China. All these developments and demands have marked the recognition of Translation Studies as an independent discipline in China. In short, an independent academic discipline could provide scholars with more available research resources (Luo and Mu 2010). Research achievements will, in turn, enrich teaching and continuous development in this subject area.

It is also important to highlight that Holmes' influential map has been widely recognised in China. However, the two branches 'pure' and 'applied' cannot include all the elements in the study of translation. Neither can they cover all the situations in different national contexts. Therefore, Luo and Mu (2010) have designed an expanded 'map', which is regarded as more suitable for the Chinese context (see Table 1.1).

Luo and Mu divide Translation Studies into ten sub-categories, as shown in the left-hand column in Table 1.1, and each category incorporates its own facets which are shown in the right-hand column. We see from this table that the applied and practical aspects account for a relatively large proportion, such as specialised translation, interpreting and translation management. The history of translation, which is not mentioned in Holmes' map, is also included in Luo and Mu's map. Moreover, as Luo and Mu (2010, p. 14) explain, these different facets under each subcategory influence each other and could overlap, and there are spaces in this map for future research.

Last but not least, the following characteristics proposed by Luo (2004) could be regarded as a summary of the development of Translation Studies as discipline in China.

> First and foremost, Translation Studies in China is closely related to translation practice and activities. Secondly, Translation Studies has turned away from the traditional microscopic study of translation skills and techniques and begun to pay more attention to the macroscopic study of translation theories. Thirdly, Chinese Translation Studies has formed an independent system which has an aesthetic basis and constitutes an organic part of Chinese literary criticism. Fourthly, translators in China have started to study translation from the perspectives of social semiotics, cultural anthropology, social linguistics, text linguistics, comparative literature and contrastive analysis, to name but a few. Translation is becoming a multidimensional and interdisciplinary field of study. (Luo 2004, p. 28)

1.3.2 An Overview of Translation Programmes in the UK and China

The academic world has responded to the growing demand for bilingual and translation services due to the internationalisation of the economy with an unprecedented proliferation of training opportunities in translation. This has led to a vast expansion in specialised T&I courses at both undergraduate and postgraduate level in an increasing number of countries (e.g. Belgium, Canada, Italy, Netherlands, Australia, Denmark, UK, Spain, China) (Schäffner and Adab 2000; Kelly 2005; Nord 2005; Peverati 2009; Munday 2012).

According to Kelly (2005, p. 9), there are different types of translation teaching and training. These include university-based degree courses, short-term vocational training or training provided by professional

Table 1.1 The categorisation of Translation Studies in China[a] (Luo and Mu 2010, p. 14)

Translation Studies in China	
General Translation Studies	Philosophy, Ontology, Epistemology, Methodology, Aesthetics, Ethics, Sociology, Linguistics, Anthropology, Psychology……
Applied Translation Studies	Translator Education, Translator Training, Translation Criticism, Translation Assessment……
Comparative Translation Studies	English–Chinese Translation, French–Chinese Translation, Russian–Chinese Translation, Japanese–Chinese Translation, German–Chinese Translation, Spanish–Chinese Translation……
Literary Translation	Novel Translation, Poetry Translation, Drama Translation, Prose Translation……
Specialised Translation	Technical Translation, Commercial Translation, Legal Translation, Tourism Translation, Medical Translation……
Interpreting	Consecutive Interpreting, Simultaneous Interpreting, Liaison Interpreting, Sign Language, Community Interpreting……
Translation Technology	Corpus-based Translation, Terminology, Computer-aided Translation, Machine Translation, Multimedia Translation……
Translation Management	Translation Policy, Translation Industry, Translation Project Management, Translation Conferences, Translation Process, Translation Evaluation……
Medio-Translatology[b]	Medio-Translatology in Literature, Medio-Translatology Methods, Medio-Translatology Pathways……
History of Translation	History of Translation Theory, History of Translation Practice, History of Classification in Translation Studies……

[a]This categorisation was originally written in Chinese. The author has translated the content into English

[b]Medio-translatology (译介学 *Yi Jie Xue*) is the first academic term created by Chinese scholars in the field of Comparative Literature in the last 30 years. This term was initially proposed by Professor Xie Tianzhen from Shanghai International Studies University, which has distinct characteristics in Chinese Comparative Literature Studies. Medio-translatology specialises its research on the significance of translation (served as a 'medium') in cross-cultural communications; and the application of cultural translation in Comparative Literature Studies. In 2015, Professor Wang Xiangyuan, from Beijing Normal University, updated the concept of *Yi Jie Xue* to *Yi Wen Xue*. He argues that translated literature (*Yi Wen*) is a specific text type in Comparative Literature Studies, which is also an important research objective in Translation Studies. The role of translation is more than 'medium'

associations. The major difference between these three types is that the former is integrated into a university system which also conducts research, so this type tends to include more theoretical content; however, the latter two types, established to teach vocational skills, are more practice-oriented. This book only covers the first type, namely translation programmes based only in universities but in different national contexts (the UK and China).

1.3.2.1 Translation Programmes in the UK

Translation Studies in the UK is a small, but fast growing subject area (Bassnett 2008). As noted by Munday (2012, p. 11), there were at least twenty postgraduate translation programmes in the UK in 2001, but as at 2011, the number has soared to 143 MA programmes containing the key word 'translation' (Munday 2012). The recent global trend of the rapid development of translation studies could be one possible explanation of this vast expansion. Moreover, the decision of the government to make languages non-compulsory at GCSE level in 2004 had an impact on language training in secondary and higher education. Thus, the decline of modern languages at school may have led to difficulty in recruiting students at undergraduate level. Furthermore, language departments at universities are expected to engage with the wider context: the rise of employability agenda. Policymakers, in this vein, have to think in what way students will find studying languages useful. All these considerations have eventually led to shifts to training translators and interpreters at postgraduate level (Krouglov 2012; Lee 2009).

The HE sector in the UK allows universities relative independence in what programmes are offered, and perceived market and employment needs may decide the focus of a particular programme (Zou 2014, pp. 63–64). Therefore, we see that unlike the rather 'fixed' continental traditions of translation programmes, translation courses in the UK are more autonomous; as a result, the organisation and emphasis of course aims and curriculum content varies greatly between different universities (Bassnett 2008; Niska 2010; Munday 2012). Such courses in the UK are mainly at postgraduate level and are generally short: one-year full-time study or two-year part-time study (Niska 2010).

The different features of translation programmes can be summarised as follows. Programmes entitled 'Translation Studies' or translation with interdisciplinary subjects such as literature, linguistics, and/or cultural studies are associated with the arts and cultural context, and are more theory-based. Some other programmes, entitled Translation/translating and/or Interpreting, focus on professional translator and interpreter training and are more practice-oriented in their curricula. Some provide translation courses relating to other disciplines, having multidisciplinary orientations, such as Business Interpreting and Scientific, Technical and Medical Translation with Translation Technology. Also, several universities have responded to the new directions of research areas in the field of Translation Studies, offering translation courses in media, such as Screen Translation, Audiovisual Translation Studies, or Translation, Interpreting and Subtitling.

The language combinations also vary from one university to another. English with other European languages was the dominant trend in the translation programmes in the UK. But in the past two decades, the emergence of China as a global economic superpower means that there is now a demand for graduate students both in and outside China who have the necessary knowledge to mediate and facilitate communications and cultures between China and the rest of the world. Concomitantly, many translation programmes have added English–Chinese Translation as another language combination. Some courses even specialise in English–Chinese translation. Furthermore, the UK is one of the most popular places for Chinese students to study overseas. For Chinese students' studying interests, business-related courses are the most popular programmes (48%) followed by logistics and engineering (17%). The third most popular subject is media and mass communication (13%). It is also worth mentioning that students choosing to study English and translation courses account for 6%, ranking fourth among all the subjects.[9] This growing tendency for Chinese students to study translation in the UK also boosts the development of English–Chinese translation courses in the UK.

The above examples show the various size, scope and emphasis of translation programmes in the UK. These different features and strengths also have a profound influence on the curriculum design of each course. More details and rationales will be explored in both Chapters 3 and 5.

1.3.2.2 Translator Education and Training in the Chinese Context

Translation teaching and training has a long history in China, but it was not until the last two to three decades that this expanded massively.

Historically, Tong Wen Guan (Tongwen Foreign Language School), which was established in 1862, can be regarded as the first modern school to train translators to work for the government in China. Later on, Tong Wen Guan merged with the Translation Department at Jing Shi Da Xue Tang (The Capital University, which was the predecessor of Peking University) in 1902. This newly merged department offered five foreign languages (English, Russian, French, German and Japanese), showing that foreign languages had become a specialty in Chinese universities. Translation was one of the teaching goals at that time, but was also used as a teaching method to help students learn foreign languages in order to read and translate foreign books and official documents (Xu 2005, p. 233).

With the intention of training military translators and diplomatic staff needed in the Anti-Japanese War (1937–1945), the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China and its Military Commission established Yan'an Foreign Language School in 1941. Both oral and written translations were major subjects at the school. Translation, at that time, was learned through practice without teaching theories and translation methods or techniques, and neither was textbooks provided. Between 1949 and 1978, although some foreign language institutes and departments incorporated courses related to translation, the timetables specify that translation was used mainly as an exercise to practise a foreign language (ibid., pp. 233–235).

It is clear that the grammar teaching method existed in China for a long time, and is similar to its British counterpart. Practical training is a starting point in China; while the meta-theory was given limited attention. Thus, translation theory developed behind the pace of translation practice (Li and Hu 2006). Furthermore, there was a clear link between the interest in translator training and political affiliations. Translators were generally required to serve the nation's political and diplomatic strategies.

After the 'Reform and Opening-up Policy' of the late 1970s, translator training witnessed a huge expansion in China, marking a new era. The plan issued by the MoE in 1979 made translation a required module of degree courses in foreign languages. Translation training in China then entered a formal phase. Beijing Foreign Studies University, on behalf of the Chinese government and the United Nations (UN), launched the UN Translator Training Centre (now Graduate School of Translation and Interpreting, GSTI) in 1979, which turned out 98 interpreters out of a total of 217 graduates (Wang and Mu 2009, p. 273).

Despite these moves, for the next 30 years, translation was still taught as a language skill in most of the universities in China.

The process of globalisation, the entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO), and China's continued economic growth and social development in the past 30 years have played a vital role in the process of China's translation market. For example, China's domestic economic reforms, that is, the devaluation of Ren Min Bi as well as the introduction of Foreign Direct Investments (FDI) set a solid foundation for rapid export growth, which, in turn, enabled the economy to absorb more FDI and maintain a stable and fair foreign exchange market (Yao 2006). This has strengthened international business engagement, as well as economic exchange and trade between China and the outside world, which have brought great demand for translation, in that translators act as communicators in the process of economic trade between China and the world. Meanwhile, the explosive growth also reflects the growing pressure on the part of the students to seek job opportunities after graduation. Universities in China increased their intake of new students dramatically at the beginning of the century in order to provide more young people with higher education. Wang (2012, p. 57) proposes that,

> Realising the gap between the societal and needs and what our higher education can offer, the education authorities in China are taking top-down measures to re-orienting postgraduate students in particular to meet market needs by creating more professional degree programmes.

The situation started to change in 2006. The MoE authorised three universities[10] to launch the BA/BTI degree, namely Bachelor of Translation and Interpreting. MTI was approved by the Commission of Academic Degrees of the State Council of China in 2007. This shows that Chinese professional translator and interpreter training has gradually separated from foreign language teaching (Zhong 2007).

Fifteen institutions were initially approved to offer MTI courses and recruit students in 2008 (Feng 2010, p. 47). The following three years after establishment saw the proliferation of MTI programmes all over the country. By 2011, there were 159 MTI programmes in total in universities. As of 2014, there are altogether 152 universities that offer BTI degrees, and 206 universities that offer MTI degrees. This figure still increased in the following three years.[11]

The fast growth of translation programmes in China in some way reflects the changing needs of the society. The frequent political exchanges and substantial cooperation in economics, trade, education, climate change and energy, science, technology and culture between China and the rest of the world means more demand for translation between Chinese and other languages (e.g. English/French/German) and other language services, and more opportunities for the pertinent language industry. And more challenges as well. One of the core questions of this book is whether it is necessary—and if so how—to incorporate those changing needs into the curricula of the university-based Chinese–English translation courses which will be discussed in the following chapters.

1.4 Case Study: The Selection of Translation Programmes in the Book

The research objectives of this book—the contributions of abstract knowledge and professional demands to the curricula of postgraduate translation programmes can be achieved with qualitative research methods. This method, as defined by Cooper and Schindler (2008), focuses on demonstrating how (process) and why (meaning) things occur. Employing as case studies six translation programmes at master's level in the UK and China, this book aims to clarify how translation programmes in these countries have responded to market forces in their process of curriculum design and development, and not just to describe the differences between them.

1.4.1 Method of the Book: Case Study

According to Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2011), qualitative research includes one or more of the following specific methods: ethnography, interview, ethno-drama, case study, discourse analysis, visual or audio-visual analysis, historical comparative method and narrative enquiry. Of these, case study is chosen as the dominant research method in this book to help the understanding of dynamic change within specific settings. The basic idea of this method is that one case, or a small number of cases, will be studied in detail, using appropriate methods. Although there may be a variety of specific purposes and research questions, the general objective of the case study is to develop 'as full an understanding of that case as possible' (Punch 1998, p. 150).

Stake (2000) has categorised three different types of case study: the intrinsic case study, the instrumental case study and the collective case study. In the intrinsic case study, no attempt is made to generalise beyond the single case or even to build theories. The instrumental case study is examined mainly to provide insight into an issue or to revise a generalisation. Despite the fact that the selected case is examined in depth, the main focus is on something else. The collective case study is used to investigate specific phenomena by studying a number of cases (ibid., cited in Silverman 2013). In this research, collective case studies are used in order to investigate the common phenomena—balancing theory and practice in curricula—faced by translation programmes in the UK and China through detailed analysis of a number of cases in both countries.

These six university-based translation programmes (three each in the UK and China) are representative. The study will explain and discuss their current status and also provide an in-depth analysis of their current curricula in terms of the relationship between abstract theory and market standards.

1.4.1.1 The Advantages and Disadvantages of a Case Study

A case study approach offers significant advantages but also has disadvantages. With regard to advantages, the case study is able to provide description and test theory (Eisenhardt 1989). The second merit of this method is that its rootedness in context adds practical value to the academic study and diverts abstract analysis of theory into specific investigations. Travers (2001) proposes that all theoretical qualitative research involves interpreting data using ideas and concepts from a body of theory. Furthermore, a case study triggers the rethinking of traditional theories and critical assessment of them.

However, the case study approach also faces the question of whether there is a tendency to confirm the researcher's preconceived notions (Flyvbjerg 2006). Reflexivity (Finlay 2002), associated with subjectivity and ideas of empathy (Marcus 1994), tends to result in informing the reader of what is going on in advance (Koch and Harrington 1998) and can cause the researchers to 'miss the wood for the trees' (Bate 1997, p. 1151). Preece (1994) states that qualitative research methods can be criticised for being unscientific, unrepresentative and open to bias. The use of case studies in explaining the curricula in these six programmes might cause issues of biased reflexivity or overwhelming self-consciousness. Nevertheless, this potential problem can be addressed to a certain degree by proper self-control of the researcher. Specifically, in the process of collecting, synthesising and analysing cases, the researcher needs to keep an unbiased opinion, must try not to be judgemental and should not exaggerate the impact of the cases.

The case study is also criticised for its lack of representativeness. One of the major scepticisms is whether the results of case study can be generalised to a broader population (ibid.; Bryman 2008; Patton and Appelbaum 2003), which is 'doubted not only because they are derived from only a few cases, but also because even where a large number is studied these are generally selected without observing the rigorous criteria of statistical sampling theory' (Gobo 2007, p. 193). Yin (2014, p. 21) points out, however, that,

> Case studies, like experiments, are generalizable to theoretical propositions and not to populations or universe. In this sense, the case study, like the experiment, does not represent a 'sample', and in doing case study research, your goal will be to expand and generalise theories (analytic generalizations) and not to extrapolate probabilities (statistical generalisations).

This means that our selection of cases is not based on statistical grounds but derived from a particular theory which we seek to test (Silverman 2013, p. 144). Throughout this research, global market forces have been demonstrated to have had an impact on the degree courses in the HE sector, which will then influence the course aims and module content. For this project, six translation programmes in both China and the UK are adopted to discuss the validity of the impact of market forces on the subject of translation in particular national contexts. We seek also to understand—within this tendency—how these translation courses have responded to market demands, and how they balance the relationship between academia and profession, and between theory and practice. Additionally, these six case studies are not chosen for representing the overall situation of a single country, but are used for analysing and investigating particular common phenomena.

1.4.1.2 A Complementary Tool: In-Depth Interviews[12]

As Yin proposes (2014, p. 110), conducting interviews is one of the most important sources of case study evidence, and interviews are commonly found in case study research. In this research, because the primary findings (e.g. the course information published online, course flyers or handbooks, or relevant research articles about the curriculum) are not sufficiently detailed, in-depth interviews were used as a complementary method to extract detailed evidence, arguments and observations from the interviewees in order to explain the relationship between theory and practice within the course aims and the core and optional modules in each translation programme.

Taking into consideration respondents' roles and responsibilities, interviews were held on a one-to-one basis with the selected translation programmes' course directors or teachers who have a thorough understanding of their curriculum. These interviewees who took part in this research were not considered to be private individuals, but rather public role holders. His or her role may need to be mentioned briefly, but they would not be divulging any personal information. The interviewees' names have been replaced by codes to ensure anonymity. The three interviewees from the UK universities are represented by GB Interviewee A to GB Interviewee C, while CH Interviewee A to CH Interviewee C represent the three Chinese interviewees. It must also be noted that students of these translation programmes were not considered as interviewees owing to the possible uncontrolled bias of personal views.

Each interview was semi-structured. The questions were asked primarily from two perspectives. The first part contains general issues in curriculum design, such as factors that determine the process of curriculum design and skills and capacities that the designers want the students to develop. Since the key questions of this research were how market forces exert impact on degree programmes in translation, and how these translation programmes balanced the contributions of theory and practice in the curriculum content in response to market forces, questions regarding how the translation programme engages with the professional world were also posed. The second part of the question set included detailed information of core or optional modules, especially practical translation-related modules. To be more precise, questions regarding the subject areas taught in translation-related modules, dissertation models, teaching methods and assessment formats were put forward during the interviews. In addition, as each university may have its own specific mission and vision towards its T&I course, questions targeting specific modules offered by each university were also raised.

1.4.2 The Selection of the Case Programmes in the UK and China

1.4.2.1 Cases in the UK

The following criteria were considered when selecting cases in the UK. Since this research only focuses on the Chinese and English languages, the first criterion was the number of recruited Chinese students. The second was whether 'training professional translators' is one of the programme's overall objectives. The third criterion for mature programmes was research reputation, staff research interests and taught modules, as well as graduate destinations; for new programmes, a criterion was whether they include the most recent research and professional needs in the field of translation. Since T&I require different sets of skills, it is important that the discussion about translation is kept relatively separate from that of interpreting. Therefore, pure interpreting programmes were not selected. In line with these considerations, three British universities were chosen as UK representatives, hereafter referred to as GB Case 1 to GB Case 3 to ensure anonymity and consistency.

The T&I programme at GB Case 1 was established in 1997, which is one of the earliest translator education and training institutions in the UK. This programme consists of two stages of study over 24 months. In Stage 1 all students take the same compulsory modules, such as translating, simultaneous interpreting, consecutive interpreting, sight translation, information technology for translators and interpreters, and translation studies. Upon successful completion of this stage, they will take one of the four Stage 2 pathways (e.g. translating, interpreting, translating and interpreting, or translation studies) according to their academic results and their personal preferences. In Stage 2 the students specialise in interpreting or translation. Direct entry to this stage is possible if applicants meet the Stage 2 entry requirements. As GB Case 1 has a well-established translation programme and also because of its unique attractions for Chinese students, its T&I pathway was chosen as one of the research objectives in this book.

GB Case 2 has one of the leading research groups in translation studies in the UK. Its publications constitute standard references in the field. To discover how a research renowned programme can turn out professional translators and in what ways was a main reason for its selection. In addition, unlike the T&I programme at GB Case 1, in which English–Chinese is an independent strand, in GB Case 2, students of different language pairs belong to the same mixed group. Specific language tutors provide guidance in terms of language specific tasks and practice which also aroused the author's attention.

The translation programme in GB Case 3 is a brand new programme which started in 2010. It will be interesting to find out whether this newly established programme includes many recent research trends and professional needs in the field of translation. GB Case 3 is an old and well-established university in the UK, but not a Russell Group member. In theory, Russell Group universities are research-intensive, and are supposed to be more research-based in terms of curriculum content. However, the fact is that the translation programme at GB Case 3 contains a certain amount of theoretical content, and less professional and practical content compared with the other two. The deep reasons for designing its translation programme in this way may be the lack of professional engagement. It is relatively easier to teach theories and knowledge across languages than to establish specific and targeted professional engagements outside academia in that the latter requires money, reputation and resources to secure the process. Thus, it is worth exploring more detailed information on how this translation programme has developed and why.

1.4.2.2 Cases in China

One rationale for choosing the three Chinese cases (henceforth CH Case 1 to CH Case 3) was geographical and economic factors. To be more precise, eastern and southern coastal cities in China have a higher level of economic development, while the inland western cities are less economically developed. The different levels of economic development in China have a profound influence on the allocation of education resources, which will then influence the design and development of pertinent degree courses. The MTI courses in this study are no exception. In addition, many Chinese universities have their specialities and strongest disciplines; such as comprehensive universities covering almost every subject, universities of finance and economics might have their foci on economy-based subjects, while universities of foreign languages may have strongest subjects in literature, linguistics or translation studies. Considering all these factors, we chose CH Case 1 (a comprehensive university) from the north and the capital Beijing, CH Case 2 (a foreign languages university) from the south and CH Case 3 (a teacher's university) from inland.

CH Case 1, located in the Chinese capital Beijing, is one of the most renowned universities in China. Its MTI programme is one of the first 15 institutions approved by the official body. The development of the MTI programme at CH Case 1 may also reflect social, economic and regional needs in the northern part of China. Furthermore, CH Case 1 has been the pioneer in adjusting its course aims from training translators to the cultivation of language administrators. It is thus important to establish how this degree programme fits the changing market demands.

Similarly to CH Case 1, the MTI programme at CH Case 2 also belongs in the first batch of the whole system. Situated in one of the most developed economic areas in China, CH Case 2 is a university famous for its foreign languages, international business and translation studies. In addition, a group of staff members working in CH Case 2 have been appointed as founding members of national committee for MTI education. In other words, the curriculum development of this programme may be regarded as an indication of future directions in some sense.

CH Case 3 is a teacher's university, which is an important classification in the HE system in China. The MTI programme at CH Case 3 belongs to the second batch, which was approved in 2008. Choosing this programme as a third case in China may be beneficial to the author to find out more divergent features of different MTI programmes. CH Case 3 is located in central and western China. Its translation programme could also be regarded as an example of the orientation and social needs in these areas.

1.5 Summary

This chapter initially discussed the traditional and current roles of universities worldwide, with a particular focus on the influences of neoliberalism. It then dealt with how Translation Studies is recognised as an academic subject in the West and China, and how its applied branch—translator education—has developed in both countries. Moreover, the author described the approach used in this study to set the scene for the detailed analysis in the following chapters.

Notes

1. According to Manteaw (2008, p. 121), neoliberalism refers to 'a blend of corporate managerial styles and government technologies of institutional management'.
2. This chapter only introduces the effects of neoliberalism on universities in general, and uses the UK and China as examples. Chapter 5 recaps the influences of the neo-liberal principles, with a particular focus on the British and Chinese settings.
3. Some of the information and examples provided for the UK HE-business partnerships (in this chapter and Chapter 5) are summarised from a public lecture on 'University of Nottingham and China Business Links' (Rudd 2013) delivered by the Pro-Vice Chancellor Professor Chris Rudd to the Chevening Young Leaders Programme in July 2013, in which the author worked as the programme assistant. This public lecture describes sustainable partnerships between the HE sector and the private sector in general, and also provides listeners with striking examples of good practice taken by the University of Nottingham. As the University of Nottingham is one of the prestigious Russell Group universities and has been the pioneer in delivering bilateral relationships between the HE and business/industry, the information generated from this lecture merits careful consideration.
4. For example, according to Greenaway and Rudd (2014, p. 2), through the HE-Business partnerships, higher education institutions 'benefit from brand association which boosts recruitment and can be a useful lever in drawing down competitive public funding. Smaller companies, especially those in the sci-tech domain, have arguably greater need of the facilities and services but fewer resources available to invest in developing relationships and long term projects'.
5. Under the former governing model, the MoE was responsibility for every single step in the process of designing and delivering degree programmes, including curriculum design, student admission, graduate job assignment, budget management, salary scales control, and personnel issues (Mok 1996).
6. This information was acquired from a public lecture delivered by the managing director of AST Language Services Ltd to the taught master students in translation at the University of Nottingham (AST 2013).
7. Common Sense Advisory Official Website: http://www.commonsenseadvisory.com/.
8. Thanks to James S. Holmes, in the English-speaking world, the discipline of translation is now generally recognised as 'Translation Studies' (Munday 2012, p. 10).
9. These statistics are acquired from Li (2013), who worked at a prestigious education group in Beijing, China. This company provides students with

detailed information about every step of studying overseas. The statistics are only used for research purposes.

10. The first three universities to offer BTI courses were: Fudan University, Hebei Normal University and Guangdong University of Foreign Studies.
11. The full list of numbers and universities that offer BTI and MTI can be accessed from the official website of China National Committee for Translation and Interpreting Education: http://cnti.gdufs.edu.cn/.
12. In-depth interview is not the dominant method in this book. Rather, interviews with the six interviewees are only tools to help further identify the cases. In addition, considering confidentiality, the six interview transcripts are not attached in the appendix, but a list of interviewees is provided according to the time and place of the interviews. Please contact the author directly if detailed information is required.

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CHAPTER 2

Teaching Translation in the UK and China

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a conceptualisation of curriculum design and approaches to translation teaching. More specifically, this chapter initially introduces fundamental issues in designing a curriculum, making constant reference to how these issues link to the field of Translation Studies. An outcome-based curriculum model to develop translators' competences is then critically reviewed. This chapter, from a content-based viewpoint, also discusses different approaches to translation teaching. Further, this chapter also reviews the research on translation teaching in the Chinese context. Last but not least, the needs of the translation industry needs from the European Union (EU), the UK and China are outlined in this chapter in order to provide translation programmes with resourceful data from the market when designing or optimising their curricula.

2.2 The Foundations and Principles of Curriculum Design

Despite a number of books and articles having been published on curriculum design in general (Beauchamp 1975; Nunan 1988, 2011; Richards and Rogers 2001; Ornstein and Hunkins 2009) and on curriculum and pedagogical issues for translation programmes (Kiraly 1995; Hatim and Mason 1997; Kiraly 2000; González Davies 2004; Kelly 2005; Kearns

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2008; Sawyer 2011; Orlando 2011; Li 2012), there is still ample space for further exploration in these areas. This section begins with a review of the general definitions of curriculum, and will then discuss several factors that influence the curriculum design as a whole, and specifically in the subject of translation. Furthermore, two general curriculum models and Kelly's comprehensive model of translation course design will be examined. Finally, this section comments on an outcome-based curriculum model in Translation Studies which focuses on what competences students could acquire from a translation degree course.

2.2.1 Definitions of Curriculum

According to Beauchamp (1975, p. 58), a curriculum theory in general 'is a set of related statements that gives meaning to a school's curriculum by pointing up the relationships among its elements and by directing its development, its use and its evaluation'. Beauchamp's definition discussed the relationships between curriculum components and the need to recognise these relationships in the development, use and evaluation of the curriculum as a whole (Sawyer 2011, p. 39). The relationship between these components is closely related to the diverse levels in different curriculum models. Making this relationship more explicit may better determine the learning goals and set up the proper sequencing when designing a course.

Moreover, Ornstein and Hunkins (2009, pp. 10–11) identify five fundamental definitions of curriculum, trying to work out how we can understand the curriculum, the purpose of designing a curriculum, and how such curriculum affects students and teachers. Firstly, curriculum can be defined as a *plan* to achieve certain goals. This plan involves four steps, including defining purposes, designing materials, implementing the curriculum content and assessing the effectiveness of the curriculum. Secondly, from a broader perspective, curriculum can be defined as coping with the learners' experiences. In line with this point, 'almost anything planned in or outside of school is part of the curriculum' (ibid., p. 10). Thirdly, curriculum can be defined as a system—linear or non-linear—to deal with people. A large number of curriculum designers who are in the position of education management adopt this definition. According to a fourth definition, curriculum is an academic field having its own foundations, knowledge domains, research theory, principles and specialists. This definition usually discusses curriculum from a theoretical perspective rather than practical terms. Lastly, curriculum also relates to subject matter (e.g. maths, business, English and translation) or teaching content: the way we organise and integrate relevant information.

In addition, Nation and Macalister (2010) depict the curriculum design as the writing process, which includes the subprocesses such as gathering ideas, ordering ideas, ideas to text, reviewing and editing (p. 1). Furthermore, Newble and Cannon (1989, pp. 70–71) claim that,

> The key to curriculum planning is to forge educationally sound and logical links between planned intentions (expressed as objectives), course content, teaching and learning methods and the assessment of student learning while taking account of student characteristics.

However, many courses fail to design clear intentions, for example 'teaching which has a tenuous relationship to these intentions and employs methods of assessment which bear little or no relationship to either' (1989, p. 71). This method might be risky in some cases, which places students' academic future in an unstable situation. In order to improve this scenario, an approach aligning the intended learning outcome with module content and assessment tasks (Biggs and Tang 2011; Kelly 2005) might be considered.

2.2.2 Factors Influencing Curriculum Design

As Nation and Macalister (2010) suggest, the full cycle of designing a curriculum comprises seven factors, namely, (1) environment analysis, (2) needs analysis, (3) principles, (4) goals, (5) content and sequencing, (6) format and presentation, (7) monitoring and assessment, and evaluation. Of these, factors (1), (2) and (3) are associated with outer consideration which may have a major impact on the guidance of the actual process of course production. Factors (4), (5), (6) and (7) are components included in a course (Macalister and Nation 2011). Specifically, *environment analysis* covers profiles of learners and teachers, as well as the teaching and learning situation both of which could have a strong influence on the course. *Needs analysis* incorporates what needs to be learned and what the students want to learn. *Principles* are related to the motivational strategies in the classroom. *Goals, content and sequencing* mainly refer to 'a list of the items to teach in the order in which they will be taught' (ibid., p. 70). *Format and presentation* deals with the teaching methods and the design of the lesson plans. *Monitor and assessment* provides teachers with the guidelines for testing. *Evaluation* is the quality assurance of learning. Out of these seven aspects this research primarily discusses *environment analysis, needs analysis, and aims and goals*, in that they are the most relevant factors under consideration when analysing the curricula in translation programmes in the following chapters of the book.

2.2.2.1 Environment Analysis

Environment analysis encompasses researching the factors that will have a profound influence on decisions about the goals of the course, the course components, the teaching methods and how to assess the course (Nation and Macalister 2010, p. 14). These factors can arise from the learners, the teachers and other teaching and learning situations (e.g. adequate resources, institutional or government policies). Environment analysis is also called 'situation analysis' or 'constraint analysis' (Richards 2001). However, it is worth mentioning that in some models of curriculum design, environment analysis is included in needs analysis (Nation and Macalister 2010, p. 14). During the process of curriculum design, environment analysis is of vital importance because it is the most fundamental factor in determining whether the course will be effective or not. On the whole, there are three factors that need to be considered in terms of environment analysis: learners, teachers and situation (see Fig. 2.1).

In terms of learners, the following four questions (at least) ought to be considered while designing the curriculum: (1) what do they know? (2) do they need this course or a special purpose course? (3) do they have preferred ways of learning? (ibid., pp. 16–17); (4) how homogenous a group do you expect to find on your course? (Kelly 2005, p. 51). These questions will affect curriculum design, and taking translation courses as an example, in answering these questions, it is important for teachers to identify whether the learners have some prior knowledge (experience) in translation, whether the learners show interest in learning translation or learning interpreting, and whether they need to learn translation theory or need only to acquire practical skills. Moreover, in the field of translation, language pairs of students may also affect the course design. In many translation programmes in the UK (e.g. GB Case 2 and GB Case 3), it is common to find student groups comprising different nationalities (e.g. British, Chinese, French, German, Russian) in university classrooms, and these students may have different learning

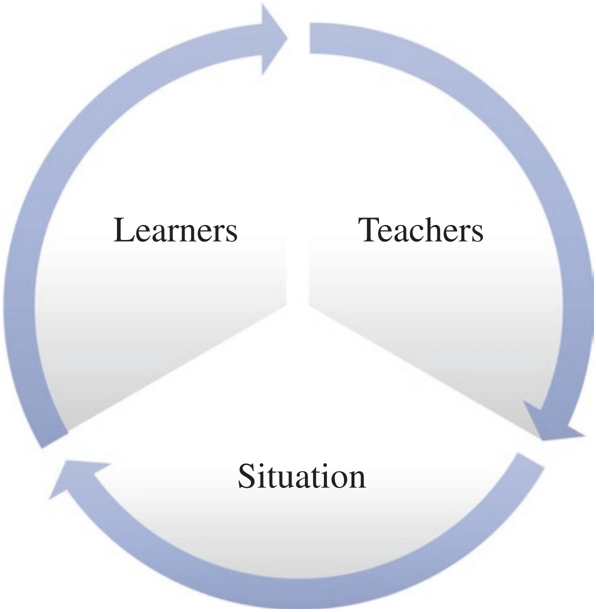

Fig. 2.1 Factors included in environment analysis (Nation and Macalister 2010, p. 14)

styles and expectations. 'Taking all students into account in both course planning and implementation is a basic premise for quality teaching and learning' (Tsokaktsidou 2005, cited in Kelly 2005, p. 52).

As regards the teachers, there are three key questions that need to be considered both in general and in the specific field of translation: (1) are they trained? (2) do they have time for preparation and marking? (Nation and Macalister 2010); (3) are they leading research academics, or professional translators in the field of translation and interpreting (Kelly 2005), or are they both practitioners and university lecturers? To answer the first question, it is important to make sure the teachers can prepare some of their own material, manage group work and individualised learning and provide ready-made activities (Nation and Macalister 2010, p. 17). Reflecting on the second question in curriculum design for a translation-related module, it can be summarised that the teacher should provide translation source texts together with acceptable and standard target texts in advance, and also provide a complete set of course materials. Thirdly, university full-time lecturers are also expected to be involved in research (Kelly 2005). In the environment of research-led teaching (e.g. the HE sector in the UK), staff members' research interests and outputs may have an impact on the course design and on the teaching content. Moreover, if some university lecturers are also professional translators, they may consider how to familiarise their students with the professional world, and how to assimilate the requests of the industry into the university-based curriculum.

When it comes to the factor of situation, the following four questions are to be addressed: (1) is there a suitable classroom? (2) is there enough time? (3) are there enough resources? (4) is it worth developing the course? To contextualise this within the field of translation, computers equipped with up-to-date Computer Assisted Translation (CAT) tools for translation courses and a qualified dubbing booth for interpreting courses are essential for learners to learn translation or interpreting in a real-world environment. In addition, considering the question related to resources, it should be noted that teachers may need to prepare and use both teacher-focused material and supplementary self-study materials. To provide individualised material is also important as students' levels and interests can vary widely.

Sometimes, it is necessary to consider wider aspects of the situation when carrying out an environment analysis. This may include institutional or government policies when deciding relevant curricula (Liu et al. 2004). This can be supported and illustrated by the Chinese MTI Programme. According to the China National Committee for MTI Education, there exists an official curriculum for this MTI Programme, which sets up the premise and standard for each specific university-based programme. Curricula will vary widely based on each different institution's context, but this official curriculum does serve as a general guideline for each institution. To sum up, environment analysis involves looking at the local and wider situation to make sure that the programme or course will both fit and meet social and market requirements (Nation and Macalister 2010, p. 21).

2.2.2.2 Needs Analysis

According to McCawley (2009, p. 3), 'a needs assessment is a systematic approach to studying the state of knowledge, ability or attitude of a defined audience or group involving a particular subject'. The concept of needs analysis is commonly found in the business sector, in particular, marketing activities. In other words, the normal way in which business people sell their products to customers is to make sure they meet their consumers' demands before making concrete decisions (Jeong 2005). In fact, this concept can also be applied to the field of languages, or more precisely, in the process of curriculum design in translation programmes at HEIs.

> Needs analysis is directed mainly at the goals and content of a course. It examines what the learners know already and what they need to know. Needs analysis makes sure that the course will contain relevant and useful things to learn. Good needs analysis involves asking the right questions and finding the answers in the most effective way. (Nation and Macalister 2010, p. 24)

As Nunan (2011) points out, at the beginning of the curriculum planning process, course designers might design a needs assessment instrument for collecting data (p. 139). Burnaby also clearly states that 'the curriculum content and learning experience to take place in class should be negotiated between learners, teacher, and coordinator at the beginning of the project and renegotiated regularly during the project' (1989, p. 20).

On the basis of the above fundamental issues, an empirical study conducted by Li (2003) on the learning needs of translation (English–Chinese) students at the Chinese University of Hong Kong are complementary to the current theory. The questions in Li's study centre on several major aspects of translation teaching, including students' reasons for studying translation, their attitudes towards becoming translators and/or interpreters, language teaching in translator training, theory-oriented courses versus practice-oriented courses, market needs in translation teaching, and measures to improve translator training (Li 2003, cited in Li 2012, p. 112). Students have their own perceptions of the above aspects. For example, regarding students' major reasons for choosing to study in a department of translation, the notion of becoming translators and/or interpreters, which was presumed to be quite important, was not actually observed to be the most important reason. Instead, most of the students are interested in Chinese and English, and simply want to enhance their language competence (ibid.). Moreover, as revealed in Li's study (2003, 2012), many students believe their translation course does not reflect the market needs very well. In this vein, suggestions such as offering more practical modules might be adopted in designing the curriculum for their successors in order to improve the programme.

Li's survey provides a template to be used if translation programmes from other parts of the world were to conduct similar research projects. The findings of the above examples have shown that student needs analysis is vital in translation curriculum planning and development. Although we cannot avoid a few biased opinions from students, taking students' needs into account benefits the process in many ways. One of the most tangible benefits is that this may provide new scope to help course designers see things that otherwise would have been missed and incorrectly assumed (Li 2003, 2012). In addition, by devising a survey to investigate students' needs more closely, the curriculum developers may obtain invaluable information either to support mirroring their previous arrangements, or to renew the current programme more rationally. Participants of an education programme could be students, teachers, a department and the university. Notwithstanding the fact that all of the parties' views need to be coordinated to run a successful programme, the students' needs should be given priority (Jeong 2005) as they are the actual receivers of training and the ultimate goal of any education programme.

2.2.2.3 Aims, Goals and Teaching Objectives

Aims are starting points that suggest an ideal or inspirational vision of the good. According to Ornstein and Hunkins' understanding,

> aims are general statements that provide both shape and direction to the more specific actions designed to achieve some future product or behaviours. They reflect value judgements and value-laden statements, and they furnish educators with guides for the educational process. (1998, p. 269)

The aims of instruction will be affected by diverse educational philosophies. Philosophy, as the beginning point in curriculum decision-making (Goodlad 1979), provides curriculum workers with guidelines for organising schools and classrooms. For example, which subjects have value, what schools are for, how students learn or even which textbooks to use, and how to use them (Ornstein and Hunkins 2009, p. 32).

According to Sawyer (2011, pp. 55–56), goals are often situated at programme level and are equivalent to the outcomes of the curriculum. Ornstein and Hunkins identify goals as the 'desired outcomes for students as a result of experiencing the curriculum' (1998, p. 272).

Goals per se, can be identified as guidelines for the design and implementation of the programme. With application to a translation programme, goals can be defined as the activities, competences, attitudes, knowledge and abilities which can enable graduates to accomplish complicated translation tasks independently and responsibly through the initial process of problem solving, and then through analysing their own approach to task solutions (Sawyer 2011).

In contrast to aims and goals, teaching objectives are more specific (Sawyer 2011, p. 58). Goals are connected with the programme, whereas teaching objectives describe an individual module at the micro-level. That is to say, how to design a module will depend on the level and cognition of the module convenor (Kelly 2005, p. 21). In Kelly's view (2005, p. 22), the following seven parameters can be summarised to describe the ingredients in influencing intended teaching objectives, especially in the field of translation, namely; social needs, professional standards, industry's needs and views, institutional policy, institutional constraints, disciplinary considerations, and student/trainee profiles.

More specifically, the social role is often closely linked to the local or regional economy. For example, after China entered the WTO in 2001, the need for English–Chinese business negotiation translators or other documentary translators became prevalent. Expanding the scale of translation-related courses for foreign language learners has been appraised by a considerable number of higher educational institutions. One example of professional standards is the *National Occupational Standards in Translation* in the UK. In terms of industry's needs and views, the requirements of a more marketing-based company versus those of a more technically-based company might differ as regards translators' work. Technical translation emphasises accuracy, while marketing-related translation stresses creative or culturally bounded translation work. Regarding institutional constraints, for example, universities in a system with a strongly academic tradition might not formulate their overall aims to be the training of professional translators.

All in all, aims, goals and objectives provide guiding principles for curriculum design which are grounded in the educational philosophies, values and belief systems of the educational participants. The variance between these three levels can aid in gaining greater clarity about how the curriculum functions, how its individual components relate to one another, and how goals can be reached. In addition, factors such as economy and industry may also affect the design of the curriculum.

2.2.3 *Factors Influencing Curriculum Design: Translation Courses*

With regard to curriculum design in Translation Studies, Kelly (2005), similar to Nation and Macalister, has also summarised ten essential steps targeting translator trainers in the planning of their teaching, aiming to provide them with a systematic approach to curricular and syllabus design. All these steps interlink (see Fig. 2.2).

As viewed in Fig. 2.2, Kelly regards 'identify social needs' as the very first step to designing a translation course, which deals with the outcomes of the training process. Designing intended learning outcomes should be the following step. There are three levels of learning outcomes: the institutional level, which deals with what the students of the university are expected to be able to do after graduation; the degree level which argues what the graduates of specific degree courses should be able to do; and the course level, indicating what students should be able to do at the completion of a given course (Biggs and Tang 2011, p. 113). These are fundamental issues when considering the course design, providing guidelines for the module content, course materials and the teaching method. Trainer profile (staff expertise) is crucial in designing a course, at least as shown in the field of Translation Studies (see more in Chapter 5).

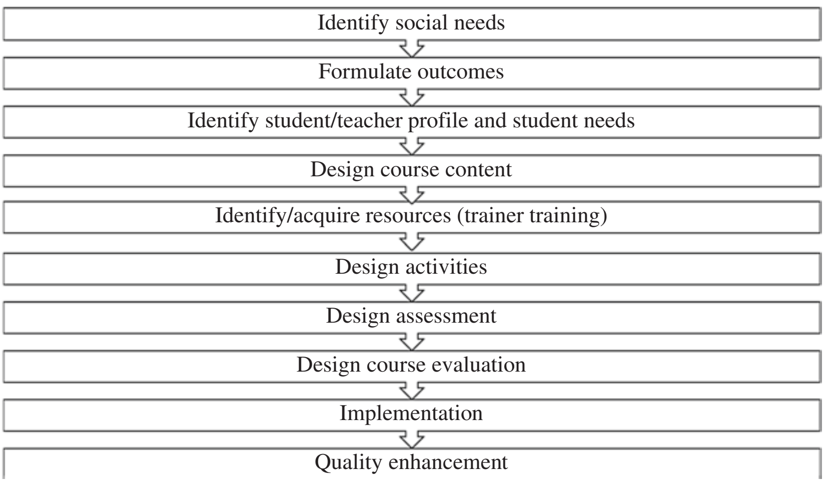

Fig. 2.2 Kelly's model of curriculum design in translation (Kelly 2005)

Staff expertise has a strong influence on the offering of relevant modules (e.g. 'professional issues for translators' etc.). This is a rather thorny issue, but it is a fact that many programmes cannot offer certain modules simply because they are short of staff members. As regards course content design, both disciplinary content and market demands are recommended to be considered (Kelly 2005). Resources, including both physical environment (e.g. classrooms, computer-based learning resources) and potential work placement opportunities are considered by Kelly as the next design step in her model. After establishing the available learning resources for a translation programme, types of teaching and learning activities are factors which need to be considered by course designers. These activities are associated with specific modules. Translator trainers are expected to identify different kinds of teaching and learning activity and to decide the sequencing of learning, namely which activities are most suitable for each stage. Of course all inside and outside classroom activities need to be aligned with module aims and learning outcomes. In any teaching and learning process, assessment should be regarded as an important component. This includes a host of factors such as 'who' (teacher, examiner, professional experts, or peer assessment), 'when' (during the learning process or at the end of the process), 'what' (formative assessment, summative assessment or translation portfolio), and 'how' (assessment norms and criteria). Last but not least, programme evaluation is executed by most HE institutions in order to govern the teaching and learning process as a whole. Normally, the curriculum (its aims, content and development), marking criteria and procedures of assessment of each module, students' performance, as well as teaching and learning methods are reviewed by delegated external examiners in order to quality assure the programme and to find out where improvements can be made.

Similar to the curriculum design model proposed by Nation and Macalister in the previous section, Kelly's curriculum design model is also a systematic approach to curricular and syllabus design, but with particular focus on translation courses. Her model covers both the structure and details of the curriculum design process, and considers all the stakeholders' (policymakers, teachers, students, examiners and professional experts) roles and responsibilities involved in such a process. This book, including all the case programmes in both China and the UK, places more emphasis on the outer circle of the curriculum, leaving specific module content and pertinent teaching activities to future research.

2.2.4 Outcome-Based Curriculum: Developing Translation Competences

'Competence-based training (CBT) is a logical continuation of objectives based on learning' (Hurtado Albir 2007, p. 165). Within this model, competences become the main measure for developing guidelines in curriculum design. In other words, both learning objectives and discipline-related contents are defined in accordance with competences. Moreover, competences can also serve as a yardstick to assess the teaching units and learning activities.

The term 'translation competence' came into being in the mid-80s and has developed since the 1990s. Many scholars (Nord 1991; Gile 1995; Hurtado Albir 2007; Anderman and Rogers 2000; Göpferich 2013) have discussed and evaluated the concept, components and hierarchy of translation competences. Despite the fact that these translation scholars may use different words for defining their translation competence models, they still share a similar goal: to describe what skills are included in the translation competence model with the aim of applying these skills into translation teaching and curriculum development (Tomozeiu and Kumpulainen 2016).

Of all these translation competence models, one of the most comprehensive and recognised models is the PACTE group's model proposed and modified from 2000 to 2011. Furthermore, Kelly (2005, p. 73–78) developed a full cycle of translator training in terms of translation competences (see Table 2.1). In the following paragraphs, these two models are particularly introduced.

The PACTE group (Process of Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation) at the Universitat Autonoma de Barcelona

Table 2.1 Two models of 'Translation Competence'

PACTE (2000–2008)	*Kelly (2005)*
Bilingual subcompetence	Communicative and textual competence
Extra-linguistic subcompetence	Subject area competence
Extra-linguistic subcompetence	Cultural and intercultural competence
Knowledge-about-translation subcompetence; Instrumental subcompetence	Professional and instrumental competence
Strategic subcompetence	Strategic competence
Psycho-physiological components	Psycho-physiological and attitudinal competence
N/A	Interpersonal competence

in Spain has designed a well thought-out model of translation competence and undertaken minor revisions to it on a regular basis. In PACTE's model, translation competence consists of six competences (see Table 2.2). In brief, the six competences are bilingual, extra-linguistic, knowledge-about-translation, instrumental, strategic and psycho-physiological competences. Bilingual competence, for example, includes 'predominantly procedural knowledge required to communicate in two languages, which comprises pragmatic, sociolinguistic, textual, grammatical and lexical knowledge' (PACTE 2011, p. 4). Extra-linguistic competence refers to general world knowledge, subject area knowledge, bicultural and encyclopaedic knowledge (2003, 2011). Knowledge—about-translation introduces basic knowledge and practices that are involved in the translating process, such as translation units, problems and methods. Instrumental competence includes translation technology, tools and electronic resources used in the translating process. Strategic competence mainly deals with translation efficiency and problem-solving skills. Psycho-physiological competence incorporates a host of cognitive and attitudinal components and psycho-motor mechanisms (PACTE 2011). In a word, the data in this model has been generated on the basis of empirical experiments with both translation experts and non-experts

Table 2.2 Six semi-specialised areas required in the DipTrans exam (DipTrans Handbook 2011, p. 20)

Semi-specialised areas	*Detailed subjects*
A: Technology	Agriculture, Architecture, Engineering, Environment, Information technology, Life sciences, Medicine, Pharmaceutics/Pharmacology, Plastics and polymers, Telecommunications, Textile technology, Transport
B: Business	Accounting, Banking, Commerce, Economics, Export and import trade, Finance, Insurance, Marketing, Management
C: Literature	Film, Drama, Film scripts
D: Science	Agriculture, Astronomy, Biochemistry, Biological sciences, Chemistry, Earth sciences, Environment, Life sciences, Mathematics, Medicine, Pharmaceutics, Pharmacology, Physics
E: Social Science	Anthropology, Development studies, Economics, Education, Environment, History, Philosophy, Political science, Psychology, Public administration, Religion, Sociology
F: Law	Case Studies, Civil law, Commercial law, Criminal law, Court reports, Family law, Law reports, Legal journal articles, International Law

(foreign language teachers with no experience or training in translation). This is partly the reason why this model is exceptional (Tomozeiu and Kumpulainen 2016, p. 279).

Kelly (2005, pp. 72–78), on the basis of all the previous research, has proposed a more detailed cycle of translation competences. These are language competence, cultural competence, instrumental competence, professionalisation, interpersonal competence, subject area competence, attitudinal competence and unitisation/networking. Of these eight elements, interpersonal competence has received limited attention in the past. To be more precise, language competence in Kelly's model means that language skills that particularly relate to a translator—like textual knowledge—may be centred on. Additionally, it may be constructive if policymakers consider students' language combinations, especially for those cohorts who have students with a range of different language pairs. Interpersonal competence, on the surface, may involve communications among people. In modern society, communication and exchanges between enterprises and powers are more frequent than ever before because of the rapid process of globalisation. This is also true with reference to the translation industry, or more precisely, the translation and localisation industry. According to Esselink (2000, p. 74), a translation project team involves a project manager, a localisation engineer, language managers, translators and others. That is to say, everyone involved in this process needs to interact and collaborate with each other, as tasks are team-based rather than individual work. As Kelly points out, 'introducing teamwork and collective responsibility will help recent graduates in translation to the world of work' (2005, p. 76).

If applying the above translation competences to formulate an open and integrated curriculum, the learning or teaching objective here can be defined as the,

> involvement of teachers and students when it comes to taking decisions, to include the different axes of the educational process and to plan objectives and contents so that they are coherent with the decisions taken concerning methodology and assessment. (Hurtado Albir 2007, p. 174)

There are four categories of teaching and learning objectives which are specifically related to translation: methodological, contrastive, professional-instrumental, and textual (Hurtado Albir 1996, 1999). Each of these objectives is associated with different translation competences, but they are still interrelated as a whole. From a detailed viewpoint, methodological objectives are linked with translation processes and translation strategies. Contrastive objectives are related to the interaction between the two languages. In other words, these objectives are explored to find the fundamental differences between the source language and the target language and how to switch between them in a translation process. Professional-instrumental objectives cover the acquisition of professionalism, understanding of the job market, knowing how to make use of documentary sources and more. Lastly, textual objectives are related to solving specific translation problems on the basis of different text types. The objectives also incorporate the ability to find solutions to the texts with various different users in each specialised area (Hurtado Albir 2007, p. 174).

However, Hurtado's proposal on learning objectives does not include interpersonal competence for a translator, but is stressed by Kelly (2005) in her work. At the present time, a translator is no longer sitting alone at home surrounded by books to complete his/her tasks; instead, translation is progressively becoming a team activity. Interpersonal competence for now is especially important. The translator will be required to work in an interdisciplinary team, to communicate with experts in other fields, to get used to the diversity of other cultures, and so on and so forth. As such, bringing the interpersonal competence into the process of designing a curriculum for translation programmes has become an essential factor.

The above teaching/learning objectives vary tremendously according to the level, directionality and area of specialisation which will naturally be exemplified in different stages of the curriculum. The emphasis of each stage is also distinct, for example, the goals for beginner-level translation learners might centre on language proficiency and basic translation skills, whereas advanced level translation students may be required to carry out translation tasks in a real-world or simulated workplace.

2.3 Content-Based Curriculum: Major Approaches to Teaching Translation

Many scholars have suggested approaches to teaching translation, for example, Delisle's (1993) teaching objective approach in the early days, Nord's (1991) professional-based learner-centred approach, Gile's (1995) process-centred approach, Kiraly's (1995, 2000) cognitive and socio-constructivist approaches, as well as project-based learning (PBL) approach in the digital age (Kiraly 2000, 2005; Li et al. 2015; González and Díaz 2015). The following paragraphs will discuss these approaches in detail.

Nord, one of the representatives of the functionalist theory, has put forward a complete model for translator training, which focuses on the simulation of professional practice in translator training. Nord's publications (1991, 1997, 2005) propose detailed considerations and very practical advice on curricular design, selecting teaching materials, text progression, class activities, student motivation and assessment, among others. It is necessary to point out that Nord's approach,

> Emphasises the gradual nature of the acquisition of translator competence, and the need for considerable teacher intervention, particularly at the early stages, to ensure that tasks are not only realistic, but also feasible and hence not de-motivating. (Kelly 2005, p. 13)

Gile (1995, p. 10) assumes that adopting a process-oriented approach optimising translator training is at least desirable during the first part of translation training. This process-oriented approach centres on 'principles, methods and procedures rather than on the translation product'. It can be assumed to be a more potent teaching method during the initial part of training, but should be completed by more result-oriented correction for improvement (Gile 1995, p. 19). The idea of the process-oriented approach 'focuses on the classroom not on results, that is, not on the end product of the translation process, but on the process itself' (Gile 1995, p. 10). With this purpose, he also proposes a series of models and basic concepts, including communication, quality and fidelity in translation and interpreting, comprehension and ad hoc knowledge acquisition, among others.

The cognitive theory regarding general tendency to trainees started in the 1970s. In the mid-80s an empirical approach was applied to the study of translation on the basis of cognitive science which became prevalent in the nineties. Kiraly, one of its major authors, advocates 'a systematic elaboration of the issues underlying a descriptive translation pedagogy, a pedagogy based on the accurate theoretical description of translation practice' (1995, p. 3). He also realises that 'it cannot be expected that language instructors without professional translation experience will have a professional translator self-concept themselves or that they will be able to help their translation students develop one' (ibid.). This means an awareness of the need for fostering professional expertise in translator training. By understanding his definition of 'self-concept', it can be assumed that the development of this attentiveness to the translator's role becomes a core part of training. The professional translators' 'self-concept' is in fact based on theoretical concept. More specifically, in the translating process, translators may consciously think how to produce specific words, expressions or sentence structures in the target language. They have, in fact, formulated their own theoretical systems in mind when translating texts.

Kiraly (1995, pp. 110–112) also put forward six principles, which are derived from the findings of several case studies, discussing the initial steps which can help fill the pedagogical gap in translation teaching and improve training programmes:

1. Teaching should emphasise the acquisition of interlingual, intercultural and intertextual associations.
2. The relationship between the intuitive workspace and the conscious processing centre suggests that error analysis might be a significant teaching resource.
3. Once they understand what kinds of errors are occurring and can isolate the affected competences, translation teachers can provide guided practice to improve the acquisition of intuitive skills and then teach conscious strategies as methods for problem resolution and the production of translation alternatives.
4. A major objective of translator training should be fostering a translator self-concept and functioning a translation monitor.
5. As the translation student moves further along the evolutionary path from native translator to high-quality professional translator, the skills that are required are: (a) less likely to be acquired by repeated practice, (b) less likely to develop naturally without specific training and pedagogical intervention, and (c) more likely to involve translation quality at levels beyond that of mere semantic and syntactic correctness.
6. Translator education programmes should recognise around a theoretical framework that the identification of the cognitive resources that translation students should acquire the pedagogical tools for teaching and testing the acquisition of those skills and knowledge.

Kiraly later criticised his earlier work in the cognitive field and turned to social constructivism for translator training in his second major publication *A Social Constructivist Approach to Translator Education. Empowerment from Theory to Practice* in 2000 (Kelly 2005, p. 18). He argues that the social constructivist approach is particularly well suited to the training of translators in that translator competence can be seen as 'a creative, largely intuitive, socially-constructed, and multi-faceted complex of skills and abilities' (Kiraly 2000, p. 49).

From his perspective, the socio-constructive approach can be regarded as a reflection on translator training rather than a set of recipes for curriculum planning and course design. The key aim of this approach bears on the students' self-concept and their socialisation into the professional community of translators (Kelly 2005), namely authentic translation practice. It is essential for translator educators and policymakers to adapt this approach to the needs and goals of their own programmes, including the factors on specific constraints, in particular the teaching philosophy of their department and the profile of their teaching and research staff, as well as the students, and the market requirements for students to be trained and more.

Currently, small group teaching is stressed in the 'translation and interpreting' classroom, aiming to make translation teaching more learning-oriented. Within this principle, a project-based learning approach is such an example. Project-based learning (PBL), following the theoretical framework of constructivism, is a learning approach focusing on engaging students in investigation. Within the framework of PBL, the module convenor or teacher assigns different tasks; students, with the aid of all kinds of learning resources, work together in small groups to solve real problems. Through the implementation of different projects, students are expected to autonomously explore, acquire, synthesise and culminate relevant knowledge and skills via authentic tasks or projects (Barron 1998; Liu and Zhong 2002; Hu and Cheng 2003).

Applying PBL into the translation classroom, several scholars (Li et al. 2015; González and Díaz 2015) have conducted empirical research in order to validate the effectiveness of such a teaching approach. Despite different language combinations of their students, and small differences in results, these scholars share similar goals. On the one hand, students can develop different type of translation competences, gain better translation skills and identify translation workflow in the professional world.

On the other hand, through group working and post-task reflection, students are able to build up several transferrable skills, such as critical thinking, and collaborative, communication and problem-solving skills. These skills are also crucial if students want to become high calibre professional translators.

In view of the above discussion, the approaches above do combine translation teaching and the professional needs. Nord stresses the importance of embedding professional issues into the translation classroom. Kiraly (2000, p. 148) also believes that it is important to incorporate the market standards of translators into university curricula and assessment policies with the aim of developing the credibility of programmes. Students, teaching staff and even administrators in real industry may participate in the process of continuing and optimising the appropriate standards. PBL in our field, in some sense, is an approach which brings the translation workflow into classroom teaching, combining both teaching considerations and working styles in the industry.

2.4 A Review of Research on Translation Teaching in China

In the Chinese context, research on translation teaching has been gaining momentum in recent years, and there is a significant increase in the number of articles and books published on this topic (Li and Hu 2006; Xu and Mu 2009; Ji 2010). According to Wang and Chen's (2017) bibliometric analysis of Chinese scholarly articles (CSSCI index), in the list of the top ten keywords of the research field among Chinese translation scholars, 'translation teaching' ranked fourth. There are altogether 142 journal articles written about this topic. Although each journal article, monograph or edited volume has a different focus and emphasis, in summary, the research content of translation teaching primarily includes the following three subtopics: translator education and teaching methods; curriculum design for translation courses, especially for MTI programmes; and developing translators' competences (Lan and Mu 2010).

Firstly, there are many articles discussing translator education and teaching methods. For example, Wu (2013) suggests that translation teachers' personal theories are deemed to be a key factor that affects classroom practice. She argues that,

> Only when the teachers acquire a due understanding of educational objectives, learning theory, curriculum design, the nature of a translator's task, translational competence, pedagogy, and object of study can they develop into an initiative-rich, independent instructor in translation courses, and facilitate effective learning on the part of the students. (pp. 36–43)

Moreover, some scholars discuss teaching translation in specialised areas, for example, Mo (2013) designed an exploratory study to design a master's programme in business translation. Others have commented on translation teaching in other countries (e.g. in the UK) and propose suggestions for the Chinese context. For instance, Liao (2001) comments on contemporary translation teaching in the UK. Chen and Chai (2008) undertook a survey via the Internet to outline the general picture and current trend of specialties in translation and interpreting education in the British context, and then drew the conclusion that British translation programmes have various aims and emphases, which could be regarded as a good example for diversifying Chinese translation programmes.

Secondly, despite great progress, MTI education is still at an exploratory stage and needs to be consolidated. Therefore, Chinese scholars tend to conduct research on course design and development of MTI programmes (Lan and Mu 2010). The foci of the research articles on MTI education are: (1) the relationship between MTI education and the translation industry; (2) the demands from the translation industry and how these demands relate to the MTI curriculum (Miao and Wang 2010); and (3) MTI dissertation writing (Mu and Zou 2011; Chen et al. 2012).

Thirdly, developing translators' competences is given attention in the Chinese context. Ma and Guan (2010), for example, revise the PACTE's model of developing translation competences and argue that the five most important competences for Chinese into English translators are: bilingual transferrable competence, subject area knowledge, translation strategies, extra-linguistic competence and information mining competence. Moreover, based on the framework of developing students' translation competences, Wen and Li (2010) discuss the curriculum design of translation majors at undergraduate level in 11 universities, discover their drawbacks and make suggestions for improvement.

In addition, another three areas: translation textbooks in China, the Training Of Translation trainers (TOT), and training of language services professionals have been researched by more and more Chinese scholars. Research on translation textbooks has the following three aspects: (1) history of translation textbooks in China and typical feature in each time period; (2) problems and concerns in the current translation and interpreting textbooks for MTI students; (3) writing principles and suggestions in translation textbooks at different levels. The profiles of teachers may act as constraints towards developing a translation programme and in this context training of translation teachers seems quite important. Research on TOT, though at an exploratory stage, has discussed some key topics, such as the necessity of translation teacher training and the key role that TOT has played in translation teaching and the development of translation subjects. The training of language services professionals is in line with the development of the language services industry in China. Relevant research outputs mainly focus on market/industry/social needs for language services professionals and how to provide the language services industry with qualified professionals (Tao 2005; Zhao et al. 2017).

Based on the above review, we can see different emphases of research pieces on translation teaching in the Chinese context, however, there are still voices of criticism. As Zheng and Mu (2007) point out, there are numerous research articles discussing translation teaching, but few of them provide in-depth analysis in writing. Moreover, there are many articles discussing the relationship between translation teaching and linguistics, and literature and cultural studies, but not many scholars have conducted research on translation and business, education, or psychology (ibid., p. 61). Cross-disciplinary research between translation and other disciplines is still under researched in China.

2.5 Market Standards for Translator Training

As fostering professional translators is at least one of the core aims of the translation programmes within higher education institutions, relevant staff included in translation programmes are expected to have an awareness of real market standards and an understanding of how these standards could be incorporated into the curricula. In this section, a combined model of market standards will first be introduced from the perspective of European Master's in Translation (EMT) quality standards,[1] National Occupational Standards in Translation,[2] Specification for Translation

Services,[3] and competences of translator and interpreter.[4] Secondly, two accreditation tests (DipTrans and CATTI) for translators will be analysed in order to find out whether the principles, contents and assessment criteria can be borrowed for university-based training, and how these two assessments can be used to test the validity and reliability of current translation programmes' curricula among universities in the future. Then, a summarised model consisting of market standards and market entry requirements in both China and the UK is presented at the end of this section.

2.5.1 The European Master's in Translation (EMT)

2.5.1.1 The Context of the EMT

The rapid development of technology, the increasing expansion of economic exchanges, and the more frequent communication and dialogue at European and global levels have stimulated the development of the language industry. This transformation means the need for highly skilled translators has increased at a rapid pace, while the shortcomings of the labour market for translators and language services are becoming worrying (EMT 2011, p. 1). At the same time, the EU increased the number of its official languages from 11 to 23 between 2004 and 2007 and up to 24 by the year of 2014, which has further underlined the short supply of qualified translators. The EMT project was born against such a background in 2007.

This project is implemented by the European Commission's Directorate-General for Translation (DGT), which aims to enhance the quality of translator education and the availability of translators in the market throughout the European Union. The purpose of this project is to encourage master's programmes in translation from European universities to implement commonly accepted and market-oriented professional standards. So far, there are 54 university programmes offering master's training programmes for translators which have signed up to the EMT quality standards, of which 12 universities are based in the UK. One case university in this research (GB Case 2) is also an EMT member. Based on this, the EMT quality benchmark will shed some light on the optimisation of current curricula as well as the establishment of a corresponding list of learning outcomes in the UK context.

2.5.1.2 The EMT Quality Standards for Professional Translators

The competences applied to professional translation defined by the EMT project consist of six parameters: translation service provision competence, language competence, intercultural competence, information mining competence, thematic competence and technological competence (Fig. 2.3).

'Translation service provision competence' is made up of two major dimensions: interpersonal and production. The interpersonal dimension consists of continuous professional development, communications with clients, time management, how to comply with professional ethics, how to work under pressure, how to work in a team, and how to self-evaluate; the production dimension deals with core translation skills, including translation aim, text typology, text analysis, translation strategies, quality standards establishment and proofreading and revising skills.

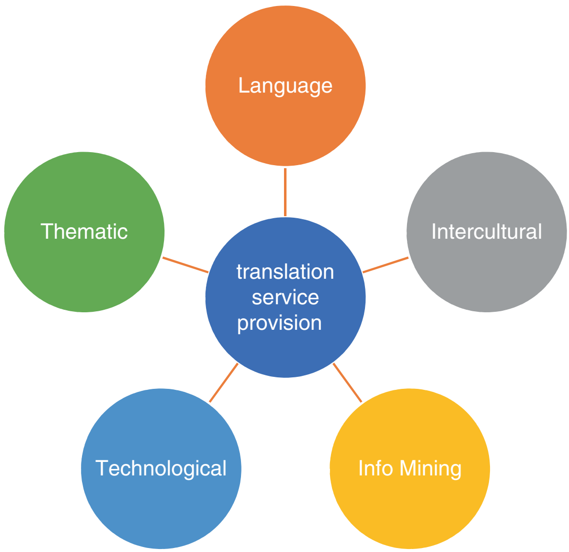

Fig. 2.3 Competences for professional translators, experts in multilingual and multimedia communication (EMT 2009, p. 4)

'Language competence' initially refers to the knowledge of understanding grammatical, lexical, syntactic and idiomatic structures of both native language (A language) and foreign language (B language). In addition, the transferrable skills between A and B, and the sensitivity to changes in languages and developments in languages are also included.

'Intercultural competence' is defined by the EMT project from a dual perspective: the sociolinguistic and the textual dimensions. The sociolinguistic dimension discusses verbal elements, non-verbal elements and register of a document in terms of cultural factors. The main ideas of textual dimension include a document's overall structure and coherence, the underlying cultural meaning of a certain text, specific translation strategies to solve cultural difficulties, the ability to summarise, the genre and the rhetorical standards of a document.

The fourth competence proposed by the EMT project is 'information mining competence'. In other words, a translator needs to develop his or her document research ability. For example, a translator or an interpreter is assumed to know how to prepare relevant information (terminology, background information, fixed expressions, etc.) for a given task as well as how to archive or make portfolios for his or her own documents.

Another important competence is 'thematic competence' according to EMT quality standards. This competence mainly deals with a translator's learning ability for specialised knowledge—such as political science, law, medicine, business or engineering—and its applications, including rigid systems of concepts, format of presentation, controlled terminology and more. It also recommends 'learning to learn' and forming the habit of lifelong learning. According to the renowned founder of Chinese Taoism Lao Tzu, 'Give a man a fish, feed him for a day. Teach a man how to fish, feed him for a lifetime'. This quote has a wonderful analogy with the field of translating. A translator's tasks may involve various fields of knowledge, and teachers and trainers cannot teach him everything. Therefore, the ability for self-learning becomes especially important to translators.

'Technological competence' is the last parameter defined by the EMT project. It encompasses knowing how to use CAT tools. Additionally, adopting and becoming familiar with new tools designed for the translation of multimedia and audiovisual material is also essential for translators to comply with EMT quality standards.

2.5.2 National Occupational Standards for Translators in the UK and China

2.5.2.1 The National Occupational Standards in Translation

The National Occupational Standards in Translation are made up of 11 units, which describe core aspects of translation performance as well as relevant support activities. Some of the core aspects of translation performance may be explained as follows.

As a professional translator, he or she needs to 'maintain skills and systems for managing translation tasks, to manage new translation assignments, to translate written texts from one language to another, and to develop his or her performance as a professional translator' (National Occupational Standards in Translation 2007, p. 3). In addition to the above performance, it is also recommended that a senior translator manages translation projects and acts as a mentor to trainee and colleague translators (ibid.). The standards can be used to:

- describe good practice in particular areas of professional activities;
- inform job descriptions and person specifications;
- design training courses and continuous professional development;
- assess the skills of those who are qualified, e.g. for recruitment or appraisal purposes; and
- provide a framework for quality assurance.

This book will discuss the first four units in particular, as they are related to the typical translation role of a professional translator, which is the major goal achieved at the end of a year or two of master studies in translation. The first four units are as follows:

- Maintain skills and systems for managing translation tasks. This point deals mainly with translation and the skills necessary for the work of the professional translator, including: (a) keeping the language and cultural skills up to date; (b) doing research on specific translation topics to obtain general information and then to build up one's own terminology bank; (c) using electronic tools for translators if needed and keeping client documents confidential at the same time; (d) communicating effectively with clients and translation companies, and keeping positive relationships with them;

(e) remembering the role of the professional translator and complying with the principles of professional practice.

- Manage new translation assignments. This unit concerns how to cope with new translation tasks for translators. This includes meeting the requirements of clients and translation companies, knowing how to translate the nature of a text as well as mastering its context when translating, having the right skills to do the translation work and declining assignments that might be beyond translators' real levels, managing to meet the client brief and finishing the work in due time, knowing how to use various information to prepare a certain translation task, and using translation software to generate the translation.
- Translate written texts from one language into another. The third point stresses the importance of ensuring that the quality of translation can meet professional standards for translators. This involves accurately understanding the source text and making the target text as fluent as possible, being able to meet the client's special requirements and finishing the work to deadlines, seeking help from translator colleagues for the purpose of proofreading and reviewing the translation work, having the ability to check and revise the work before submission to clients and translation companies, and abiding by the codes of conduct in this field.
- Develop performance as a professional translator. Last but certainly not least, this unit consists of two major parts. The first requirement regards knowing how to monitor a translator's own work, while the second important element is relevant to continuous professional development. It is clearly stated that translators need to 'take their colleagues' comments into account and use these together with their own observations to create a personal development plan'. This plan is designed to develop their knowledge, skills and performance as professional translators.

2.5.2.2 The Specification for Translation Service[5]

This specification was developed from the DIN 2345, which is a standard covering the translation contract published by the Deutsches Institut fur Normung e. V. in Germany in 1998. The DIN 2345, paying particular attention to the 'conditions under which translations are assigned, undertaken, completed and accepted between parties to contracts for translation services', is widely used at the international level (Kiraly 2000, p. 147).

Although the specification in China is based on the rules of the DIN 2345, the main content is localised in order to suit China's domestic market. The specification covers four major areas: (1) applicability of standards, (2) normative document of referencing, (3) terminologies and definitions, and (4) requirements. Of these four areas, the fourth one 'requirements' regulates almost every detail of translation service, which consists of six main subareas. These are 'conditions for translation supplier', 'translation business engagement', 'retrospective identification', 'translation project management', 'quality assurance', and 'archiving the documents'.

The specification is a departure from EMT quality standards, the national standards in the UK and, in some sense, the DIN 2345. 'Translation project management' is stressed in the specification, indicating that knowing the whole organisation of the translation process is an indispensable requirement for a qualified translator. The translation service does not consist merely of translating a text or several texts; other skills or qualifications are also integral parts of a translation workflow, such as managing source and target text materials, preparing effectively before the real translation task, corrective action, proofreading, editing and even printing. Another striking factor included in this specification is the relationship between translation supplier and customer, namely the client and the translator, which is only mentioned here without detailed explanation on this point. The specification requires a high degree of negotiation and cooperation between the translation supplier and the customer, and regulates every aspect of this relationship.

The updated specification (2017 version) has regulated basic contents about translation services procurement, including the communication between translation services providers and buyers, the function and usage of target texts, languages in the translation services, meeting deadlines, data retrieval and file management, quality assurance, as well as procurement process. In short, this specification can be deemed as a practical guide for both translators and service providers.

2.5.2.3 Competences of Translator and Interpreter

The TAC (2017) has recently published a standard list of competences of translator and interpreter. The purposes of designing such a list include: (1) provide clients and language services providers with benchmarks; and (2) provide universities with references for training translators and interpreters. Representatives from universities, translation and language services companies as well as government related offices, participated in the process of formulating the lists of competences. The seven competences are summarised below:

- Translation competence
- Interpreting competence
- Transferrable abilities between the source language and the target language
- Information mining and synthesising competence
- Cross-cultural competence
- Technology competence
- Subject area competence

In addition to the above competences, this standard list has also consisted of terminologies in the language services industry, concepts of translation and interpreting, and the evaluation methods of translators and interpreters, as well as continuous development for translators and interpreters.

The above Chinese parameters overlap with that national standards mentioned in the EU and the UK. But if all the standards illustrated above can be incorporated into the education institution's curricula, they will be of great use to help policymakers create authentic and fair working conditions enabling students to confront the real settings of the professional world even in their school time (Kiraly 2000, p. 150).

2.5.3 Market Entry Requirement: Accreditation Tests of Professional Translators

There are two professional tests for translators in China and the UK: CATTI and DipTrans, respectively. Candidates who have passed these two exams are awarded professional qualification certificates. Although certificates cannot reflect all the competences of a translator, they are still able to demonstrate the essential skills required by a qualified translator. In other words, these certificates are a stepping stone to professionalism.

2.5.3.1 Brief Introduction

CATTI

In China, CATTI[6] (China Accreditation Test for Translators and Interpreters), launched in 2003 by the Ministry of Personnel of the

People's Republic of China, is the most authoritative translation and interpretation proficiency qualification accreditation test in China. It aims to assess the proficiency and competence of professional and aspiring professional translators. CATTI includes translation and interpreting (consecutive interpreting and simultaneous interpreting). There are altogether four levels of this test, namely, Senior Translator and Interpreter, Level 1 Translator and Interpreter, Level 2 Translator and Interpreter, and Level 3 Translator and Interpreter. The language combinations of this test are English–Chinese, Japanese–Chinese, French–Chinese, Arabic–Chinese, Russian–Chinese, German–Chinese and Spanish–Chinese.

It is stated that the CATTI certificate is valid only for three years. A bearer of the certificate must participate in continuing education or special training organised by the Translators' Association of China prior to the expiration of the period of validity of the certificate. The purpose of doing this is to encourage translators to pursue professional excellence, renew their knowledge systems, maintain high professional competence and raise their quality of work.

The certificate is valid throughout the country. Some newly established MTI programmes have included this test in the curriculum and require postgraduates majoring in translation or interpreting to attain CATTI Level 2 qualification. Therefore, CATTI Level 2 qualification in translation (English–Chinese) will be evaluated in detail in this section.

DipTrans

In the UK, a qualification test of translation comparable to CATTI is called the Diploma in Translation (DipTrans).[7] This is a postgraduate level qualification designed for working translators and also for those high-level linguists who wish to enter a career in professional translation.

The DipTrans assesses and awards basic professional competence in translating from any language into English or from English into any other language, and also other language combinations that do not include English. The language direction of this test is translating solely from a source language into the mother tongue (target language), while the passages set for translation in CATTI are bilateral, both English into Chinese translation and Chinese into English translation.

The DipTrans requires candidates to have the ability to translate to a professional standard. This standard is not of a highly technical or specialised nature, but 'of a difficulty that translators would expect to meet in their daily work' (DipTrans Handbook 2011, p. 5).

2.5.3.2 Exam Content

CATTI

The CATTI Level 2 exam for translators consists of two parts. The first part is called 'Translators' Comprehension Capacity', including three subsections. Section I is a 50-item multiple-choice test of English vocabulary and grammar, Section II is about English reading comprehension, and Section III is a cloze test. The purpose of this part is to examine candidates' mastery of English vocabulary, grammar and to test the examinees' real abilities on reading comprehension, reasoning and interpretation.

The second part is 'English–Chinese Translation Practice', which consists of two sections: English into Chinese translation and Chinese into English translation. There are two passages for English into Chinese translation, and the total number is 800–1000 English words. Passage 1 is compulsory, and while the second can be chosen from two given passages. Chinese to English translation follows the same pattern, and the length of the passage is 400–650 Chinese words. This is to test the candidates' bilingual translation skills and abilities.

The first part needs to be finished within 120 minutes, and the second part within 180 minutes. 'Translator's Comprehension Capacity' is arranged in the morning, while the translation practice is in the afternoon. Candidates must complete both tests in one day.

DipTrans

The examination includes three units, which are Unit One—written translation of a general text, Unit Two—written translation of a semi-specialised text (technology, business and literature), and Unit Three—written translation of a semi-specialised text (science, social science and law). The text of Unit One is about 600 words, which needs to be finished within 3 hours, and texts of both Unit Two and Unit Three are roughly 450 words each, which should be completed within 2 hours each.

The difference here from CATTI is that candidates only need to translate the given text into their mother tongue, which is in this case, translating from English into Mandarin. Examinees are required to pass all three units so as to attain the Diploma in Translation. However, 'all the three units are individually assessed and for each unit passed a unit certificate will be issued. The full Diploma will be awarded when all units are passed. If candidates take the full exam in one year and pass, they will be issued with the full Diploma certificate' (Handbook 2011, p. 6). Yet the upper limit for completing this qualification is five years, starting from the first year in which examinees obtain their first pass unit.

2.5.3.3 Exam Formats

The CATTI exam stipulates that candidates can only use pen and paper to process their work, while the DipTrans allows examinees to choose from word-processing or handwriting. Electronic dictionaries, any use of computer-aided translation programmes or access to the Internet are not permitted in either of the exams. However, paper dictionaries are allowed to be used during both exams. The candidates who take the DipTrans exam can also use other reference works in addition to paper dictionaries, for example their own glossaries. In terms of the formats of these two exams, both recognise the importance of a dictionary during translation tasks, while the exam format of the DipTrans test is close to the process of modern authentic translation tasks, in that the translating process deals not only with words and language expressions, but also subject area knowledge and cultural disparities.

2.5.3.4 Discussion

English Language Ability

The candidates for the CATTI exam (English–Chinese combination) are all native Chinese speakers whose acquaintance with foreign languages (here, English) is usually on the basis of language courses at school. Their need for language enhancement is much higher relative to their counterparts in the West (Gile 2010, p. 18). Testing of English language ability incorporated into CATTI's exam content indicates that candidates who want to become qualified translators should improve their proficiency in English, such as vocabulary, grammar, listening, reading and writing, especially in the Chinese market.

Translating into Foreign Languages

Unlike the DipTrans requirement to only translate into the mother tongue, in the CATTI exam, translating from Chinese into English is also compulsory. The consensus in most European translator training organisations is that translation into the mother tongue is the 'normal direction' (Hatim 2005, pp. 164–168). However, in real settings, translation into the major foreign languages is very much in demand, where native speakers of these languages are a small population (ibid., p. 167). In China, with increasing communications in business, trade, technology and other sectors, the need for much translation into English is especially obvious (Gile 2010, p. 17). Based on this, the norm of translation into one's mother tongue might not be enough from a Chinese perspective. This is also the reason why CATTI incorporates assessment of candidates' competences in translating into a major foreign language.

The Importance of Translation Theory

The DipTrans states the importance of translation theory very clearly in its handbook. 'Whilst priority should be given to the practice of translation, with feedback on the quality of their translations, candidates should have an awareness of theory and an understanding of how this theory should be applied'. Furthermore, the DipTrans has listed several aspects of theory for candidates, which may be useful in the preparation of the diploma, including translation brief, the choice of text types, source text analysis, specific translation strategies and techniques and how to use an appropriate register in the target translation work.

Subject Area Knowledge

The DipTrans has provided a full list of subjects under each of the six semi-specialised areas required in the exam (see Table 2.2).

In contrast to DipTrans, the CATTI does not summarise the entire subject areas that may be included in the exam, but from evaluation of past papers it can be seen that the subject areas required in the CATTI exam have, in the past, overlapped with the lists above. The table shows that special attention should be paid to scientific and technical translation as well as to real knowledge of these two areas, since these two types of translation account for 'by far the biggest portion of translation work in the world today' (Kingscott 1996, p. 295). In addition, although no programme on translation can offer courses covering all the subject areas above, this full list can still be regarded as the benchmark for curriculum design.

Although neither of the two accreditation tests can reflect every aspect of the market standards, it is still obvious that we can find some general requirements for the translating profession from the formats, qualities and contents of these two market entry tests.

2.5.4 A Combined Model of Professional Standards for Translators

After examining both accreditation tests and national standards for translators in the previous section, it is obvious that there are a number of overlapping requirements among all these standards. Therefore, although drawing on a standard for translators which suits all the domestic markets is difficult, it is still essential to list several common requirements from an integrated viewpoint. The generic market standards for qualified translators are exemplified in Fig. 2.4.

However, more detailed illustrations of every aspect of the market are shown in Table 2.3.

To sum up, many university programmes in translation throughout the world have come into being in this era. Nevertheless, there is the serious challenge of 'too many translation graduates not finding employment and too many employers or companies not finding the right translators' (Gouadec 2007, p. 337). The answer to the question 'what is an unemployable translator?' may be related to university education. According to the conclusions generated from the Symposium on

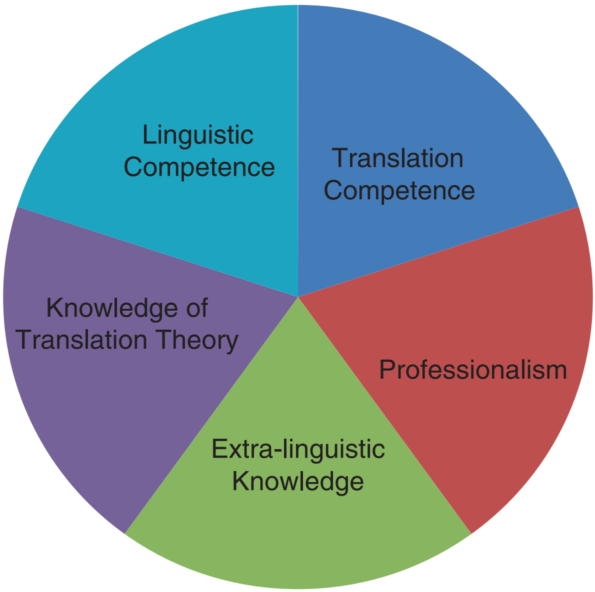

Fig. 2.4 Market standards for professional translators

Table 2.3 Requirements for being a qualified translator

Requirements for being a qualified translator	*Subskills of each requirement*
Linguistic competence	• Knowing both languages (native language A and first foreign language B) at word level, above word level, grammatical level, textual level and pragmatic level • Knowing transferrable skills between these two languages
Translation competence	**Permanent skills** • Knowing how to deal with the purpose of a translation task • Knowing how to analyse the source text and uncover difficulties during the translation process • Knowing how to use appropriate strategies to cope with the difficulties • Knowing how to prepare a task before translating • Knowing how to proceed with self-assessment • Knowing how to translate from B to A and from A to B • Knowing how to learn computer-aided translation skills **New skills for a changing market** • Knowing how to cope with new translation tasks such as post-editing, technical writing, pre-editing and abstract translation • Knowing localisation and multimedia translation techniques • Knowing techniques required in the era of big data
Knowledge of translation theory	• Knowing how to apply relevant translation theories to specific translation tasks (Skopos theory, text typology, relevance theory, register theory and quality assessment in translation) • Knowing how to develop a translator's 'self-concept' with the help of relevant theories
Extra-linguistic knowledge	• Cross-cultural communication • Subject area knowledge or cross-disciplinary knowledge • Interdisciplinary knowledge • Information research knowledge • World knowledge (common sense)
Professionalism	• Workflow of translation tasks – time management, especially submitting tasks prior to an agreed deadline – teamwork skills – translation project management – cost and invoice awareness • Professional ethics • Client education – interpersonal skills including how to build up negotiating and communicating skills between a translator and the client, and marketing skills especially for freelance translators – social networking skills • Developing professionalism for translators

the Translator Profile organised by DGT on 29 September 2011 (DGT 2011), universities have the responsibility to train their students in specialised areas. In addition, revision, quality control, time management, ethics and more should also be included in the programme of studies. Trainers need to adopt the principle of lifelong learning. In addition to developing a professional standard and incorporating it in the current curricula, teachers and students should also work with it in actual teaching methods, learning styles and assessment procedures. Furthermore, external experts in the professional world may be invited to test the current curricula and put forward their criteria for evaluating the whole programme (DGT 2009).

2.6 Summary

This chapter firstly provided readers with the fundamental issues of curriculum design, with a particular focus on the factors influencing the process of designing a course, and on the outcome-based curriculum model to develop translators' competences. It then reviewed major approaches to translator training in the West and the trends of translation teaching in China. Accordingly, the author summarised and updated an integrated model of requirements for being a professional translator by synthesising different demands from different markets (the EU, the UK and China).

Notes

1. The EMT, namely The European Master's in Translation. This project was born in a period of important changes for the translator's profession. The main goal of the EMT project is to raise the quality standards of translation programmes around the Europe (EMT Annual Report (2009–2010), 2010, pp. 1–2).
2. "The National Occupational Standards in Translation' set out what individuals need to do, and the knowledge and skills they need, to be competent professional translators. The standards have been designed by and for the translation industry. They describe translation skills and performance at two levels, professional and advanced and in a range of contexts. They were approved by the UK Coordinating Group in September 2007" (National Occupational Standards in Translation Handbook 2007, p. 4).
3. The Specification for Translation Service was issued by the General Administration of Quality Supervision, Inspection and Quarantine of the People's Republic of China (AQSIQ) on November 27, 2003, and was

finally implemented on June 1, 2004. In line with the constant changes of the market, TAC has updated this specification into Specifications for the Language Service Industry in China which has been issued on 1 December 2017.
4. Competences of translator and interpreter were issued by TAC on 1 December 2017, and were set to be implemented on 1 January 2018.
5. All the information on the Specification for Translation Service is based on its official handbook.
6. All the information on CATTI is summarised from its official website: www.catti.net.cn.
7. All the information on DipTrans is summarised from its handbook, which can be downloaded from www.iol.org.uk.

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CHAPTER 3

Analysis of Current Curricula in Translation Programmes in the UK

3.1 Introduction

Since one of the research objectives in this study is to examine how British universities run their translation programmes at master's level, in this chapter the author will compare the three selected postgraduate courses (GB Cases 1, 2 and 3) with regard to curriculum design as evident in published materials and interviews. In the analysis, the author will investigate how the courses are presented from the perspective of the course aims and objectives, module content and factors affecting the process of curriculum design.

Previous chapters have shown that although some 30 universities offer translation/interpreting courses in the UK, primarily at postgraduate level, 'the organisations and emphasis of training varies so much between different universities that it is difficult to schematise the British system' (Niska 2010, p. 39). Professor Susan Bassnett (2008) has also noted that there is a substantial variation in size and emphasis between the programmes on offer, and titles of the degrees and/or diplomas reflect the different emphasis at each institution. It is true of our three case studies as well that each programme has its own focus in delivering the course. From the perspective of the titles, it is apparent that GB Case 1 offers joint programmes in both Translation and Interpreting (henceforth MATI); GB Case 2 has an MA in Translation and Interpreting Studies (henceforth MATIS), showing the theoretical emphasis of this programme; and GB Case 3 has its MA in Translation Studies (henceforth

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MATS), with a strong focus on theory and research. Language choice also varies considerably in these translation programmes, with some universities focusing on European languages, others offering a broader range. In our cases, there are mixed language groups in both GB Case 2 (European languages and Chinese language) and GB Case 3 (European languages, and Chinese and Japanese languages), while the MATI at GB Case 1 has a Chinese language strand which is separate from the degree in European language translation.

The course aims and module content also vary considerably from one to the other. To be more specific, the MATI at GB Case 1 has a clear focus on preparing its students for the diversified and fierce translation and interpreting market, so market demands are the important factors in designing and developing its course. An examination of the details of this course indeed shows that a practice-oriented curriculum for teaching translation and interpreting is embedded in GB Case 1's programme.

The MATS at GB Case 3, sitting on the other side of the scale, pays much attention to translation theories, research methods and critical awareness. All the modules in this programme are theory-based, except for the module 'Translation Studies Option' which contains some practical content. In addition, a voluntary translator's workshop is offered in this programme for students to practise and peer review their translation work.

It seems that MATIS at GB Case 2 sits in the middle between theory and practice, but when it comes to each module, theory-based content outweighs practice-based content. Regarding assignments, there are more theory-based essays rather than practical translation or interpreting exercises. From both the programme handbook and the interview with GB Interviewee B, it is clear that there are more resources available regarding theory and research in MATIS at GB Case 2, but considering the employability of the students and the pressure from the market, this programme cannot deny the contribution of practical skills. Therefore, it is acknowledged that the MATIS at GB Case 2 is actually considering how much weight should be given to theory-based content and how much to practice-based content in a translation course.

This chapter has five sections. Section 3.2 provides the readers with course aims and objectives of the three case studies and proposes that they have different teaching emphasises. Section 3.3 describes the diverse course structures of each case programme, introduces orientations of modules offered in these three cases and explains specific capabilities reflected in the module content. In Sect. 3.4, the different characteristics of each study are summarised after the analysis carried out in Sects. 3.2 and 3.3. As a result, it was found that the key differences between these three cases are associated with different aspects of professionally oriented translation teaching and theoretically oriented translation teaching, which are discussed in Sect. 3.4. Finally, Sect. 3.5 recaps the main findings of the analyses and discusses the implications for the comparison chapter.

3.2 Course Aims and Learning Outcomes of Case Studies in the UK

'Any degree programme is established in order to achieve a definite aim' (Biggs and Tang 2011, p. 117). Moreover, 'the aims and goals of the curriculum determine the design of the curriculum, which in turn creates a framework for the implementation of the curriculum' (Sawyer 2011, p. 6). Thus, the module content and the selection of teaching methods, as well as assessment tools are all led by the overall aims of a degree course.

Generally, the aims and objectives are associated with two questions: what is the course meant to achieve, and what is its focus and its context? The answers to these two questions can be found via specific learning outcomes, which are known as lower-level subdivisions of the overall aims (Kelly 2005, p. 21). As defined by Biggs and Tang (2011), an intended learning outcome is a statement which describes what a student is expected to learn after the teaching process. There are three levels of an intended learning outcome:

- the institutional level, as a statement of what the graduates of the university are supposed to be able to do;
- the degree programme level, as a statement of what graduates from particular degree programmes should be able to do; and
- the course (module) level, as a statement of what students should be able to do at the completion of a given course.

(Biggs and Tang 2011, p. 113)

In this chapter, the focus of discussion mainly lies on the second level: intended learning outcomes at the programme level. In our own context, based on the facts and figures generated from interviews with the three interviewees, the course structure published online and the accessed programme handbook, the author aims to investigate what capabilities graduates from translation programmes (in particular those from GB Cases 1, 2, 3) should be able to achieve upon finishing one or two years' study.

In its programme handbook, the MATIS at GB Case 2 explains what abilities graduates from this particular degree course should be able to develop (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 Aims and learning outcomes of the MATIS at GB Case 2 (*Source* MATIS Programme Handbook 2014/2015)

Course objectives	*Details*
Aims	1. To equip students with the knowledge and skills for a career in translation and/or interpreting, or in other professions which require expertise in cross-cultural communication 2. To equip students for further study and research 3. To provide specialist training in various types of translation and/or interpreting activities, including the use of technology in translation, interpreting and related activities 4. To provide a gradual transition into the world of work through practical, real-life translation and/or interpreting tasks, according to the chosen pathway
Learning outcomes	1. Translation and interpreting studies as an academic discipline and familiarity with various perspectives from which different scholars have attempted to develop theories of translation and interpreting 2. The role of translation and interpreting in solving interlingual and intercultural communication problems 3. The interdisciplinary nature of translation and interpreting studies and the exchange of empirical and theoretical approaches between translation/interpreting studies and other disciplines 4. Research issues in interpreting and translation, including recent approaches, current problems and potential future developments 5. The relationship between translation, interpreting and other aspects of language use and communication, including language patterning, textual organisation and the semiotics of verbal and non-verbal communication 6. Specific translation and/or interpreting practices and the role of the translator and/or interpreter in various sectors of economic activity including audiovisual media, publishing, localisation, commercial and international organisations (depending on the chosen pathway)

In theory, the four aims of the MATIS at GB Case 2 are served if graduates can achieve the subsequent six learning outcomes. We see from Table 3.1 that this programme wants its students to acknowledge both cutting-edge research in TS and/or related areas (e.g. linguistics, cross-cultural communications, etc.) and to develop practical translation and interpreting skills. However, it was found that the course aims and learning outcomes of the MATIS are not always aligned. For example, three out of the four aims (except Aim 2) concern translation as a profession, but in terms of learning outcomes, we see that most of the outcomes focus on theoretical knowledge in translation studies, except the sixth which is related to practical translation and interpreting.

Moreover, as analysed in Chapter 2, the abilities and skills of a competent translator demanded by the market are strong bilingual/multilingual competences, skills and strategies for practical translation, knowledge of translation theory, extra-linguistic knowledge (e.g. subject area knowledge and information mining ability) and professionalism (e.g. professional ethics, interpersonal skills and time management) (see Fig. 2.4 and Table 2.3). However, when we compare these market standards with the learning outcomes shown in Table 3.1, it must be acknowledged that language competence or language transferrable skills, extra-linguistic knowledge such as subject area knowledge, and professional characteristics of work in translation and/or interpreting areas are still missing, or not entirely included in the MATIS at GB Case 2. That is to say, even if students achieve all the above learning outcomes, it is not completely guaranteed that they can achieve their intended aim of becoming a competent translator and/or interpreter upon graduation.

In conversation with GB Interviewee B, it also became clear that the MATIS aims to develop students' reflective learning from an intellectual perspective. Moreover, course designers of this programme would like to cultivate students' independent learning abilities and self-reflective competences, and apply those generic abilities in their own field of Translation Studies. In other words, students are encouraged to explore assumptions arising from their experiences by identifying 'critical incidents' (Brookfield 1990; Conrad and Hedin 1987, cited in Deeley 2010). Students are given opportunities to reflect on what they have learned (Nunan 2011) and to critically comment on what they have done in their translation assignments. This is congruent with the ethos of 'critical thinking' in academia in the UK, which requires students to consider problems repeatedly, and to think 'out of the box' to review their mistakes and then to develop their problem-solving skills. In this regard, pure translation and interpreting practitioners may challenge the validity and reliability of the notion of critical thinking in translation, arguing that this may reduce the students' capability to become proficient professional translators who should have various technical skills to finish translation tasks on time. However, in the long run, even a very experienced translator needs to develop his/her problem-solving skills and critical thinking abilities to carry out diversified translating tasks in the future. In other words, the MATIS at GB Case 2 is intended to prepare its students for the world rather than for narrowly conceived work places.

The MATS at GB Case 3, the third British case in this book, has four objectives which show that this programme focuses on theory and research rather than practice.

From Table 3.2, it is clear that the MATS focuses much on translation theory and thought-provoking research in the discipline of Translation Studies. Concomitantly, the module content of this programme is mainly research-driven, in which practical content is supplementary to the theory units. Moreover, the interview with GB Interviewee C can further explain the MATS programme's course objectives. According to GB Interviewee C, there are two main goals the designers want the students to develop. One is to make the students aware of translation theory. The purpose of teaching theory is to help students think about what they are doing when they practise their translation tasks, not just do something for its own sake. In other words, translation course designers of GB Case 3 expect their students to learn from reflecting critically upon their experiences or practices, which is similar to the MATIS programme.

Table 3.2 Course objectives of the MATS at GB Case 3

Course objectives	*Details*
Aims	1. Developed their knowledge and understanding of the history of translation studies, of translation theories and of research paradigms and methodologies in translation studies 2. Acquired critical awareness of issues in translation research and practice that are at the forefront of the discipline 3. Acquired a comprehensive understanding of techniques appropriate to their own research and to advanced scholarship in general 4. Acquired a set of skills appropriate to translating one or more text types, and transferrable to other types of translating

In fact, learning from experience is seen by many educators as a crucial way of narrowing the gap between theory and practice in their respective disciplines (Bulpitt and Martin 2005, p. 207). This reflective learning method has also been supported by scholars in the field of Translation Studies. For example, as Kiraly points out (1995, p. 111), 'a major objective of translator training should be the fostering of a translator self-concept and a functioning translation monitor'. In this case, marrying translation theory and practice is a way of improving the practice of translation simply because 'it increases translator's awareness of methodology' (Bartrina 2010, p. 178). Another important capability the course designers would like students to develop is research skills. For example, they have set up two modules regarding research skills and methods (see Table 3.5) in which in many ways they are trying to nurture their graduates to be persons who can conduct research. This is also demonstrated in the intended learning outcomes of the MATS programme (see Fig. 3.1). Specifically, 'research skills' is one of the eight transferrable skills that the MA in Translation Studies at University of GB Case 3 is intended to foster, not only applied in the workplace but also in the pursuance of further study to Ph.D. level.

We then see from Fig. 3.1 that the course aims of the MATS at GB Case 3 are embedded in the intended learning outcomes. More specifically, this programme categorises all the possible intended learning outcomes into two groups: subject and professional skills, and transferrable skills. Each group consists of different sub-skills, and each sub-skill corresponds with a specific learning outcome(s).

Six sub-capabilities (including learning outcomes) are incorporated in the first group, which are: (1) knowledge, (2) concepts, (3) techniques, (4) critical analysis, (5) presentation and (6) appraisal of evidence. Most of these skills—(1), (2), (4) and (6)—concern translation theories or research in TS. In addition, in conversation with GB Interviewee C, it became apparent that the MATS programme is not language specific, so the course designers decided to design a programme to introduce more generic knowledge to make it easier to run with different language groups together. In this case, it might be difficult to design many practice-based modules for a single group because students come from different countries, speaking different languages. This is one reason why the modules are mainly theory-based. Various language combinations might add difficulties if course designers wanted to make their course skill-based, or more professional.

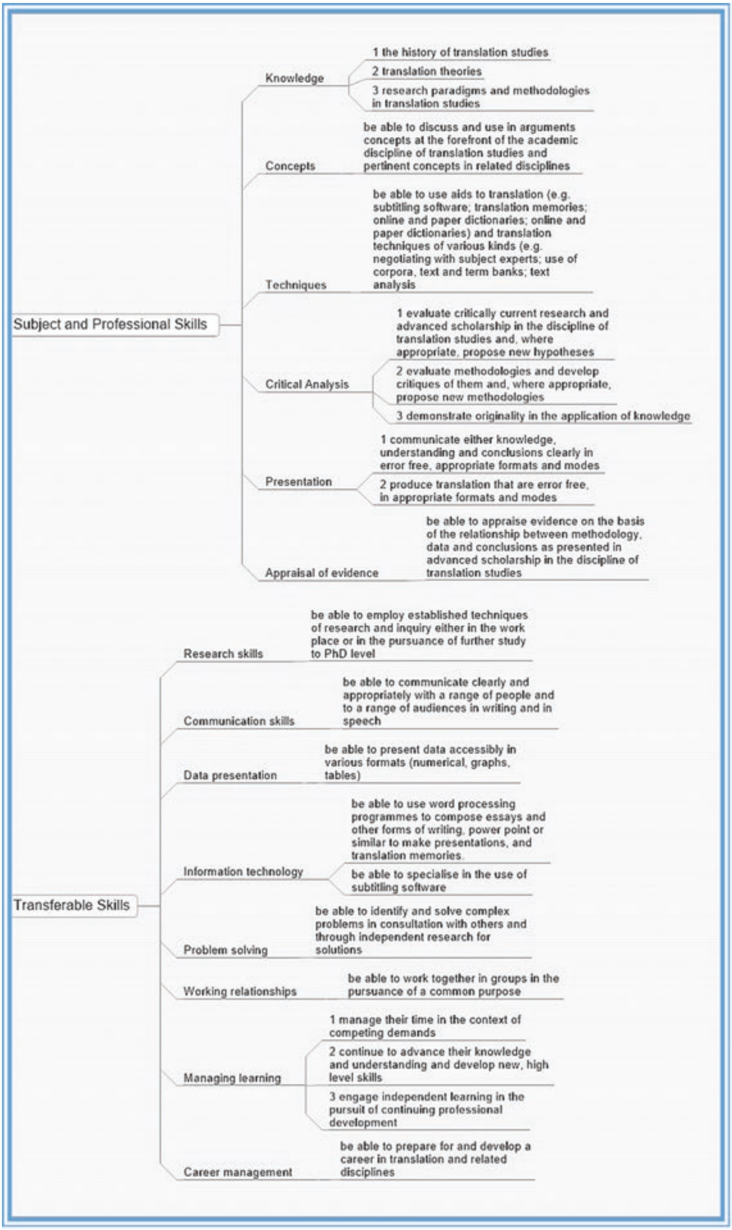


Fig. 3.1 Learning outcomes of the MATS at GB Case 3 (This map has been summarised on the basis of the information provided by the MATS programme specification 2013. Contents might be updated in the following years)

However, as mentioned in Chapter 1, universities in the UK are now facing the fact that they need to make their courses more responsive to market needs due to neoliberalism and the commercialisation of higher education. Clearly, course designers of the MATS at GB Case 3 have also realised the importance of integrating professional standards or demands in their course to help enhance students' employability. As explained by GB Interviewee C, students' employability is considered at both university level and course level. From the perspective of the university, a five-year career plan to enhance student's employability has been issued, aiming to ensure that their graduates have the employment-related skills in order to make themselves stand out to potential employers (Johnson 2012). At course level, course designers apply this plan to their translation programme. Additionally, due to the fact that this course is theory-oriented, and in order to help graduates find professional jobs in the (translation) market, it then aims to integrate transferrable skills into its curriculum. From Fig. 3.1, it can be seen that transferrable skills suitable for many potential workplaces are taken into account by this programme, so clearly this programme is designed to improve students' skills in order to meet the requirements of future employers. In other words, the eight transferrable skills together with the specific learning outcomes provided in Fig. 3.1 are generic skills or abilities that are to be displayed in all circumstances or as attributes embedded in the content area of a discipline (Biggs and Tang 2011, p. 130).

The MATI at GB Case 1, being different from the other two cases, aims very clearly to cultivate qualified translators in professional areas (see Table 3.3). This professional ethos is embedded into almost every module, and professional skills of translating and interpreting

Table 3.3 Course objectives of the MATI at GB Case 1[a]

Course objectives	*Details*
Aims	The Translation and Interpreting MA (MATI) covers both professional and academic training. Students will acquire high quality translating and interpreting skills, so they may enter the translating or interpreting profession in fields such as technology, commerce, international relations and journalism[b]

[a]The course aims of the T&I programme at GB Case 1 are accessed on its official website

[b]Based on the interview with GB Interviewee A, these four subject areas are only examples, not specialised translating pathways

are demonstrated through module syllabus, teaching and assessment methods.

GB Case 1, unlike the other two case studies, does not provide programme learning outcomes online; instead, learning outcomes are at the module level (Figs. 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4) and can be accessed through the module catalogue; these 'determine the teaching and assessment that takes place in the classroom and consequently need to be designed and written with a view to the kind of knowledge, the content and the level of understanding intended' (Biggs and Tang 2011, p. 130).

Figures 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4 give a very comprehensive picture of learning outcomes in each module at both Stage 1 and Stage 2. In contrast to the GB Case 2 and GB Case 3 programmes, which pay more attention to theoretical input in their course aims and learning outcomes, keywords of the MATI at GB Case 1 are 'profession', 'skills' and 'practice'. From the learning outcomes at the module level in Stage 1, we can see that course designers expect students to acquire fundamental translation skills clusters after one-year of study. Such skills included are, as Samuelsson-Brown (2010, p. 2) suggests, language and literacy, communication, cultural understanding, information technology, making decisions and project management. Stage 2, as a more advanced level, is more specialised in terms of learning outcomes and module content. In addition to the generic knowledge, concepts and skills learned in Stage 1, students are expected to have an advanced understanding of professional translating practices in specialised areas (e.g. economics; finance and business; law; science and technology, depending on the market demand) with different modes (subtitle translation, interpreting, drama translation, literary translation).

The three figures also show that interpreting is an important component for students who choose the translating pathway, and vice versa.[1] The rationale[2] for designing in this way, according to the programme director, is the market demand. Specifically, as explained by GB Interviewee A, the real situation in the professional world is that people who have followed the translation pathway may find themselves doing interpreting, and it is certainly the case that someone who follows the interpreting pathway will find themselves doing translation. So it is important for students to do both. From the perspective of the course designers, interpreters should do more translation because translation gives them a much deeper and more solid grounding in language skills.

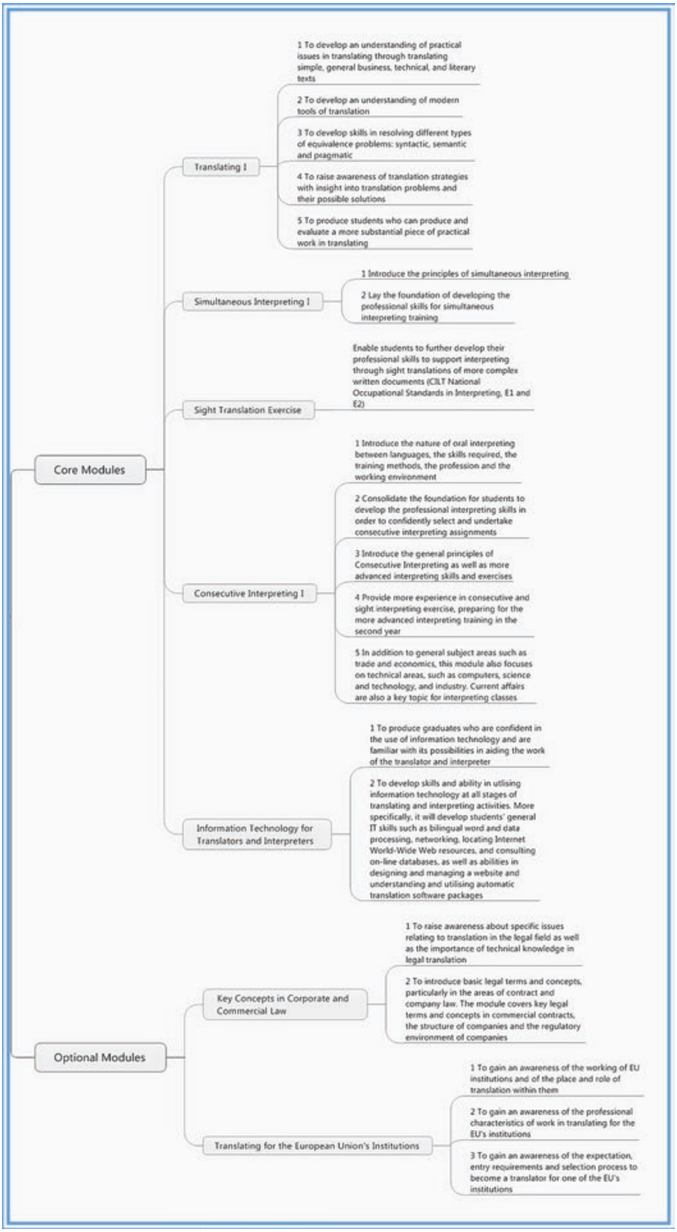


Fig. 3.2 Learning outcomes at the module level of the MATI at GB Case 1: Stage I

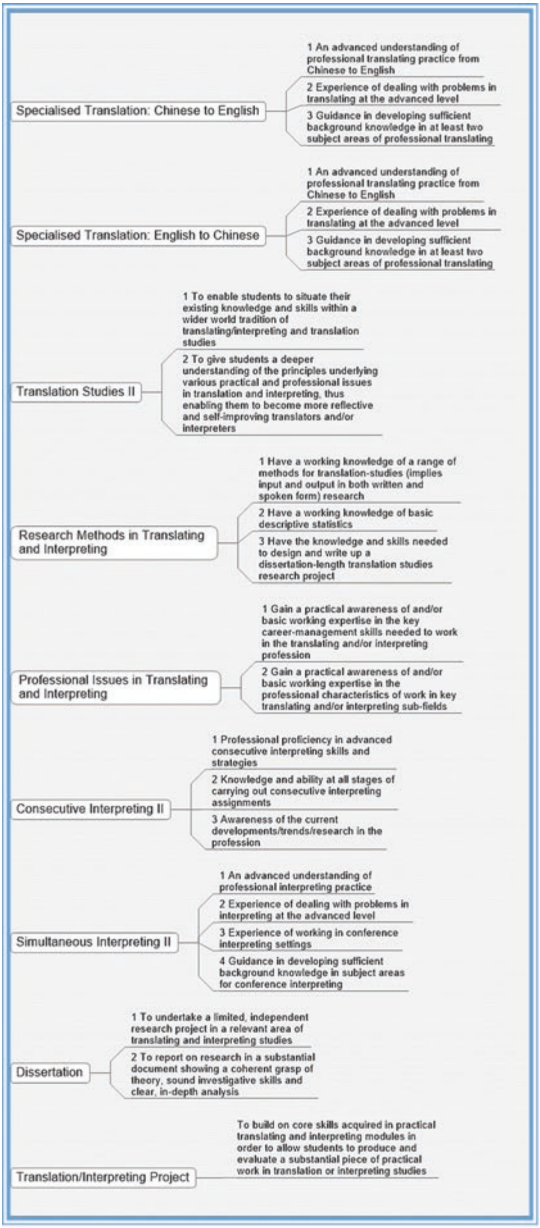


Fig. 3.3 Learning outcomes at the module level of the MATI at GB Case 1: Stage 2 Core

In addition to the above competences summarised from the three figures, GB Interviewee A also explained the importance of language competence (esp. B language) for a professional translator and interpreter. As for the MATI programme at GB Case 1, bilingual competence matters most, especially the enhancement of good English ability, which is also the B language for most students enrolled in its programmes. In their opinion, Chinese native speakers translate into English quite often, which requires the translators or interpreters to have good English in order not to create misunderstandings and problems. In this regard, they need to listen to and read good idiomatic English.

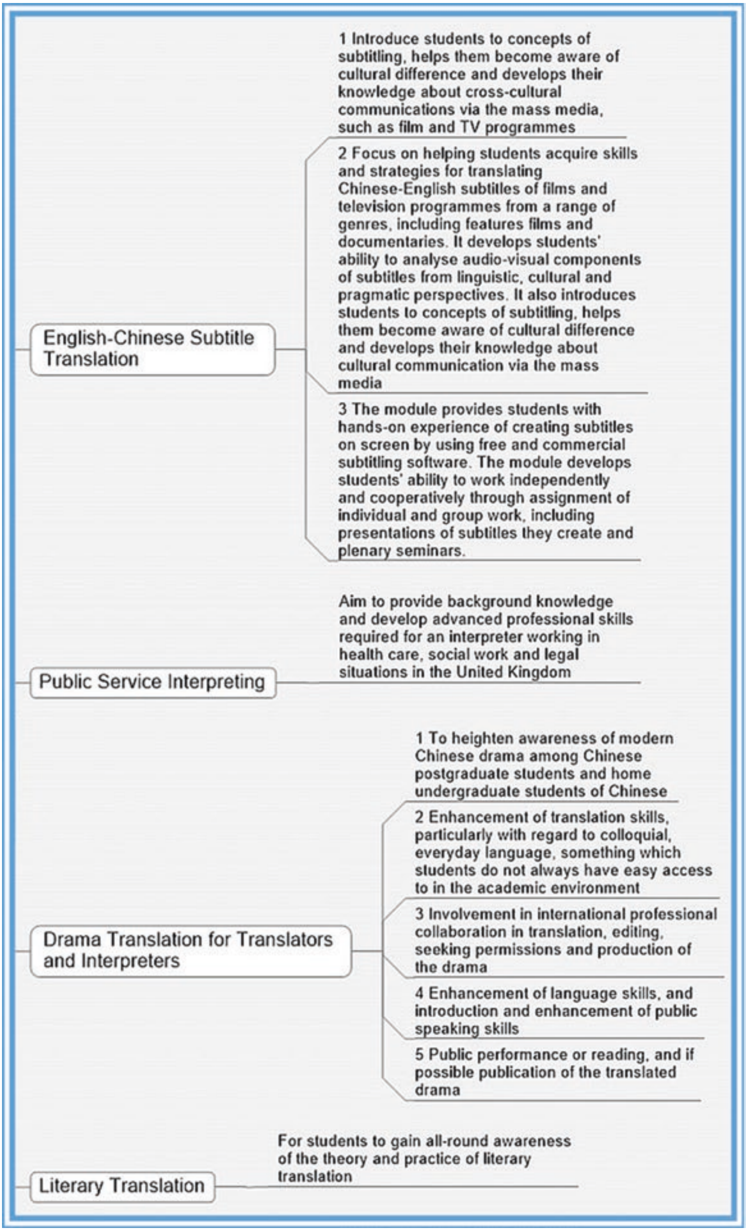
Although the MATI at GB Case 1 does not offer an independent English language module to provide students with a receptive and productive mastery of English, practising English is emphasised either in the modules of specialised translation (translating from and to students' A language) or in students' self-study practices.

The different aims and objectives of these three case studies can be summarised as differences between learning in practice and learning in theory. These different aims and learning outcomes also have impacts on the planning and delivery of course structure and module content. For example, there are more practice-based modules in GB Case 1's programme, and within each module, the proportion of practice outweighs the proportion of the theory input. For GB Case 2 and GB Case 3's programmes, however, all the core modules are theory-based, and the teaching content in each single module focuses more on theories, research methods and generic knowledge than on practical problem-solving skills. In the following, the author intends to explore the course structure and module content of each case study in more detail.

3.3 Module Content of Case Studies in the UK: What, How and Why

3.3.1 Credit-Based Course Structure: An Overview

In the UK, a degree course is normally credit-based. For example, a one-year postgraduate course should have/usually has/tends to have 180 credits in total, of which the dissertation (or targeted translation project in our context) takes up 60 credits. The MATIS at GB Case 2 and MATS at GB Case 3 follow this. According to the MATIS Programme


English-Chinese Subtitle Translation
1 Introduce students to concepts of subtitling, helps them become aware of cultural difference and develops their knowledge about cross-cultural communications via the mass media, such as film and TV programmes
2 Focus on helping students acquire skills and strategies for translating Chinese-English subtitles of films and television programmes from a range of genres, including features films and documentaries. It develops students' ability to analyse audio-visual components of subtitles from linguistic, cultural and pragmatic perspectives. It also introduces students to concepts of subtitling, helps them become aware of cultural difference and develops their knowledge about cultural communication via the mass media
3 The module provides students with hands-on experience of creating subtitles on screen by using free and commercial subtitling software. The module develops students' ability to work independently and cooperatively through assignment of individual and group work, including presentations of subtitles they create and plenary seminars.
Public Service Interpreting
Aim to provide background knowledge and develop advanced professional skills required for an interpreter working in health care, social work and legal situations in the United Kingdom
Drama Translation for Translators and Interpreters
1 To heighten awareness of modern Chinese drama among Chinese postgraduate students and home undergraduate students of Chinese
2 Enhancement of translation skills, particularly with regard to colloquial, everyday language, something which students do not always have easy access to in the academic environment
3 Involvement in international professional collaboration in translation, editing, seeking permissions and production of the drama
4 Enhancement of language skills, and introduction and enhancement of public speaking skills
5 Public performance or reading, and if possible publication of the translated drama
Literary Translation
For students to gain all-round awareness of the theory and practice of literary translation

◂ **Fig. 3.4** Learning outcomes at the module level of the MATI at GB Case 1: Stage 2 Optional (The subtitling module has been expanded to include games translation. Another two optional modules: 'Key Concepts in Corporate and Commercial Law' and 'Translating for the European Union's Institutions are also offered in Stage 2. As the learning outcomes of these two modules are already mentioned in Fig. 3.2, we do not repeat them here)

Handbook (2013/2014; 2014/2015), the taught component of the GB Case 2 combines core course units, specialist course units and a dissertation. Of these, core modules cover 45 credits over both the autumn and spring terms. This programme also provides ten practice-oriented and research-oriented optional modules, 150 credits altogether (15 credits per unit). Students are asked to choose five optional modules, covering 75 credits. In the summer term, students also need to finish a 60-credit dissertation or translation project. In GB Case 3, only compulsory modules are offered. In addition to the dissertation section, students are expected to study 120 credits of compulsory modules and are strongly advised to attend a translator's workshop, although this is voluntary.

However, the MATI at GB Case 1 University is slightly different regarding the distribution of credits. As mentioned earlier in this book, GB Case 1 offers two stages for its translating and interpreting programme. Students are enrolled either with a progression option (Stage 1 to Stage 2, which is two years) or directly into Stage 2 (one-year full-time). This is subject to students' willingness and levels, which means that students will obtain a diploma upon successful completion of their study if they do not wish to continue to the Stage 2 course in GB Case 1. In Stage 2, apart from the 60-credits dissertation or translation project, students are able to study 70-credits compulsory modules and to choose 50 other credits of optional modules.

3.3.2 Course Structure at Each Case Study: Allocation of Modules

In Sect. 3.1, the course aims of the three case studies are analysed in detail. The following sections will go through the delivery process of the course aims in each case study. In other words, the main discussion point in this section is whether this different allocation of modules is aligned with the different emphases of each programme. Table 3.4 demonstrates the modules offered in the MATIS at GB Case 2.

Table 3.4 Module content of the MATIS GB Case 2[a] (*Source* MATIS Programme Handbook 2014/2015)

Semesters	*Core modules*	*Optional modules*
Autumn	Translation and Interpreting Studies I Research Methods in Translation and Interpreting Studies I	Translating for International Organisations (P) Commercial Translation (P) Translation Technologies (P) Consecutive Interpreting (P)
Spring	Research Methods in Translation and Interpreting Studies II	Translation Project Management and Professional Ethics (P) Scientific and Technical Translation (P) Translation and Interpreting Studies II (R) Audiovisual Translation I (P) Translation and Media Culture (R) Public Service Interpreting (P)
Summer	Dissertation	

[a] *Note* P = Practice-oriented interpreting or translation options (involves language specific translation or interpreting work); R = Research-oriented options

From Table 3.4, it can be seen that all three core modules are theory-oriented. This programme puts all the modules relevant to practical translation under the section of optional units. For the 2014/2015 cohort, for example, 80% of the optional modules (8 out of 10) were practice-oriented. But the programme handbook also shows that a prerequisite for each optional module is that 'a minimum of 10 students is required to run this unit' (Programme Handbook 2014/2015, pp. 26–38), which indicates that these modules could be cancelled if too few students are enrolled in them.

It is also essential to point out that modules might change each year according to the availability of staff (e.g. member staff's research leave, maternity leave or other possible changes). For example, Cross-cultural Pragmatics (R) and Audiovisual Translation II (R) were not offered in 2014–2015, but offered in previous cohorts. In contrast, another two new modules: Translation Project Management and Professional Ethics (P) and Translation and Media Culture (R) were not offered in previous years, but provided in 2014–2015.

Table 3.5 Module content of the MATS at GB Case 3

Semesters	*Compulsory modules*	*Optional modules*
Autumn	Research Skills and Methods in Translation Studies (1) The Development of Translation Studies Translation Studies Option	The Translator's Workshop (voluntary)
Spring	Research Skills and Methods in Translation Studies (2) Current Issues in Translation Research and Practice	The Translator's Workshop (voluntary)
Summer	Dissertation	

The allocation of the modules in the MATIS at GB Case 2 shown in Table 3.4 is aligned with the programme's aims. The module content covers theories, research methods, practical translation in various specialised fields, and the workflow of professional translators which shows a balance of educational content and professional requirements. However, when it comes to the teaching content of several modules, there is still more abstract theory than practical skills (e.g. Commercial Translation, Scientific and Technical Translation). Illustrations of these examples are provided in the following sections in this chapter and in Chapter 5.

As regards the MATS at GB Case 3, its modules are shown in Table 3.5.

According to Table 3.5 as well as the programme handbook, all the compulsory modules in the GB Case 3's translation programme are theory-based except for a semi-practical module called the Translation Studies Option which allows students to specialise in the translation of a type of text of their choice, and to 'familiarise themselves with methods and tools especially relevant to it'. Four options are then provided, and students can 'select a broad theme from the below list and specialise within it in negotiation with the relevant tutor'.

- Translating sacred and literary texts
- Translating written genres and multimodal texts
- Interpreting
- Revising and editing for translators

(MATS Programme Handbook 2013/2014, p. 12)

Apart from the Translation Studies Options, the only practical content of MATS at GB Case 3 is the Translator's Workshop. This voluntary workshop is designed to help students simulate professional translation as well as to practise what they have learned in the lectures and experiment. Although this workshop is voluntary and run by students themselves, course designers do encourage every student to actively participate in it in order to gain the opportunity to practice a copious amount of translation; thus, when they complete their study and enter the translation profession, they will have built up the 'muscle', flexibility and versatility the job requires.

Based on the discussions above, it is clear that modules designed for GB Case 3's programme are fully aligned with its aims. Theory-based modules are the mainstream, and practice-based units are complementary to theory, and are intended to provide students with some practical skills in order to complement the field of specialisation of translation/interpreting for work performance.

As regards the translation programme at GB Case 1, Table 3.6 provides readers with the full list of modules offered in its course.

The course objectives always have an impact on the relevant course components. From Table 3.6, it is noted that many modules regarding professional skills for translation and interpreting are offered at GB Case 1 programme. In Stage 2 for example, five out of the nine core modules are practice-oriented, and five out of the six optional modules are practice-oriented. However, this does not mean that the MATI at GB Case 1 ignores the importance of theory. As a matter of fact, this programme has a balanced curriculum between theory and practice. In particular, there are overlaps and internal connections between theoretical and practical modules. For example, one of the core modules at Stage 2, Translation Studies II, aims to 'enable students to situate their existing knowledge and skills within a wider world tradition of translating/interpreting and translation studies', and to 'give students a deeper understanding of the principles underlying various practical and professional issues in translation and interpreting, thus enabling them to become more reflective and self-improving translators and/or interpreters' (see Fig. 3.3). In other words, the purpose of doing this is to link theory to practice and to help consolidate students' competences. In view of the above analysis, it can be summarised that the module content of the

Table 3.6 Module content of the MATI at GB Case 1[a]

Stages	*Compulsory modules*	*Optional modules*
Stage 1	Translating I Simultaneous Interpreting I Sight Translation Exercise Consecutive Interpreting Information Technology for Translators and Interpreters	Key Concepts in Corporate and Commercial Law Translating for the European Union's Institutions
Stage 2[b] (translating pathway)	Specialised Translation: Chinese to English Specialised Translation: English to Chinese Translation Studies II Research Methods in Translating and Interpreting Professional Issues in Translating and Interpreting Consecutive Interpreting II **OR** Simultaneous Interpreting II Dissertation **OR** Translation/Interpreting Report	English–Chinese Subtitle Translation Public Service Interpreting Drama Translation for Translators and Interpreters Literary Translation Key Concepts in Corporate and Commercial Law Translating for the European Union's Institutions tory of Translation

[a]Modules might change each year according to the availability of staff

[b]According to the previous introduction, students enrolled in Stage 2 mainly come from two channels: (1) upgrading from Stage 1; (2) Direct entry to Stage 2 if they meet the Stage 2 entry requirement. Therefore, there are overlapping modules between Stage 1 and Stage 2. Similarly, although four pathways (Translating; Interpreting; Translating and Interpreting; Translation Studies) are provided at Stage 2, students focusing on different pathways still have several common modules

MATI at GB Case 1 is aligned with its course aims which intend to cover both professional and academic training (see Table 3.3). Those practice-oriented modules, on the one hand, provide students with translation competences, knowledge of specialist areas and issues, ethics and principles of work in the T&I profession. On the other hand, consistent with Shih's findings from her (2011) study on possible benefits of translation theory, the theory-based modules at GB Case 1 provide students with opportunities to relate theories to their practice and to consolidate their understanding of translation as a whole.

3.3.3 Specific Capabilities of Becoming a Translator: Reflected in Module Content

In Chapter 2, an integrated map of market standards from Europe, the UK and China has been created (see Table 2.3), which can represent the industry needs regionally, nationally and even internationally. These standards, in summary, are linguistic competence, translation competence, professionalism, knowledge of translation theory and extra-linguistic knowledge. Taking this integrated map as a benchmark for designing and developing a curriculum for a translation degree, the above five parameters are partially covered in the three programmes, but are presented in different ways. In addition, all three case studies are university-based postgraduate programmes, yet vocational training schools and academic conventions (e.g. research skills and methods) also need to be considered. Therefore, on the basis of Table 2.3, the author has designed a composite model (see Table 3.7) including requirements from both academia and the profession to calibrate how the three case studies in the UK deliver their courses, and to investigate how these module contents relate to the course aims and objectives.

Before continuing this topic, it is worth pointing out here that there are two dimensions in analysing the connections between the specific translating capabilities and pertinent modules: (1) specific module(s) are established to provide relevant capabilities; and (2) these capabilities are already included with module content. Table 3.8 is then designed to examine how the capabilities (Table 3.7) are reflected in the module content. In so doing, Tables 3.7 and 3.8 need to be examined in parallel.

Two aspects of the competences shown in Table 3.8 stand out. Firstly, none of the three cases include linguistic competences as independent modules nor are the three indicators of linguistic competence reflected in the contents of translation-related modules. Even when analysing the source text(s), more attention is paid to the features of texts instead of the enhancement of pure language, or differences between A and B languages. In the module content at GB Case 2 and GB Case 3, linguistic competence is rarely mentioned. Although course designers from the MATI at the GB Case 1 University stress the significance of English language input, relevant modules are not offered; instead, improving English language ability runs through students' self-practices in UK universities.

Table 3.7 Capabilities required in university-based translation programmes

Competences/abilities	*Indicators*[a]
Linguistic competence	1. Knowing Chinese language (A language) 2. Knowing English language (B language) 3. Knowing transferrable skills between A and B
Translation competence	1. Ability to analyse source text effectively 2. Strategies to cope with difficulties 3. Translating from B to A 4. Translating from A to B 5. Using computer-aided translation tools 6. Knowing new skills for a changing market
Professionalism	1. Workflow of translation tasks 2. Professional ethics 3. Client education 4. Developing professionalism for translators
Research and theory	1. Relevant translation/interpreting theories[b] 2. Independent research ability 3. Critical thinking ability
Extra-linguistic knowledge	1. Subject area knowledge or cross-disciplinary knowledge 2. Interdisciplinary knowledge (e.g. linguistics/literature) 3. Cross-cultural knowledge

[a]The detailed contents of each indicator in this table can be referred back to Chapter 2: market standards
[b]Table 2.3 (the market standards) includes knowledge of translation theory; however, translation theory from the perspective of the market mainly concentrates on translation practices and analyses production in light of the theory, which is application-oriented. In this table, the indicator 'Relevant translation/interpreting theories' consists of the broad range of topics covered in Translation Studies, including the history of translation studies, translation philosophy etc. which are academic-oriented

This is because setting up a specific module for improving both students' A and B language is controversial. Some scholars (e.g. Seleskovitch and Lederer 1989) argue that as bilingualism is the premise of translation, it is essential that students should have high proficiency in both languages before being admitted into the translation programme. Some recent scholars (e.g. Vienne 1994; Orozco and Hurtado Albir 2002; PACTE 2003) also think that translator education should focus on the improvement of relevant translating skills rather than language competence, therefore they have excluded language or linguistic competence when defining core competences for translation. As Wang (2010, p. 58) also notes, the lack of attention to developing students' language abilities is the major indicator when distinguishing language teaching and the education of translation.

Table 3.8 Competence-based curriculum map of case studies in the UK

Competences	*Indicators*	*GB Case 2*	*GB Case 3*	*GB Case 1*
Linguistic competence	1			
	2			
	3			
Translation competence	1	•	•	•
	2	•	•	•
	3	•	•	•
	4			•
	5	•	•	•
	6	•		•
Professionalism	1	•		•
	2	•		•
	3	•	•	•
	4	•		•
Research theory	1	•	•	•
	2	•	•	•
	3	•	•	•
Extra-linguistic knowledge	1			•[a]
	2			
	3[b]	•		

[a]The indicator 'Subject area knowledge' was newly introduced as an independent module (Key Concepts in Corporate and Commercial Law) in GB Case 1's programme in the 2014/15 cohort. The learning outcomes of this module have been introduced in Fig. 3.2. In previous cohorts, subject area knowledge was mainly associated with two modules of specialised translation, where students were encouraged to develop a certain degree of background knowledge in at least two subject areas in the T&I profession
[b]The module named 'Cross-Cultural Pragmatics' of MATIS at GB Case 2 was not offered in 2014/15 cohort, but in previous years. However, this module is research-oriented according to the description in the programme handbook, paying more attention to theoretical input rather than solving concrete tensions or misunderstandings in cross-cultural communications. More details are discussed in the following parts

In theory, students who study a postgraduate translation and/or interpreting programme should already have a higher level of language abilities. That is to say, language enhancement should not be one of the teaching targets. Instead, at postgraduate level, emphasis should be put on translation competence and professional issues to become a qualified translator. However, for the English–Chinese language combination, matters may be more complicated. Firstly, Gile (2010, p. 18) did particular research on Chinese students' English levels, and concluded that the vast majority of students enrolled in English/Chinese translation and interpreting courses in both China and the UK are native speakers of Chinese whose acquaintance with foreign languages is usually on the basis of language courses at school. Their needs for language enhancement are relatively much higher than those of their counterparts in the West (see also Sect. 2.5). Secondly, despite the fact that students who study translation courses in the UK have more opportunity to be immersed in the English language and culture, a major enhancement in language competence cannot be realised in a short period of time. Thirdly, both English and Chinese for translators and interpreters differ from conversational English and Chinese. If an independent module on 'Advanced English for Translators' were established, experienced tutors who are native English speakers could help students develop their linguistic ability associated with communication tasks at a translating and interpreting level. Finally, from the perspective of the market, accurate understanding of source texts is always a very important indicator when assuring quality of translators' work.

The significance of linguistic competence for a translator has also been proposed by Maria González Davies (2004, p. 132) in her book *Multiple Voices in the Translation Classroom*, arguing that although the level of language competence and performance vary broadly according to students' ability, aptitudes and attitudes, the greater their command of the languages involved in the translation, the better. She also explains that 'this is good moment to emphasise not only the importance of the source language (usually their L2, B language), but also the even greater importance of correct expression in the target language (usually their L1, A language) and of being aware of interferences and negative transfer' (ibid., p. 132). Thus, it seems necessary for course designers to consider the importance of embedding English language enhancement into the curriculum.

Normally, students would not have problems in understanding their native language, in our case Chinese. But producing equivalent and idiomatic Chinese is also indispensable in the process of English to Chinese translation. Students who study translation programmes (both in China and the UK) are mostly English major graduates, who have received limited education about Chinese languages and cultures at undergraduate level. Similar to the point proposed above, Chinese translation language, especially for written translation, differs from conversational Chinese, which indicates that an English–Chinese translator also needs to have strong writing abilities in Chinese.

However, this indicator has not aroused much attention in the UK context. This is primarily because translation courses in British universities are usually included in the department of modern languages and/or cultures (Bassnett 2008; Munday 2012), which are oriented more towards European languages. Secondly, from a traditional perspective, an English–Chinese translation pathway is developed on the basis of European language combinations. Therefore, although there are more diversities than similarities between Western and Eastern cultures, in most British universities, the practical model of English–Chinese translation courses is very much the same as translating between European languages. An exception is GB Case 1 which separates its programmes into a Chinese strand and a European strand. From the interview with GB Interviewee A, the Chinese market was indeed an important factor when designing the course. Table 3.8 also shows that GB Case 1 is the only programme that offers Chinese into English translation, but there is still space for enhancement of Chinese language.

The second aspect of Table 3.8 which stands out is that a 'research and theory' unit is fully embedded in the curricula of all the three cases. For instance, the three core modules (Translation and Interpreting Studies I; Research Methods in Translation & Interpreting Studies I; Research Methods in Translation & Interpreting Studies II) of MATIS at GB Case 2 are designed to provide students with knowledge of contemporary theories of translation and interpreting, with a broad range of methods to conduct independent research in the area of translation and interpreting, and with critical thinking ability to solve potential difficulties as well as to review and reflect on their own tasks. Moreover, GB Case 3's programme deems all the modules as research and theory-oriented. Even the professionally oriented programme in GB Case 1 includes a 'research and theory' unit offering two theory-based core modules (Translation Studies and Research Methods in Translating and Interpreting). Based on the description above, it can be concluded that this method of designing mode coincides with UK universities' long tradition on research.

In addition to the two aspects discussed above, the three cases have different emphases regarding the remaining competences: translation competence, professionalism and extra-linguistic competence. Initially, five out of the six indicators of translation competence (Table 3.8) are included in all the three cases in the UK, except for the ability to translate from A to B. This indicates that developing students' translating skills is the consensus among the three translation programmes, even though they have different methods to fulfil this. GB Case 1's programme, Stage 2 for example, arranges two core modules (specialised translation from B to A/A to B) to enhance students' translation competence. Meanwhile, another five optional modules regarding translating in different contexts (audiovisual/literary/drama/international organisations) are provided. The MATIS at GB Case 2 also offers students opportunities to study and practice different aspects of translation. This programme puts all the practical translation units in optional modules and divides these units into various areas such as science and technology, commerce, audiovisual and literature. As mentioned previously, all the modules included in GB Case 3's programme are theory-oriented, but course designers of this programme still cannot exclude translation competence completely due to the pressure of job seeking. Therefore, they try their best to add practice-based units into the module content, including the voluntary workshop for practical translation.

It is also worth pointing out that, in Tables 3.7 and 3.8, only GB Case 1's programme contains Chinese–English translation in its curriculum, offering an independent module at Stage 2. Moreover, in the module 'Translating I' at Stage 1, Chinese–English translation tasks are also very common. Half the module is devoted to Chinese–English translation, with a dedicated, native English teacher. But for the other two cases, there is a different situation. Translating from Chinese (A) into English (B) is neither part of the practical exercises in classes of professional translation nor a module at GB Case 2 and GB Case 3.[3] This shows that translating from A to B is still a controversial issue. According to Hatim (2005, p. 164), the consensus in most European translator training organisations is that translating into the mother tongue is the 'normal' direction. Nevertheless, in real settings, translating into the major foreign languages is very much in demand, where native speakers of these languages are a small population (ibid., p. 167). In China, with increasing communications in business, trade, technology and other sectors, the need for much translation into English is especially obvious.

It is also clear that the importance of computer-aided translation tools (indicator 5 of translation competence, Table 3.7), which is highly demanded in the market, has received increasing attention. Both MATI at GB Case 1 and MATIS at GB Case 2 offer relevant modules with the aim of familiarising students in the use of technologies needed in the translating process, ranging from terminology research to document production. GB Case 3's programme does not provide students with such a separate module to deal with technological tools for translators, but the interview revealed that a short course on SDL Trados has been involved in this programme in order to enhance their students' employability. More specifically, similar to the translator's workshop, this SDL Trados short course is another voluntary element of this degree in GB Case 3. A series of introductions are designed, and a certificate exam is also included. If students pass the exam, they will be awarded the Level 1 certificate of SDL Trados. Clearly, all these three cases have realised the efficiency of using computers or technological tools to provide professionally presented documents (translated texts) in this modern world.

Although translation activities are in some sense language activities, translation is also essentially a communicative activity that takes place within clear sociocultural and historical contexts (Xu 2002, p. 223), which also means that translators work as communicators and mediators between different cultures, nations and disciplines. Thus, it is essential for students—tomorrow's translators—to master some knowledge beyond this field. Extra-linguistic competence therefore has a role to play. In this study, this level of competence has three strands: (1) subject area knowledge or, in other words, cross-disciplinary knowledge; (2) interdisciplinary knowledge; and (3) cross-cultural knowledge.

The first strand: subject area competence within extra-linguistic competence has two dimensions regarding curriculum content: first, an independent module on relevant subject area knowledge in which there is little or no translation input (e.g. Introduction to International Business); second, modules that relate to translating for different subject areas (e.g. translating for legal purposes, translating for the business world). The first dimension focuses on the accumulation of knowledge in certain areas, which requires translation students themselves to link the knowledge to their translation practices. In a university-based programme, this model often needs collaboration between different academic schools or departments. The second dimension is initially keen on examining different features (linguistic, grammatical, register) of different subject area-based source texts and then on producing accurately translated target texts.

In our own context, based on the findings in Tables 3.4, 3.5 and 3.6, subject area knowledge included in the curricula of the three cases is mostly related to the second dimension. For example, the MATIS at GB Case 2 has grouped all the practice-oriented translation options under the section of optional modules, including translating for different contexts. Subject areas range from audiovisual translation and commercial translation, to scientific and technical translation, and translating for international organisations.

In addition to the two core modules which are designed for English–Chinese specialised translation practices, GB Case 1 also offers optional modules regarding subject area knowledge, such as ‘Drama Translation for Translators and Interpreters’; ‘Translating for the European Union’s Institutions’ (newly introduced); ‘English–Chinese Subtitle Translation’. In this way, students become familiar with as many specialised translations as possible. Moreover, GB Case 1 also has one module in relation to the first dimension. This programme, in collaboration with the Law School GB Case 1, set up for the 2014/2015 cohort an independent module entitled ‘Key Concepts in Corporate and Commercial Law’, which mainly covers ‘basic legal terms and concepts, particularly in the areas of contract and company law’[4]; but also places some emphasis on issues in legal translation.

Due to the fact that GB Case 3’s programme contains fewer practice-based units in its curriculum, it is reasonable for this programme not to have many modules concerning subject area knowledge. For example, in the module of ‘Translation Studies Option’, written genres (e.g. advertising material, literary prose, news media texts and poetry) and multimodal texts (e.g. vocal music, dramatic texts, websites) are covered, but in view of the syllabus outline and key reading texts, critical analysis of the above genres and texts is the main teaching content (MATS Postgraduate Handbook 2013/2014, pp. 14–16). In the practice-based translators’ workshop, although students are encouraged to produce short pieces of translation on a regular basis, the chosen texts are general texts instead of specialised ones.[5] Apart from the texts for translating purposes, students are strongly encouraged to critically think about their translating processes. The critical-based questions suggest that learning through reflecting rather than learning by practising is the main method for this workshop.

Subject area competence for the translator has been the centre of much debate within the profession. The European Commission, for example, clearly states in its advertisements that it wants ‘future translators who are familiar with economics, financial affairs and legal matters, technical or scientific fields’ (Kelly 2005, p. 26). Furthermore, job advertisements looking for graduates in medicine to carry out medical translation tasks still appear in the press. As Gouadec (2007) argues, several translators also consider that the greater subject area knowledge a professional translator has, the better for the practice of specialised translation. A parallel expression for subject area competence is specialisation.

Students may at least build up their authentic expertise after they choose their own specialisation(s). From this perspective, all students should be prepared and ready to specialise by domain as soon as possible, although the choice of subject area will depend very much on demand and circumstances (Gouadec 2007, p. 347). Moreover, subject area competence is desired in the basic translator job profile, and employers in the translation market may have much higher expectations of trainee translators (ibid., p. 349).

However, the issue of subject area knowledge (specialisation) enhancement is controversial. As Gouadec points out (2007, p. 349), universities are not vocational schools, but places for research and theory. Thus, students may have to develop their own knowledge of subject areas or translation experience for certain domains either through internships or during the first few months after they start practising as translators. Graduates with a too narrowly defined specialisation would run the risk of being excluded from certain market sectors on the grounds that their specialist profiles would not fit in. Hence, how much weight should be given to subject area knowledge in a university-based translating course needs to be considered by course designers.

The second indicator of extra-linguistic competence, interdisciplinary knowledge, is not fully embedded into the curricula of the three cases in the UK. As mentioned before, translation programmes in the UK are normally included in the academic schools/departments of modern languages and/or cultures. Interdisciplinary knowledge (see also Chapter 5), as summarised by Professor Jeremy Munday, here refers to:

- linguistics (especially semantics, pragmatics, applied and contrastive linguistics, cognitive linguistics);
- modern languages and language studies;
- comparative literature;
- cultural studies (including gender studies and postcolonial studies); and
- philosophy (of language and meaning, including hermeneutics and deconstruction and ethics).

(2012, pp. 24–25)

In the three case programmes, some of the above topics are included in the modules such as translation theory, or history of translation studies, but not displayed as independent modules. Possible modules such as 'Translation and Language Teaching and Learning'; 'Translation and Discourse Analysis' are rarely seen in the curricula of the three chosen cases. But concepts and knowledge of the above areas proposed by Munday appear in modules like Translation Studies (e.g. MATIS at GB Case 2) because there are always overlaps between Translation Studies and Linguistics, Literature and more.

As regards the third indicator of extra-linguistic competence, only MATIS at GB Case 2 offers an optional module called 'Cross-Cultural Pragmatics'. The other two cases, GB Case 1 and GB Case 3 may include relevant knowledge of cross-cultural communications in their teaching materials or along with the explanation of certain translation exercises, but neither of these two programmes offers an independent module on this. However, the module covered in GB Case 2 is research-oriented and is not language specific. Although knowledge of cultural orientations and broader theories of cross-cultural communication are touched upon, this module as a whole, from the perspective of its contents, teaching method and assessment, is intended to develop students' research expertise in the field of intercultural communication. More specifically, this module aims to,

> Enable students to engage with some of the main theoretical traditions in socio-pragmatics, socio-linguistics, ethnography and linguistic anthropology, with particular emphasis on theories which offer productive ways of looking at translation and interpreting events. (MATIS Programme Handbook 2013/2014, p. 31)

Nonetheless, this module fails to discuss solving tangible problems occurring during the process of cross-cultural communications, let alone discussing the role of translators and interpreters on such occasions (e.g. diplomatic occasions, business negotiations). So to what extent can we make cross-cultural communication more practical or target-oriented? We may find illuminating answers from the perspective of professional needs according to the *National Occupational Standards in Translation UK* (see also Chapter 2): cross-cultural communication can be understood as familiarity with the cultures of the languages to which translators translate, their conventions for communication and the implications for localising translated texts. Kelly offers a similar opinion, suggesting that for translators, it is essential to 'acquire competence (know-how) in their working cultures' perceptions, myths, beliefs, values, stereotypes, and so on' (2005, p. 74).

For translation programmes whose aims (or at least one aim) are to enable their students to become qualified professional translators, it is logical to examine their curricula by looking at professional engagement. Table 3.7 summarises four indicators of profession-related issues: (1) workflow translation tasks (or related translation project management); (2) professional ethics; (3) client education; and (4) developing professionalism for translators. Each indicator consists of different aspects which have been explained in Chapter 2. In view of our case studies, professional issues are included in the curricula of both GB Case 1 and GB Case 2, but differ from each other in specific aspects. But professional issues are paid less attention in GB Case 3's programme.

Firstly, GB Case 1's programme offers a compulsory module concerning the translating profession (see Table 3.6). This 'Professional Issues in Translating and Interpreting' module[6] offering an over-arching framework, is intended to develop students' professional skills. There are two main aims for this module: the key career-management skills needed to work in the translating and interpreting professions, as well as the professional characteristics of work in key translating sub-fields. In addition, this module is team staffed, and each team member has his/her own expertise. As regarded in/by the interview, the module convenor is an editorial theorist who specialises in poetry and literature. Two other professionals specialise in the fields of law and medicine, and an expert who runs an agency is also in the team. S/he can introduce how people are employed and paid. In sum, this module is led by one in-house staff member and another three professionals who deliver career structures, working methods, professional organisations, professionalism and ethics. The rationale for designing in this way is to provide students with a wider variety of expertise because all the staff members have their own areas of interests and expertise.

Apart from introducing professional issues to the students, GB Case 1's programme contains a section named 'consulting informants' in the translating module(s), which is intended to help students learn how to consult colleagues or seniors in their future work. Consulting informants, in fact, is a reflection of the market needs, for any translators who work professionally may get stuck with difficulties. To surmount these, consulting someone is always a useful method. Although the Internet is a useful medium to identify information, a *vis-à-vis* consultancy can be more reliable. Moreover, 'consulting informants' is a method that indirectly enhances students' interpersonal skills, which is another indispensable capability required by the translation market.

Secondly, MATIS at GB Case 2 behaves differently in dealing with professional issues. Relevant knowledge in certain domains is included in modules of specialised translation. In 'Translating for International Organisations', for example, the specific context and practices of translating for International Organisations (IO), such as the European Union (EU) and the United Nations (UN), are introduced to students who are interested in working for such an organisation. In this module, varied tasks required of IO translators (i.e. précis writing, web translation) as well as careers as a translator for an IO are thoroughly presented (MATIS Programme Handbook 2013/2014, p. 32). This programme, as mentioned previously, introduced a new optional module to the 2014/2015 cohort called 'Translation Project Management and Professional Ethics', aiming to familiarise students with typical professional practices in the translation sector and giving students an opportunity to assume and practise various roles (e.g. freelance translator, translation project manager, translation reviser, post-editor of machine translation). Meanwhile, a range of theoretical approaches are introduced in this single module to help students to conceptualise the translation sector and their prospective role within it, understand the importance of professional ethics and empower them as reflective professionals (MATIS Programme Handbook 2014/2015, p. 38).

Finally, despite the fact that the MATS at GB Case 3 is theory and research-oriented, and offers fewer practice-based modules, course designers still cannot entirely neglect the importance of professional requirements. But compared to the other two cases, professional input in GB Case 3's programme only serves a complementary role to the core theoretical modules. All the relevant knowledge and activities are included in the translators' workshop. The interview revealed that it is known that in the translators' workshop, designers explain certain issues from the professional world, such as the workflow of a freelance translator, ranging from providing a purchase order to the details of charge. But professional issues like 'professional ethics' (indicator 2 within professionalism, Table 3.8) and 'continuing professional development' (indicator 4 within professionalism, Table 3.8) are not introduced to students. Indicator 3, 'client education', is partially mentioned.

From the perspective of teaching and methods, students are encouraged to organise different groups by themselves and take different roles, and use screen-recording software to record their performances for reflective work in the near future. Actually, role play is a very welcome teaching technique, and a survey has revealed that it is 'used in 62% of training programmes' (Harris and DeSimone 1994, p. 151). When applying role play to translation activities, it can be understood as students assuming different roles for different tasks. Within a small group, roles are allocated to mimic professional situations. To be more explicit, one student may act as the client/commissioner, another as the terminologist, the translator, the project manager or the financial assistant to perform a mock translation workflow. This, to some extent, is an effective way for students to understand working situations in the translating profession. However, with reference to this type of activity, attention should be paid to make sure that roles are switched; otherwise, some students tend to take on a role that they are good at and will never try other characters. In this situation, teachers serve as guides and consultants who can help set the stage for learning events in which students will be immersed in professional translating roles by experiencing realistic simulated activities.

Translation as a career in a narrow sense may include bilingual translators and interpreters. The basic job profile for a translator might be someone who carries out all of the tasks that make up the provision of a translation to a client (work provider) (Gouadec 2007, p. 113). In contrast, interpreting, according to Phelan (2008, p. 6), takes place when one person translates orally what he or she hears into another language. The action is different, but the essence is the same: exchanging information between two languages. However, speaking from a broad sense, there are far more roles than translator and interpreter in the professional world, either within in-house agencies or for a freelance worker. In-house/freelance translators, terminologists, post-editors, proofreaders, project managers, cultural mediators or even language administrators are important roles in the translating profession. In addition to these desirable competences of translators in the market, it is also necessary to introduce knowledge of translation as a career to the students. Acknowledging more information beyond the university is a means of improving students' employability. In this respect, the three case programmes in this study have taken measures to familiarise students with the basic rules of being a professional in the translating profession, but in varying degrees.

3.4 Professionally or Theoretically Oriented Approach to Translation Teaching

Before discussing the specific feature of each case study, it is important to highlight that although training schools and vocational translating courses constitute a certain amount of the market share, it is not the focal point in this study. Due to the fact that all three chosen cases in the UK are university-based programmes, the main discussion point should be whether the academic translation programmes should be theoretically or professionally oriented, and what the differences are. To be more explicit, these two different approaches may also bring up other minor controversial issues, such as preparing students for the world or for the workplace, learning for interest or learning for jobs.

Based on the previous analysis in this chapter, it is not difficult to draw the conclusion that the key differences between these three cases are associated with different aspects of a professionally oriented approach and a theoretically oriented approach to translation teaching. More specifically, though GB Case 1 is a research-intensive university, its translation programme is closer to professional practice. In our own field, as explained by Way (2009, p. 131), this implies providing students with skills and competences required by practising translators in the workplace. This professionally oriented feature of GB Case 1's programme is fully aligned with its course objectives, module content and teaching activities. 'Profession', 'practice' and 'application' are three keywords to describe this programme. Of course, theories and research abilities are not entirely excluded in this programme; instead, two research-oriented modules are established to develop students' intellectual knowledge, critical thinking and reflective learning ability.

Another case, the MATS at GB Case 3 contrasts with GB Case 1's programme, being theoretically oriented in both course aims and module content (see Sects. 3.2 and 3.3). Also, in conversation with GB Interviewee C, it was revealed that practical skills for translators are not the most important target for this programme; instead, translation theory, intellectual learning or reflective learning matter more. In this regard, 'theory', 'research' and 'reflective learning' are three keywords for GB Case 3's programme.

Similarly, according to GB Interviewee B, it was acknowledged that this programme, on the one hand, tends to prepare students for studying Ph.D. degrees. On the other hand, this MATIS programme is keen to help its students to occupy the highest positions within their chosen fields in the future. If students are going to industry, course designers of this programme hope they will be leaders in the industry. They would like their students to have a real impact on the industry in a positive way, which can be understood as students being expected to embrace their responsibility and to make an impact on society. Moreover, it is hoped that MATIS graduates can have a broad view of how to become an intellectual communicator rather than pure practitioner. A foundation for this really has to be laid in the theoretical modules.

GB Case 2's strategic plan for the university (2015/2020 version) shows that GB Case 2 focuses strongly on research and leadership. For example, world-class research is one of their strategic visions. Also, to make GB Case 2 a top 25 university worldwide is a core part of their mission. An institution's development plan may shed some light on every single discipline. A translation course is also included. The impact of the university's strategic plan might be another implicit factor when designing the course content for the MATIS programme. It is true that both the GB Case 2 itself and its language-related disciplines (including Translation Studies) are excellent in research. In the recently published Research Excellence Framework (2014), GB Case 2 ranked in the top five in terms of overall research achievements, while the language-related academic school was confirmed as a leading centre for the study of the arts, languages and cultures (including TS) in the UK.

Despite the fact that 'research achievements' and 'ambition' are two keywords for MATIS at GB Case 2, practice-based units take up a certain amount of weight in the overall curriculum, at least as shown in Tables 3.4 and 3.8. More specifically, Table 3.4 indicates to readers that there are many more practice-based optional modules than theory-oriented ones. In Table 3.8, the majority of the market indicators are reflected in the MATIS modules. Nevertheless, a detailed analysis of the synopsis and teaching activities of one single module reveals that a practice-oriented module is taught in a theoretical way, and the module 'Scientific and Technical Translation' is such an example. From the perspective of its teaching contents, two areas are mainly focused on:

> One area of focus is the design, delivery and use of technical products, i.e. the translation and localisation of material aimed at end-users (instruction manuals, technical specifications, product data sheets, etc.) as well as the translation of patents in the product design phase. A second area of focus is the role of translation in the shaping of knowledge, i.e. the translation of specialised scientific articles and popular science texts. (MATIS Programme Handbook 2014/2015, p. 33)

From the above description, the teaching content of this module relies heavily on instructor's exposition rather than on students' own practice of translating scientific texts. Moreover, teaching activities of this module also demonstrated this knowledge-based teaching. This module is delivered through a combination of lectures and language specific tutorials. Of these, there are 11 lectures open to all language combinations, while only four language specific language tutorials are offered for students to focus on practical translation work (ibid., p. 33). Due to the limitations of students having different language combinations, it is easier to run more lectures which can accommodate every student.

Based on the discussion above, it can be concluded that there are indeed enough available resources regarding theory and research in MATIS at GB Case 2, but regarding the employability of the students and the pressure from the market, this programme must also consider practical skills, especially in the light of changes in higher education. Therefore, it is acknowledged that the MATIS at GB Case 2 is actually struggling with how much weight to give to theory-based content and how much to practice-based content as well as how to bring professional practices into its translation curriculum and classrooms. This dilemma in fact represents the situation of most translation programmes in the UK.

In summary, there are many factors causing the different orientations of these three cases, such as social needs, professional standards, institutional constraints, student/trainee profiles and more (Kelly 2005). But from an in-depth point of view, the root cause of the design and delivery of a degree course is the education ideal and education resources of a higher education institution. Chapter 5 will then thoroughly discuss how education resources can influence the orientation (theoretical or practical) of the translation programmes after compiling the case analysis in China.

3.5 Summary

To conclude: establishing, maintaining and evaluating connections between curricula and research are quite normal among British universities, which are more theory-based. Integrating current research accomplishments into the teaching and learning process has many benefits. Healey, in support of research-driven curriculum content, argues (2005, p. 67) that 'students are likely to gain most benefit from research, in terms of depth of learning and understanding, when they are also involved in research, for example, through various forms of active learning'. In so doing, students become confident in their ability to apply concepts while gaining professional experience which in return benefits the subject and faculty (Kaiser-Drobney 1997).

Theory, from the viewpoint of Biggs and Tang (2011, p. 45), makes us aware that there is a problem and it helps to generate a solution to that problem. In this way, students of translation programmes in both GB Case 2 and 3 may obtain a rich array of general concepts from a macro outlook and then have the ability to apply them to practical translation tasks. Gouadec predicts (2007, p. 361) that 'Universities, not wanting to be accused of becoming too 'vocational', will shelter behind the cosy walls of 'academia''. This is not only common in our field, but is also true in other subjects. According to van der Merwe et al. (2014, p. 278), the UK education framework is supplemented by subject benchmark statements for specific fields drawn up by leading academics, with no direct affiliation to any professional body. Back to our own subject, we have discussed several times in Chapters 1 and 2 that many scholars in the field of Translation Studies advocate that translating programmes should adopt market needs into the curriculum (e.g. Dollerup 1994; Anderman and Rogers 2000; Fraser 2000; Li 2001; Kelly 2005; Schäffner 2012). The effectiveness of knowing what the profession wants cannot be denied as the vast majority of our students will leave university immediately after graduation and enter the professional world. Lack of professional skills may prevent them from becoming competitive employees.

Of course, some scholars have shown their concerns about going too far down the vocational road. Peach (2010), for instance, warns that professionalism within universities may cause the explosion of vocational subjects, decreasing the prominence of academic knowledge. However, applying market needs to the current university-based curriculum does not mean the elimination of research or academic skills. There is no doubt that education received in universities means far more than merely acquiring working skills needed in the profession. It is not an apprenticeship. On the contrary,

> Professionally oriented courses must be supported by theoretical analyses of the process involved (models as the outcome of research programmes) and the models should be grounded in a clear perception and understanding of professional realities and constraints. (Gouadec 2007, p. 368)

Actually there is no need to worry about the status of 'theory' in translator training programmes. Professionally oriented research has already found its place in translation theories, feeding appropriately into the applied branch of translation studies proposed by Holmes and Toury (Munday 2008). To be more precise, market research, in the field of business studies, has been recognised for several years and is used as one of the most common types of research in commercial curriculum development. It is consumer-oriented research about the customer and what the customer wants (Clements 2007, p. 45). With reference to translation studies, solid research projects about the translation profession still need to be established. For those subjects with a strong practical character, developing new research models about market needs may actually enrich academic areas.

There are still tensions between research-based curriculum content and market needs. Our three case programmes have their own dilemmas in balancing theoretical and professional pedagogies. This is not easy, but it does not mean we cannot fix the problem. In Chapter 5, the tension between education (professionally oriented units) and training (theoretically oriented units) in a university-based degree course will reappear, and detailed analysis of this 'tension' might provide educators with possible suggestions for improvements in the future.

Notes

1. Students who choose the Interpreting pathway also need to take a certain amount of translating modules.
2. The rationale of asking students to do both translation and interpreting is summarised from the interview with GB Interviewee A.

3. The GB Case 3 programme was used to require students to finish translation assignments both from and into their mother tongue every week, but cancelled translating exercises into their foreign languages since the 2013/14 cohort because students were complaining that there were too many assignments to finish every week.
4. This content is required from GB Case 1's module catalogue.
5. Detailed teaching contents of the translators' workshop cannot be accessed openly; but GB Interviewee C has kindly provided the author with internal materials for research purposes.
6. The details regarding this module are summarised based on the module catalogue and the conversation with GB Interviewee A.

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CHAPTER 4

Analysis of Current Curricula in the Chinese MTI Programme

4.1 Introduction

As outlined in previous chapters, China's continued economic growth and social development have brought an increasing demand for translators, interpreters and language professionals in the process of political, economic and cultural exchanges between China and the world. Along with the surging industry, the education of translators and interpreters has been booming in China (Wang and Mu 2009, p. 267). The MTI programme has been established in such a broad context.

The MTI programme, established as a professionally oriented degree course, has a very specific aim to ensure its graduates become high calibre professional translators to serve the nation's economic, social and cultural development. This aim could be achieved through 'training' by providing students with a significant number of transferrable employability-related course components. From the perspective of our three cases, they have each formulated their own objectives and adopted different strategies to train professional translators. It can be seen from the analysis in this chapter that CH Case 1 and CH Case 2 who are both in possession of more resources tend to have a higher degree of employability-related (professional) issues. However, the MTI programme at CH Case 3 as well as other programmes, despite attempting to train professional translators and interpreters, is still facing tension between theoretical components and practical skills in their curricula due to less allocated resources, regional economic needs and research traditions, to name but a few.

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This chapter comprises five parts. Section 4.2 introduces the establishment and development of the professional degree in China, which is an outstanding example for demonstrating the tension between academic requirements and industry needs in the Chinese HE sector. The core aim of this type of degree course is to cultivate more application-oriented practising experts in almost every sector in China, in which the MTI programme is the representative of the translation and language sector. In the subsequent two sections, the curricula of the three case studies are discussed from the perspectives of course aims, module content, internship and other professional activities. A number of examples are offered along with the discussion in order to determine: (1) to what extent the course aims and the module content are aligned with the professional needs; and (2) the specific features of each MTI programme in this study. Section 4.5 concludes this chapter and prepares for the in-depth comparison in Chapter 5.

4.2 Introduction to the Postgraduate Professional Degree[1]

Chapter 1 discussed the profound influence of neoliberalism on the HE sectors in many countries. Driven by market forces, the HE sectors have to make their degree courses more professional to link with market needs. The professional degree in China is one such example.

The professional degree has been on issue in China since 1990, and is designed to meet the professional requirements in pertinent industries. The professional degree is equally as important as the more research-oriented academic degree, but is differentiated in course objectives. The professional degree aims at cultivating practical and professional talents for the market. Currently, the professional degree includes three levels: bachelor's, master's and doctoral degrees. According to the latest statistics, there are 39 subjects at master's level of which the MBA, MPA and Master of Law degrees are the best-known representatives.[2]

4.2.1 Master of Translation and Interpreting in China

The MTI programme is another professional degree at master's level, approved by the Commission of Academic Degrees of the State Council of China in 2007 in response to the rapid development of the translation market since 2001.

To ensure effective management and operation of the MTI programme, the MoE and the Commission of Academic Degrees of the State Council decided to set up a national committee for MTI education (henceforth the MTI Committee), whose tasks included exploring effective and innovative modes for training qualified and high-level translation and interpreting graduates, coordinating all the relevant activities carried out nationwide, enhancing cooperation and collaboration between higher education institutions and real industries, and promoting the development of MTI education. The practical aspect refers to the application of translating skills, while the profession-oriented category means that translating skills should be applied into a specific field. Therefore, when it comes to the training of translating talents in the MTI programme, the key is to cultivate students' translating capabilities or skills, which is based on exploring their linguistic abilities and translating potential.

Within this framework, the 'Plan of Setting up Specialties for the Master Degree of Translation and Interpreting' (hereafter 'The Official Guiding Plan') was issued. This plan is divided into seven sections: aims, admissions, length of study, training mode, course design, dissertations, degree conferring. In principle, MTI programmes at each university should design their own curriculum on the basis of this official guiding plan. The secretariat of the MTI Committee, the executive body, was established at CH Case 2.

4.3 Course Aims and Objectives of the MTI Programme: From General to Specific

As Kiraly proposes (1995, p. 11), to be truly effective, translation teaching will have to incorporate and interpret the results of empirical studies of translation by altering curricula, syllabi, methods and objectives. This effective process includes designing programmes with specific aims, sequencing the module content and the materials accordingly and then formulating both academic and real world activities (González Davies 2004, p. 18). This section starts with an introduction to the programme aims and objectives suggested by the MTI guiding plan, and then analyses each case programme's own objectives to discover their own features.

4.3.1 *Aims and Objectives of the MTI Programme Suggested in The Official Guiding Plan*

As the MTI Programme in China follows a top–down pattern offered by the guidelines of the national committee, it is therefore necessary to first identify what the aims are in The Official Guiding Plan (see Table 4.1) and then to examine how, and to what extent the case programmes in this study adopt the suggestions from the plan.

Table 4.1 shows that the MTI programme is purely application-oriented, while theoretical components are almost absent from its aims. As a professional degree course, the aims and objectives of MTI programmes should be distinct from the theory-based MA Translation Studies which places more emphasis on translation theories, and research methods and skills. The MTI course, in contrast, should be designed to develop students' translation skills and competences, subject area knowledge and intellectual capacity to understand issues, ideas and values of humanity (Zhong and Mu 2008; Mu and Wang 2011). This specifies that students who graduate from the MTI programme tend to have strong problem-solving skills in the real working environment. Moreover, in the global context, China has been involved in numerous transnational interactions and exchanges in fields such as culture, business, information, technology and academic research, which requires large-scale translation-assisted services (Tang and Gentzler 2008). Therefore, in addition to building students' language and translation competences, it is also essential to develop their understanding of

Table 4.1 Course aims suggested in The Official Guiding Plan

Programme	*Course objectives*
The MTI programme (in general)	• MTI graduates to be qualified and high-level interpreters and translators in different fields with professional integrity, language competence, have a good command of interpreting and translation skills and a wide range of knowledge • To provide students with opportunities to develop the skills, qualities, knowledge and experience to play a vital role in the enhancement of China's global competitiveness • To serve the nation's economic, social and cultural development

knowledge in highly specialised fields or domains. In addition, as China is now playing an increasingly important role in world affairs, interpreting China into other languages, especially the world language English, and vice versa, has assumed a new significance. Effective communication with the rest of the world is therefore vital for the country's further development in all spheres of life (e.g. economic, political and cultural areas). In this sense, translators and language experts are largely needed to help bridge the cultural gap during these communications. The MTI programme is then given a role to play within this national strategy.

4.3.2 Course Aims and Objectives of the Three Case Studies in China

Despite the fact that the MTI Committee provides each university with templates and regulations in formulating their course aims, each programme has different responses, at least as shown in our three case studies. Firstly, the MTI programme at CH Case 1, for example, presents us with a vivid example of how the translation programme meets the constantly changing needs of the market (see Table 4.2).

Training professional translators was the core focus of the MTI programme at CH Case 1. It had the aim of developing students' translation skills and cultivating a professional perspective through a mix of teaching, teamwork and opportunities for gaining career advice and work experience. Furthermore, translation and language technology was also given much attention in this MTI course. From the programme brochure it is clear that a cross-disciplinary pathway: Computer-Aided Translation, was jointly established by the MTI Education Centre and the department of language and information engineering at CH Case 1 in 2008. It was hoped that the close cooperation and sharing of educational resources between the two institutions would prepare students for high-value employment in the field of language technologies and localisation. This pathway was the first of its kind in China to fully incorporate CAT tools and knowledge of IT hardware into the translation curriculum.

The MTI programme at CH Case 1 has shifted its course aims since September 2013. It is now the Master of Language Administration (MLA), and is also the first of its kind in China. The core aim of the MLA pathway is to nurture managers and language administrators working in the language services industry (see also Table 4.2). In conversation with CH Interviewee A, we know that this new pathway at CH Case 1

Table 4.2 Course aims of the MTI/MLA programme at CH Case 1

Programme	*Course objectives*
The MTI programme at CH Case 1[a]	The core objective of the MTI programme at CH Case 1 is to prepare its students for their future careers as professional translators and interpreters in Humanities and Social Sciences, focusing on the enhancement of their translation skills and work ethic, as well as the accumulation of career-related experiences and a strong awareness of modern language service technologies. The programme provides students with high quality training which has an emphasis on broadening their intellectual horizons and the breadth of their knowledge in order to qualify them in various fields of translation (especially Humanities and Social Sciences) at professional, practical and advanced levels
The MTI programme at CH Case 1[b] (since 2013)	In this intensive two-year postgraduate course, we aim to: • improve your bilingual competences (English–Chinese), transferrable skills between these two languages, and practical competences to use language technologies; • build your practical language administration and management competence through engagement with business; • develop your translation skills to meet the requirements of translation accreditation tests; and • produce high calibre managers and administrators who can successfully work in the language services industry

[a]The content of the course objectives of the MTI programme at CH Case 1 is from the programme prospectus (hard copy) which was provided by the director of the MTI Education Centre

[b]The content of the course objectives of the MTI programme at CH Case 1 stems from the course flyer and programme specification

has been established in response to the burgeoning of language services in China. As defined in its programme prospectus, by the year 2012, the total gross value of language service industries worldwide was roughly 3.3 billion US dollars. This number grew 12% each year between 2010 and 2013. Asian companies have taken 12.88% market share. China, nevertheless, only has a 7% market share. Despite this relative low market share, according to the statistics synthesised by TAC (2013), the number of companies registered as 'Language Services' grew from 16 in 1980 to 37,197 by the end of 2011. With the rapid process of globalisation in China, there will be far more space for language services. The rapidly changing market indicates that there are huge demands for professional experts who can work in the language services industry. In line with market demands, the course designers of the MTI programme at CH Case 1 are considering shifting its training focus from nurturing professional translators to 'translation project manager, senior translator, marketing manager, technical manager and other position' (Wang 2012, p. 67). In short, the MLA pathway prepares its students to become experienced managers who can work in the language services industry, and beyond.

The second case study in the Chinese context, the MTI programme at CH Case 2, shares the same course aims as The Official Guiding Plan, listed in Table 4.1; however, the past two to three years have also seen numerous optimisations and innovations of the programme. More specifically, five specialisations have been established within the MTI programme, namely MTI Conference Interpreting, MTI Community Interpreting, MTI Commercial Translation, MTI Legal Translation and MTI Media Translation. Of these, the first two specialisations belong to the interpreting pathway; while the latter three are translation-oriented. The main points of the aims and objectives in the three specialisations are displayed in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 shows different prospects and emphasis of the three specialisations of the MTI programme at CH Case 2. But first and foremost, it is clear that the course aims and objectives of this course are closely linked with China's economic and social development. More specifically, the aims and objectives should fit the government's developing strategies, such as the strategy of 'Chinese Culture Going Out' and the strategy of Chinese firms 'Going Global' (see more in Chapter 5). China's MTI programmes are expected to make contributions to help promote Chinese culture in other countries and to help bridge language and cultural gaps in the internationalisation process of Chinese firms, added by CH Interviewee B.

Opinions have been expressed that universities are not concerned about professional specialisation because universities, being distinct from vocational schools, are places for research and theory. Students can acquire specialisation through work placements or during the first few months of their career (Gouadec 2007, p. 349). However, given the large-scale demands for professional translators in almost every sector in China, course designers of the MTI programme at CH Case 2 believe

Table 4.3 Course aims of the MTI programme at CH Case 2

Programme	*Course objectives*
MTI CH Case 2	• MTI graduates to be qualified and high-level interpreters and translators in different fields with professional integrity, language competence and have a good command of interpreting and translation skills and a wide range of knowledge • To provide students with opportunities to develop the skills, qualities, knowledge and experience to play a vital role in the enhancement of China's global competitiveness • To serve the nation's economic, social and cultural development
MTI Commercial Translation	• This specialisation aims to provide students with essential knowledge and skills to become highly skilled, professional and practical translators and interpreters in the field of business and commerce • Graduates from this specialisation are equipped with an understanding of international business and management. They are expected to successfully deal with all types of commercial documentation. They can also develop their career paths as in-house translators in the commercial sectors and transnational companies
MTI Legal Translation	• This specialisation aims to provide students with essential knowledge and skills to become highly skilled, professional and practical translators and interpreters in the field of law • Graduates from this specialisation are equipped with a critical approach to understanding law. They are expected to successfully deal with all legal or legally binding documents. They can also develop their career paths as in-house translators in the Court of Justice, international organisations, law firms and transnational companies
MTI Media Translation	• This specialisation aims to provide students with essential knowledge and skills to become highly skilled, professional and practical translators and interpreters in the field of journalism and mass media • Graduates from this specialisation are equipped with a comprehensive grounding in the theories, approaches and practical skills of studying and understanding media and the communication process. They are expected to successfully deal with trans-edited news or other multimodal tools. They can also develop their career paths as trans-editors and audiovisual translators

that it will benefit graduates' career development if more specialised course aims and module content can be offered. If MTI students have one or two foci regarding subject area knowledge, it might be easier for them to find translation-related jobs in pertinent specialised domains. Generic training for translators is not enough to meet the current market demands in China. Moreover, the MTI programme at CH Case 2 is also considering opening up another pathway of 'Translation and Localisation Management[3]' (Zhao and Mu 2013), in response to the wide spread of technology and the rapid development of the language services industry.

CH Case 3 outlines its training focus as professional-oriented, and they have designed a series of modules, in collaboration with professional translators (or equivalents) to fulfil this aim. Table 4.4 demonstrates its course aims and objectives.

Table 4.4 shows that this programme prepares its students to work in a range of different careers instead of focusing on one or two specialised fields. Moreover, we can see that aims (2), (3), (4) are similar to the aims of cases in the UK, which expect students to acquire a certain amount of theory and abstract knowledge. Developing students' linguistic competences is another important goal in this programme. In Sect. 4.4 we can also see that this course aim has a profound influence on the design and delivery of its module content.

Table 4.4 Course aims of the MTI programmes at CH Case 3

Programme	*Course objectives*
CH Case 3	This professional degree course aims to turn its students into qualified and high-level translators and interpreters who can play a vital role in the enhancement of China's global competitiveness. They are also expected to be upright in character and committed to serve the nation's economic, social and cultural development. More specifically, this course aims to: 1. enhance students' English and Chinese language competences and transferrable skills between these two languages; 2. provide students with solid translation competences and encyclopaedic knowledge so as to translate texts and documents in various subject areas; 3. enhance students' knowledge of translation theories; 4. [a]for students who have been recruited in the translation pathway, this course also provides students with opportunities to learn a wide range of history and theories of translation in China and the West, and to apply these theories in practice. This course expects their graduates to be able to conduct research in Translation Studies as well as conduct different practical translation tasks

[a]CH Case 3 recruits students to study translation pathway or interpreting pathway. Aim (4) introduces the course aims of translation pathway in particular

4.4 Module Content of the MTI Programme: From General to Specific

The aims and objectives of certain courses are delivered by a series of relevant modules. This section will continue by analysing the modules which are recommended in The Official Guiding Plan and offered in each case programme as well as analysing what competences are included in these modules. More specifically, the alignment between the course aims and module content is explored in order to investigate to what extent course aims influence the design of modules. Moreover, due to the fact that fostering professional translators is the crux of the MTI degree, the ratio between theory-based modules and practice-oriented modules and the reasons for the weighting of theory versus practice are also analysed. Finally, as two of the three cases (the MTI programme at CH Case 1 and the MTI programme at CH Case 2) include some degree of specialisation in their courses, it is therefore reasonable to investigate to what extent the 'specialist skills/competences' are included in the modules.

4.4.1 Modules Recommended by The Official Guiding Plan

The Official Guiding Plan suggests that the following modules should be embedded in MTI courses (see Table 4.5).

From Table 4.5 it is clear that the suggested core modules show a combination of theory and practice, but the vast majority of the optional modules are practice-oriented, which reflects the practical aim of the MTI programme. Moreover, translating for different domains is of paramount importance according to this table (see *optional modules—translating pathway*). Many translation specialists consider that the greater subject area knowledge a professional translator has, the better for the practice of specialised translation (Gouadec 2007). The normal way for universities to deal with subject area knowledge is to give specialised translation modules (ibid.), and the MTI programme is such an example, as shown in Table 4.5. These subject areas (scientific and technical, legal, business, media) are simply examples which represent the general market needs. Each university could establish more specialised modules in accordance with their available resources to cultivate professionals who can work in areas of greater specialisation. A key area is that of medicine (Pellatt and Liu 2010). For example, with the aim of training medical translators and interpreters, a science and technology base university

Table 4.5 Modules recommended by The Official Guiding Plan (*Source* The Official Guiding Plan 2011, pp. 2–4)

Modules	*Categorisation*	*Module names*
Core modules	For all postgraduates	1. Political Science 2. Chinese Language and Culture
	For MTI students	1. Translation Theory 2. Translation Theories and Applications 3. Interpreting Theories and Applications
	Translating pathway	1. Translating Non-literary Texts 2. Translating Literary Texts
	Interpreting pathway	1. Consecutive Interpreting 2. Simultaneous Interpreting
Optional modules	General	1. A Second Foreign Language 2. A Short History of Translation and Interpreting in China and the West 3. Translation Appreciation and Criticism 4. Intercultural Communications 5. Contrastive Studies and Translation between English and Chinese 6. Computer-aided Translation
	Interpreting pathway	1. Sight Translation 2. Interpreting with Specialised Subject Matter 3. Conference Interpreting 4. Business Interpreting 5. Court Interpreting 6. Interpreting for Foreign Affairs 7. Mock Conference Interpreting 8. Interpreting Workshop
	Translating pathway	1. Technical Writing 2. Scientific and Technical Translation 3. Translating for International Conferences 4. Business Translation 5. Legal Translation 6. Media Translation 7. Translating Chinese Masterpieces 8. Translation Workshop 9. Localisation and Translation Project Management

offers translation modules dealing with translating health leaflets, medical reports or traditional Chinese medicine (Nie et al. 2013). Further, compared to the 2007 version of The Official Guiding Plan, translation technology and project management have received greater attention.

The module 'Localisation and Translation Project Management' is now included in The Official Guiding Plan. The reason is that the localisation of the service sector now contributes to more than half of the output of the translation industry[4] (TAC 2009). Providing students with basic knowledge in this area is therefore essential. Additionally, modules relating to introducing Chinese language and culture are suggested in this version of the guiding plan. These two modules are 'Chinese Language and Culture' and 'Translating Chinese Masterpieces', which are adopted in two of our case programmes (CH Case 2 and CH Case 3). These two modules are in line with the strategy of 'Chinese Culture Going Out'; however, it may be difficult to generate translators competent to translate Chinese classics to the rest of the world on the basis of these introductory modules alone.

4.4.2 Course Components Explained in the Three Case Studies

Since the modules suggested by the guiding plan are not compulsory, the three case programmes have their own preference when designing their modules. In the MTI programme at CH Case 1, the curriculum includes mandatory courses, restricted elective courses, and optional courses,[5] and 'we also recommend to our students some courses in Humanities and Social Sciences offered by other colleges and departments of the university' (Programme Prospectus, p. 9). The module content of the former translation pathway at CH Case 1 is displayed in Table 4.6, while modules offered in the newly established language administration pathway are shown in Table 4.7.[6]

From Tables 4.6 and 4.7, we can summarise the following three major characteristics with regard to the module content of the MTI programme at CH Case 1. Firstly, modules offered by this programme reflect the practical aims required by The Official Guiding Plan, placing much emphasis on translation practice and translation as a profession. Moreover, it can be seen that modules offered in this course have been updated compared to The Official Guiding Plan. For example, the module 'Translation and Editing' was a core module in the translation pathway of the MTI programme at CH Case 1, but was not included in The Official Guiding Plan. CH Interviewee A explained that a number of MTI students do not become translators after graduation; instead, English newspapers and other editorial or publishing houses might be alternative career destinations of graduates. The work of an editor, which is differentiated from that

Table 4.6 Module content of the MTI programme at CH Case 1

Module type		*Module title*
Compulsory	All postgraduates	Political Science
Compulsory	MTI students only	Searching and Writing Translation and Editing (English–Chinese) Comparison and Revision of Translated Texts Translation Practice I: English–Chinese (E–C) Translation Practice II: Chinese–English (C–E)
Choose 4 from		
Restricted elective modules		Translation Practice I: Advanced E–C Translation Practice II: Advanced C–E Translation Practice III: Translation Tests History and Theories of Translation Reading of Old Chinese Texts English–Chinese Interpreting Fundamentals of Translation Technology I Fundamentals of Translation Technology II
Choose 7 from		
Optional modules	Language and Culture	Comparative Rhetoric and Translation Translation Profession and Translation Management Translation Profession Studies I (Management) Translation Profession Studies II (Technology) Introduction to Western Culture A Second Foreign Language Other available modules offered by the School of Foreign Languages
	Social Sciences	Cultural Psychology Chinese Culture and Aesthetics Western Aesthetics Comparative Politics and Comparative Cultures The UN and International Organisations Language and Culture
	Business and Law	International Trade Management Fundamental Theories to International Law
Translation practices		Self-Study: Translation Practices
Others		Internship and Dissertation

Table 4.7 Module content of the MLA programme at CH Case 1

Module type		*Module title*
Compulsory	All postgrads	Political Sciences
Compulsory	MLA students only	Searching and Writing
		Translation and Editing (English–Chinese)
		History and Theories of Translation
		Introduction to Macroeconomics
		Project Management in the Language Services Industry
Choose 4 from		
Restricted elective modules		Comparison and Revision of Translated Texts
		Translation Practice I: English–Chinese (E–C)
		Translation Practice II: Chinese–English (C–E)
		Business Ethics and Corporate Social Responsibility
		Human Resources Management
		Fundamentals of Translation Technology
		Reading of Old Chinese Texts
		English–Chinese Interpreting
Choose 7 from		
Optional modules	Translation Technology	Localisation and Internationalisation Engineering
	Language and Culture	Introduction to Western Culture
		Applied Linguistics
		History of the English Language
		A Second Foreign Language
	Social Sciences	Cultural Psychology
		The UN and International Organisations
		Language and Culture
	Business and Law	International Trade
		Fundamental Theories of International Law
Translation practices		Self-Study: Translation Practices
Others		Internship and Dissertation

of a translator, requires skills of editing, rewriting or adapting (Mossop 2001). Therefore, if he or she were to work for a newspaper office or publishing house, a situation may arise in which an MTI graduate needs to compile a series of useful documents and then rewrite all the information. It is then necessary to integrate the employer's needs into the curriculum to at least familiarise their students with the basic workflow. Offering 'Translation and Editing' is based on such considerations.

Secondly, the module content of the MTI/MLA programme at CH Case 1 is aligned with the course aims. More specifically, the former translation pathway aims to prepare its students to work as professional translators in fields such as the Humanities and Social Sciences. Modules in such fields are offered accordingly; the module 'Comparative Politics and Comparative Cultures' serves as an example. Moreover, as CH Case 1 has decided to change its aim to educating and training managers, marketers or HR officers in the language services industry, many management related modules are also offered (both core and optional, and in addition to translation/language relevant modules), to provide students with a wide range of knowledge in business and management affairs. Modules such as 'Business Ethics and Corporate Social Responsibility', 'Human Resources Management', and 'International Trade' are three examples.

Thirdly, an outstanding feature of the module content at CH Case 1 programme is its cross-disciplinarity. Both Tables 4.6 and 4.7 contain a wide range of optional modules relating to other disciplines, which are offered in other departments and schools of CH Case 1. As explained by CH Interviewee A, this model is designed primarily to cater for students' career needs and employability. They encourage students to fully utilise the resources provided by CH Case 1, and then to develop their own specialised career pathways according to their own interests. For example, if some students have a strong desire to find jobs in the field of economics, they would choose several modules from the School of Economics. This method could also be applied to other disciplines. The core idea is to develop students' knowledge and competences in a wide range of areas, other than pure language and translation skills.

Section 4.3 showed how the MTI programme at CH Case 2 has transferred its programme focus into very specific aims, namely cultivating professional translators and interpreters to work in the field of commerce, trade, law, media and related sectors. Table 4.8 shows how the module content fulfils the aims.

Table 4.8 Module content of the MTI programme at CH Case 2[a]

Module type		*Module name*
Compulsory	All postgraduates	Political Science Chinese Language & Culture
Compulsory	All translating	On Translation A Foundation Course in Interpreting A Foundation Course in Translation
Compulsory (pathways)	Commercial translation	Literary Translation Non-literary Translation Business and Commercial Translation Business Interpreting
	Legal translation	Literary Translation Non-literary Translation Legal Translation Court Interpreting
	Media translation	Literary Translation Non-literary Translation Media Translation Media Interpreting
	For all three	A Short History of Translation and Interpreting in China and Other Countries Intercultural Communications Contrastive Studies and Translation between English and Chinese A Second Foreign Language Translating Chinese Masterpieces Scientific and Technical Translation Documentary Translation Translation Workshop Interpreting Workshop Computer-aided Translation Translation in the Subject Area of Tourism
Optional	Commercial translation only	Introduction to International Business Translation Appreciation and Criticism An Introduction to Stylistics Interpreting with Specialised Subject Matter Media Translation Translating Legal or Legally Binding Documents

(continued)

Table 4.8 (continued)

Module type		*Module name*
	Legal translation only	Forensic Linguistics
		Legal Document Writing and Translation
		Stylistics and Translation of Legal Documents
		Legal Systems in the West and China
		Commercial and Business Translation
		Business Interpreting
		An Introduction to International Business
		Media Translation
	Media translation only	Trans-editing
		Interviewing, Recording and Editing of News
		An Introduction to Stylistics
		Translation Appreciation and Criticism
		Business Translation
		Business Interpreting
		An Introduction to International Business
Internship		

[a]The module content of the MTI programme at CH Case 2 is summarised from: (1) online basic course information; (2) interview with CH Interviewee B; (3) internal programme specifications which are permitted to be used for research purposes only; and (4) Chinese scholarly articles researching on this programme

Table 4.8 demonstrates the full list of modules offered at the MTI programme at CH Case 2. The following three characteristics can be summarised from this table. Firstly, the module content, which is practice-oriented, is aligned with its course aims. It also includes many modules suggested in The Official Guiding Plan. Secondly, students of these specialised pathways do not only develop specialised language skills (e.g. building up specialised vocabulary and expressions and then translating them in the foreign language, and vice versa), but also have the chance to develop specialised background knowledge (González Davies 2004, p. 167). Modules such as ‘Legal Systems in the West and China’, ‘Introduction to International Business’ and ‘Interviewing, Recording, and Editing of News’ are offered in this programme in order to help students acquire sufficient basic knowledge to understand the major concepts in specialised translation. In fact, there seems to be a consensus that translators have the duty to convey the underlying messages (e.g. cultural issues) behind the words (e.g. technical terms). Therefore, the more translators know about what lies behind the words, the better they can assure the quality of translation (González Davies 2004; Pellatt and Liu 2010). Thirdly, in these pathways, more modules are available in the legal field for linguistic, translation issues and background knowledge. Staff expertise could be the most important reason to explain this. The MTI Education Centre at CH Case 2 has a core staff member who is specialised in forensic linguistics and legal translation (see Table 5.7, staff member 2). In addition to offering modules in the legal field, this core staff member could also bring other resources, such as collaboration between the university and the legal profession, or organising international conferences on Forensic Linguistics, or a related field of study.

Analysing our third case study in China, we find out that its module content abides by the MTI official guiding plan. Furthermore, the modules offered by this programme are aligned with its course aims, especially aims (1), (3) and (4). Table 4.9 displays its full list of modules.

Table 4.9 Module content of the MTI programme at CH Case 3

Module type	*Module name*
Core modules	An Introduction to Translation Theories Translation Practice (English to Chinese) Translation Practice (Chinese to English) Applied Translation Practice Translation Criticism
Optional modules (Translation pathway)	Contrastive Studies and Translation between English and Chinese Rhetoric and Writing between English and Chinese Computer-aided Translation Translating Chinese Masterpieces Theories and Applications of Literary Translation A Short History of Translation in China and the West Translation and Culture Sight Translation Subtitling Translation[a] News Translation Theories and Applications of Interpreting An Introduction to Linguistics Discourse Analysis Translation Workshop
Others	Internship and Others

[a]At the time of the interview with CH Interviewee C, the module ‘Subtitling Translation’ was not fully established, but it was suggested that it would be soon

From Table 4.9 it is clear that the module content of this MTI programme has the following four characteristics. Firstly, a group of modules has an inherent link with more established disciplines, such as Linguistics and Cultural Studies. For example, four optional modules are related to the field of Linguistics: 'Contrastive Studies and Translation between English and Chinese'; 'Rhetoric and Writing between English and Chinese'; 'An Introduction to Linguistics'; and 'Discourse Analysis'. Secondly, modules in translating (Chinese) cultures as suggested by The Official Guiding Plan can also be found in this programme, which is normally absent in the vast majority of the MTI programmes across China. Secondly, translating literary texts is another specialty in this MTI course. The two core modules: 'Translation Practice (English to Chinese)' and 'Translation Practice (Chinese to English)' principally deal with literary translation. Also another optional module is offered to introduce theories and practices in literary translation. Thirdly, practical translation units, such as 'Applied Translation Practice', 'Subtitling Translation' and News Translation, place emphasis on different text types and provide a basis for professional work as a translator. Fourthly, two interpreting-related modules are also offered in the translation pathway, aiming to introduce students to the skills and technical challenges happening in the communication contexts where interpreting takes place.

4.4.3 *Specific Competences of Becoming a Translator: Reflected in Module Content*

In Chapter 3, we applied the integrated map of market standards from Europe, the UK and China to calibrate the course components in the UK cases in order to investigate how the module content reflects the balance between academic and professional pedagogies. In this chapter, we will continue to use these indicators in the Chinese context so as to summarise the features of the Chinese MTI courses. Table 4.10 shows how the modules in The Official Guiding Plan and in the three case studies reflect market demands.

After detailed examination of the modules included in The Official Guiding Plan and in the three case programmes, the feature of each case programme and some common features of the MTI Programme in China can be summarised as follows.

Table 4.10 Competence-based curriculum map of case studies in China

Competences	*Indicators*[a]	*Official guiding plan*	*CH Case 1*	*CH Case 2*	*CH Case 3*
Linguistic competence	1	•	•	•	•
	2	•	•	•	•
	3	•	•	•	•
Translation competence	1	•	•	•	•
	2	•	•	•	•
	3	•	•	•	•
	4	•	•	•	•
	5	•	•	•	•
	6[b]		•	•	
Professionalism	1	•	•	•	•
	2		•		
	3		•		
	4		•		
Research theory[c]	1	•	•	•	•
	2		•		
	3				
Extra-linguistic knowledge	1	•	•	•	•
	2	•	•	•	•
	3	•	•	•	•

[a]Please refer back to Tables 2.3 and 3.7 for the full content of each indicator
[b]One aspect of the six indicator localisation is included in the module content of the MTI programme at CH Case 1, but aspects, such as audiovisual translation, multimedia translation and technical writing, are not included. The basic concepts and knowledge of audiovisual translation are introduced in the MTI programme at CH Case 2
[c]Indicators 2 ('Independent research ability') and 3 ('Critical thinking ability') of the 'Research Theory' section are not standards generated from the market, but are updated from Table 3.7 in that despite the professional aim, the MTI programmes are still established within universities. Therefore, it is necessary to include requirements from the academic world to calibrate the module content

4.4.3.1 Bilingual Competences and Contrastive Linguistics

Table 4.10 shows that all three indicators in the first section 'linguistic competence'—especially indicators 2 and 3—are included within the framework of the MTI programme, but are entirely absent in the UK cases. As regards the Chinese cases, both CH Interviewee A and B expressed the importance of enhancing native language competence for MTI students, arguing that although the B language (which here refers to English) is the training focus, it does not mean that MTI students neglect their A language competence (which here refers to Chinese). Moreover, 'the study of two languages in contrast in an attempt to identify general and specific differences between them' (Munday 2012, p. 14) is of paramount significance in translation activities. However, the real situation is that most students who study translation still imitate Chinese expressions in their Chinese to English translation tasks, which produces unacceptable English and sometimes cannot be understood by native English speakers. From this perspective, it is necessary to enhance the comparison and contrast between these two divergent languages. Modules such as 'Chinese Language and Culture' and 'Comparison and Translation between English and Chinese' are offered in many MTI programmes, and this is because the MTI programme at CH Case 3 can staff them.

4.4.3.2 Translation Competence

From Table 4.10 it is clear that the 'translation competence' is well embedded in the module content of The Official Guiding Plan and the three case programmes. They offer relevant modules to students' generic translation skills, and to develop students' competences of translating different materials with specialised subject matter. It is also important to highlight that translating from Chinese to other foreign languages (which here refers to English) is fully embedded in all the three MTI courses, but appears 'absent' (except for GB Case 1) in the UK cases. Market demands and national strategies are two main reasons. According to the statistics shown in the 'Report on China's Translation Industry 2014' (TAC 2015), as of the end of 2013, 64% of the translation companies claim that more than half of their business deals with translating from Chinese into other foreign languages. Of these, 13% of the translation companies claim that 80–100% of their business is translating from Chinese into foreign languages. This has provided for the demands from the Chinese translation market. Moreover, the strategy of 'Chinese Culture Going Out' (see more in Chapter 5) requires a large number of qualified translators to translate Chinese masterpieces, cultural issues and political values into foreign languages for the promotion of Chinese culture in other countries. The MTI programmes are then expected to foster students' outgoing translation ability in order to better introduce China to the rest of the world (Huang 2011; Xu 2012).

4.4.3.3 Extra-linguistic Knowledge

We also see from Table 4.10 that all three indicators (subject area knowledge, interdisciplinary knowledge and cross-cultural communications) of the extra-linguistic knowledge are fully embedded in The Official Guiding Plan and in the three cases. Firstly, from the perspective of the market, 'translation commissioners tend to rank specialised knowledge in a given subject area as more important than translation skills themselves'

(Kelly 2005, cited in Sharkas 2013, p. 52). This ideal is agreed by most course designers of the MTI programmes in China, and we can see that all three cases offer modules regarding subject area knowledge or translating specialised texts. For instance, the MTI programme at CH Case 1 offers a series of modules in other disciplines such as law, management, psychology and economics. The MTI programme at CH Case 2 has three specialised pathways and pays much attention to the areas of law, commerce and media. Although the module content of the MTI programme at CH Case 3 is less practical and professional, a module such as 'News Translation' is still offered. The second indicator, interdisciplinary knowledge (referring to linguistics, literature, cultural studies) is also given attention in the three selected cases. More specifically, modules such as 'Applied Linguistics' and 'Language and Culture' are offered in the MTI programme at CH Case 1. The MTI programme at CH Case 2 provides students with knowledge of forensic linguistics. Regarding the MTI programme at CH Case 3, at least five modules are related to linguistics, literature and cultural studies (see Table 4.9). Thirdly, cross-cultural communications are not offered as independent modules in the three cases, but are included in the language and culture related modules.

4.4.3.4 Research and Theory

Translation theories are taught in all three translation programmes. The MTI programme at CH Case 3 offers more than one theoretical module. People who are in charge of curriculum design in these three programmes do realise the importance of translation theory, which can provide 'their graduates with the tools to ensure that they are capable of maintaining and upgrading their competences throughout their professional working lives' (Way 2008, p. 89). However, the other two indicators (critical thinking and research methods) in the section 'Research/Theory', which are mainly achieved by 'education', are almost absent in the Chinese cases. Only the MTI programme at CH Case 1 offers a module named 'Searching and Writing' which is similar to research skills/methods in the UK cases, but in terms of the module content, practical methods on how to search and synthesise a wide range of resources are the main target. The other two cases do not offer any such modules. This phenomenon can be aligned with the practical aim of the MTI programme which is more skills-based, and reflects the differences between the practical MTI course and the research-based MA Translation Studies.

4.4.3.5 Professional Issues

The four indicators (workflow of translation tasks; professional ethics; client education; and developing professionalism for translators) of the professionalism aspect are partly included in The Official Guiding Plan and in the module content of the three cases. The workflows of translation tasks are mainly included in the practical module: Translation Workshop. In this workshop, real-life translation practices are introduced and authentic materials are used by teachers and students (Li and Zhong 2010). This practical workshop also provides students with opportunities to develop their translation skills through individual or group practical exercises. However, there are no independent modules regarding issues and principles of working in the translation industry in The Official Guiding Plan. Among the three Chinese cases, only the MTI programme at CH Case 1 incorporates several modules relating to professional issues in the translation and language services industry. The other two programmes only invite senior translators to give lectures about certain professional issues, which is neither systematic nor holistic for a professional-oriented degree course.

Moreover, the second indicator 'professional ethics'—or codes of conduct for translators—is included in the module 'Translation Profession and Translation Management' of the MTI programme at CH Case 1 (Peng 2009), but is still missing in the guiding plan and in the other two case studies. In fact, numerous organisations worldwide, such as the United Nations, the European Union and the American Translators Association, have formulated codes of conduct for translators. For example, it is clear that translators should not take on work that might be beyond their real ability. In other words, 'when contacted about an assignment they should check the language and situation to ensure that it is within their capabilities' (Phelan 2008, p. 39). To draw up guidelines for other professionals who work with translators is also important because many people are not aware of the role of the translator. Additionally, effective communication and cooperation with other professionals, clients, translation companies and colleagues are also important components of professional codes of conduct.

This study also believes that ethical questions should be present throughout training, both explicitly and implicitly, and understood in the broadest possible sense (the translator's social responsibility, ideological manipulation of text and so on). In fact, the issue of professional ethics is often entirely absent in training programmes (Kelly 2005; Zhu and Qi 2011).

Where it is included, it is often in the form of an isolated seminar or public lecture. The situation is true regarding the MTI programmes in China, although this degree course is purely professionally oriented.

4.4.4 Enhance Students' Employability via Internships and Professional Engagement

Work experience is an invaluable learning resource which cannot simply be accumulated by traditional classroom learning. As in the case of international exchanges, it is important for placements to take place at an appropriate point in training (Kelly 2005, p. 91). Additionally, working in collaboration with local industries or translation agencies may not only provide invaluable opportunities for students to make some use of what they have been taught, but may also benefit the lecturers who teach in the translation programme. One direct profit might be receiving evaluation grids and feedback from professional agencies locally and globally (Orlando 2011, p. 300). This would allow lecturers or other instructors to design or develop a more realistic syllabus for effective training purposes, and to assess their students with regard to 'a more professional, industry-based approach' (ibid., p. 299).

In China, the MTI programme follows this method to implement placements/internships. Internship is a core component required in the MTI programme, constituting two credits of the total 38 credits required for graduation. More specifically, the MTI Committee requires its member universities to find an appropriate internship base for the students.

In respect of CH Interviewee B, we acknowledge that the school where the MTI programme at CH Case 2 is located has set up five major types of internship places for its MTI students as well as its MA Conference Interpreting students: (1) international expo, fair or conference (China Import and Export Fair; China-ASEAN Expo); (2) translation and language services firms (translation department at Huawei Technologies Co., Ltd.; CSOFT International); (3) journalism or publishing sector (China Foreign Languages Publishing Administration; Huanqiu.com); (4) governmental foreign affairs offices (Shenzhen Foreign Affairs Office); and (5) international organisations (United Nations in Geneva; European Commission).

Work placement at fairs or international conferences can be regarded as a perfect mock drilling for T&I students before entering the job market, providing them with business negotiating skills, dialogue interpreting skills, the ability to deal with conference papers and event management experience. Working as a trainee translator at translation and language services companies may acquire knowledge such as translation project management, technical writing, proofreading, brand globalisation and localisation, and multilingual communications. An internship in publishing-related sectors could be a good opportunity for students who would like jobs such as trans-editing, news writing or broadcasting. Translators working in governmental foreign affairs offices mainly deal with translating leaflets, brochures, reports, correspondence or other official documents. In addition, they normally provide translation and/or interpreting services for activities in international collaborations, site visits, meetings and functions. Student interns at the United Nations and the European Commission could gain invaluable practical experience from working in multilingual workplaces.

Of all these internship places, Huawei Technologies Co., Ltd., the China Foreign Languages Publishing Administration and the Shenzhen Foreign Affairs Office are three representative examples for MTI students. Huawei Technologies Co., Ltd., is a leading global ICT solutions provider, whose headquarters are located in Shenzhen City. The daily routine work of a translation intern in this technology-based company could be translating scientific and technical texts. For example, technical data sheets might be routinely encountered. According to Byrne, 'this type of text provides detailed product information relating to a product's composition, properties and applications as well as other information relating to product safety, legal considerations and environmental issues' (2012, p. 82). It is important for interns to be clear about this type of text's subject matter, category, function, typical target audience and how the text will be used before undertaking their translation tasks. Working as a translation intern in Huawei is not only a good opportunity to get to know the real workflow for an in-house translator, but is also useful for gathering experience in translating scientific and technical texts. Even in the early twenty first century, it was estimated that 'scientific and technical translation accounts for some 90% of global translation output' (Kingscott 2002, p. 247). For the time being, scientific and technical translation is still the core force in international trade in many respects (Byrne 2012, p. 5). Hence, the internship opportunities in such a technical-oriented company may improve graduates' employability if they wish to work as translators.

China Foreign Languages Publishing Administration is another fixed internship base where students can learn how to work as editors or revisers, especially in the industry of translation and language services. Unlike literary translators, whose job is mainly 'negotiating rather carefully with source-text authors', and also distinct from non-literary translators, who work with non-professional writers most of the time (Mossop 2001, p. 27), an editor or reviser in the translation arena (except for newspaper agencies), is correcting the translated text to fit society's linguistic and textual rules and achieve the clients' goals. Also, the editor or reviser acts as a language therapist who improves the translated text by eliminating confusing structures due to the different habits of use of different languages, in order to ensure the suitability of the text for its future users (ibid., p. 17). Working in a leading publishing organisation in China enables students to develop all sorts of competences other than languages, such as trans-editing, proofreading or even news interviews and the workflow of the press industry. Students may, as a result, have broader scope when they choose their future careers.

Shenzhen Foreign Affairs Office is a government-based organisation where translating official documents might be the daily routine. Mayoral argues that the official translator is,

> …a person who complies with the requirements established by local legislation. They should be competent in the fields of economic and legal translation, and they must consciously assume responsibility for all the consequences and liabilities of their function as public authenticator. (2003, p. 4)

In addition, the official translator in China may need to master all kinds of expressions with Chinese characteristics. They also act as political and cultural mediators during international exchanges in such agencies. Beyond translation, interpreting or other language-related work, conducting several administrative duties such as liaising between different organisations, preparing event programmes, arranging visits or senior meetings could also be among their responsibilities. In spite of the fierce competition, working for provincial and local foreign affairs offices is still another ideal pathway for MTI students' careers.

As regards internship opportunities of CH Case 3, a translation and language services firm (Transn Information Technology Co., Ltd., henceforth Transn), a publishing house (Foreign Language Teaching and Research Publishing Co., Ltd., henceforth FLTRP), and a news agency (Xinhua News Agency) are their main contacts.

Transn[7] is an Internet and IT-based language service provider, as well as a language service supplier, covering products and services in areas such as document translation, website translation, game translation services, software localisation and transcription, dubbing and subtitling. It is an internship place for both BTI and MTI students in CH Case 3 where student interns have access to different sorts of texts to be translated, acquire methods to deal with multimedia translation, and familiarise themselves with the workflow in the translation and language services industry. Beyond those translation-related activities, student interns may build up revising skills and competences such as quality assurance. More importantly, no one works in a vacuum—they have the chance to get to know how to work in a team and cooperate with others.

Another internship opportunity, the 'Bilingual Project' initiated by FLTRP, mainly deals with book translation. More specifically, FLTRP assigns tasks to MTI students via e-portals. Students conduct book translations under their teachers' supervision. The translated works are expected to be published as e-copies. Such collaboration between CH Case 3 and FLTRP is believed to provide MTI students with invaluable practical opportunities and therefore enhance their translation competences, and students in turn will make contributions to the translation and publication of large numbers of English literary books. This is beneficial for both parties.

Working as an intern at Xinhua News Agency (a local division) would be an invaluable experience for students to get to know the trans-editing process in the profession, and for them to reflect on what they have learned in the 'News Translation' module. The skillset students may possess in this internship include: language proficiency in both English and Chinese, newswriting and editing skills, communication skills and social media literacy, as well as the ability to work under stress.

According to CH Interviewee C, we know that the MTI programme of CH Case 3 plans to build up more internship places in the near future to provide opportunities for practical translation. Of course they also encourage students to find internship opportunities by themselves, and request them to fulfil the detailed internship form in order to guarantee their activities.

In view of the above internship places, it is clear that internship opportunities at both case universities cover different kinds of organisations or firms to which students might move, including both the private and public sectors, and international organisations. Furthermore, these internships closely relate to the course aims established by these two MTI programmes. For instance, students choosing Media Translation specialisation at CH Case 2 may go on to take internships in publishing houses. Translation and Localisation Management students could be offered the option to work in a language services firm as interns.

Despite these positive perspectives of internship, the question as to whether these internship places accommodate all of the students remains.[8] Even if the answer is yes, how to guarantee quality may be an important issue which needs to be considered by policymakers if they would like to perfect their programme. Another concern could be the imbalance of internship qualities between students. For example, the specialisation in Legal Translation at CH Case 2; although students are provided with the chance to translate legal documents in most of the above work placements, a bespoke internship for students directly targeting legal translation may be explored in the near future to enhance students' experience on the course. With regard to CH Case 3, encouraging students to find internships by themselves could be an effective method to allocate all the students, however, one possible risk is that some may find quite good internship posts in the translation-related industry, while others might have to work with little professional guidance in their temporary working places and thus derive little benefit from the internship (Chai 2015). In this case, to ensure that students 'have most to gain from engaging in real professional practice' (Kelly 2005, p. 92) stands out to be important.

4.4.4.1 A New Model of Internship: The Case of the MTI Programme at CH Case 1

Differing from the above internship models or alternative activities, it is interesting and rewarding to discover that the MTI programme at CH Case 1 finds an innovative way to organise its internship. In earlier stages, the MTI programme at CH Case 1 cooperated with Xinhua News Agency, China Translation and Publishing Corporation, and *Can Kao Xiao Xi* Newspaper, among others, to build up its internship places. In theory, this should lead to a natural match between the university and those translation organisations. However, real practice and the feedback from student interns have not been as satisfactory as expected.

More specifically, these workplaces have their own specific workflow. The interns are sometimes not only unable to offer any help but may even cause ‘trouble’. The translation style produced by an intern might be quite different from the regular and fixed format in these organisations. The full-time employees are often requested to modify and revise interns’ work, which definitely adds to their workload and actually disturbs the original workflow as well. In this instance organisations who agree to offer internships have to arrange for the students to carry out only very basic administrative and documentary work, which is of course opposite to the objectives of the MTI internship scheme as this makes it difficult to generate meaningful learning.

This shows a lack of well-established communication channels for such cooperation opportunities and, on the other hand, may cause various degrees of misunderstanding from both sides (Massion 2015). In order to improve its internship scheme, the MTI programme at CH Case 1 has decided to set up a work studio named ‘Boya Language Services’ (henceforth Boya), which functions as a collaborative platform for translation practice for both MTI/MLA and CAT students. It is a non-profit agency completely run by students, acting like a simulated start-up. The managerial structure of this ‘company’ includes general manager, marketing director, technical director, in-house translators and freelance translators. This simulated start-up is designed with the purpose of developing translation students’ careers, as the best way for students to learn about an occupation is to actually involve them in translation and other working tasks. For example, if a student would like to set up his/her own business after graduation, he/she might bid for the role of the general manager in this ‘company’ in order to gain some managerial experience. It is also necessary to point out that although Boya is a simulated enterprise, it still has strict entry requirements when recruiting its staff members.

It seems that although Boya is an effective self-created internship base, policymakers of the MTI programme at CH Case 1 do not consider it valid in every sense. An important case in point is that this is only a non-profit simulated organisation, therefore is not a legal entity. Despite this, concerns still go to the benefits of this ‘company’, for example, the ‘manager’ cannot sign contracts nor pay taxes if students provide real language services for society. In this vein, policymakers have considered transforming it into a real company. As explained by CH Interviewee A, it might be difficult to launch a company at CH Case 1 due to administrative regulations, but the senior management board of another key university in Beijing shows a strong interest in this unique type of internship. Therefore, the two universities have decided to work together to register a real enterprise, which is expected to benefit MTI students at both universities. Subsequently, 'Boya Muduo Language Services Company' (Boya Muduo) has been finally established.

CH Interviewee A suggests that this enterprise focusing on language service aims not only at providing internship opportunities, but also fostering highly qualified language administration talents. The money earned by this company will be used to provide scholarships for students as a reward. Recently, Boya Muduo, together with two other companies successfully bid for a project worth more than 1 million RMB. The students can start translating work within this project and have very positive attitudes. The uniqueness of Boya Muduo is that it has more specific goals and narrower objectives, which, in some sense, solves the problem of insufficient placements available for every student. The internship model of the MTI programme at CH Case 1 has therefore provided another possibility for internship base construction, but this model is quite innovative, and not every university can imitate this because it needs policy support, money, networks, highly motivated staff and students.

In the above illustration of the internship places incorporated in the three cases, it can be summarised that students in these three case programmes have different internship opportunities. The MTI programme at CH Case 2—due to its reputation in translation and interpreting, location in a developed economic zone and available resources such as collaborative projects—has established a variety of internship opportunities for its students to gather hands-on experience. Although not many work placements are established in the MTI programme at CH Case 1, students can take the initiative to start a new business or project with the careful guidance of the supervisors and the support of existing companies in the language services industry. Compared to their peers, students of the MTI programme at CH Case 3 have relatively fewer internship opportunities, and actually most of them need to find internships themselves. The underlying reasons for these differences are due to the different levels of education resources, which will be thoroughly discussed in Chapter 5.

4.4.5 The Principle of 'Same Aim but Divergent Curricula'

From the above discussion, we know that 'specialisation' is a distinct feature regarding the Chinese MTI Programme. This 'specialisation' can be aligned with the principle of 'same aim but divergent curricula', referring to the fact that although the MTI Committee has issued a guiding plan to offer blueprints for designing a MTI course, it only provides guidelines not compulsory rules. It is, in fact, advisable that member universities frame their own course aims and design relevant modules, as well as teaching methods, in light of both the guiding plan and their own education resources. This principle is advocated by the policymakers of this degree course and has been approved by many translation scholars in China and course designers of MTI courses (Qian and Yang 2013; Wang 2010; Mu and Wang 2011; Zhou 2012).

From the previous discussion we acknowledge that all three of the cases in this chapter have their own features, fulfilling the principle of 'same aim but divergent curricula'. Specifically, the MTI/MLA programme at CH Case 1 is linked with the wider language services industry, and is dedicated to producing senior project managers for the industry. The MTI programme at CH Case 1, based on its abundant resources and teaching experience in the field of foreign languages and translation, has the aim of preparing its students to work in specialised fields such as commerce, law and media and accordingly offers relevant modules to fulfil this aim. As regards the MTI programme at CH Case 3, its aims and module content are interrelated with its strongest disciplines, such as linguistics, literature and cultural studies.

An example which also reflects the above principle is the MTI programme at a prestigious foreign languages university in Beijing (henceforth BFSU). The 'Reform and Opening-up Policy' in China was put into effect in 1978. B University, on behalf of the Chinese government and the United Nations (UN), then launched the UN Translator Training Centre in 1979. A great number of high calibre translators and interpreters received intensive training from this centre, most of whom work for the UN, for other international organisations and for the Chinese government agencies. Despite the fact that this UN-funded programme was discontinued in 1995, BFSU continued to train translators and interpreters in a newly established Graduate School of Translation and Interpreting (GSTI), the first homegrown programme of its kind in mainland China (Wang and Mu 2009). The later established MTI courses are also included at GSTI.

Due to its special relationship with the UN, the aims and module content of the MTI programme reflect the workflow of translators and interpreters who are working for the UN and other international organisations. As Cao and Zhao (2008) explain, multilingualism is one of the foundations of the UN and has been practised throughout its history. The normal case is that translators at the UN should master two or more working languages. In light of this tradition, the module 'simultaneous interpreting between A, B and C languages' has long been offered at B University, giving it a competitive advantage in China (Zhou 2012, p. 163).

China also has many other types of universities, such as teachers' universities, universities of science and technology, universities of business and economics and more. They may therefore have special focuses concerning their training goals and curriculum. A science-based key university, for example, has offered modules like comparisons of technical texts and translating documents on railway engineering. The MTI programme at a key university in aerospace studies focuses on scientific and technical translation. Meanwhile, both knowledge of science and technology and technological tools for translators have been given more attention in its curriculum (Qian and Yang 2013, pp. 49–53). Furthermore, the MTI programme at a business-oriented university, benefiting from its leading disciplines in economics, finance and international business, has a special training focus on business and commercial translation.

4.5 Summary

This chapter provides readers with the different prospects and emphases of the MTI programmes in China with the help of the three case studies. The distinct characteristic of the MTI programme at CH Case 1 is its cross-disciplinarity, and this programme was the first in China to foster language administrators by linking translation and the language industry with the world of management. The MTI programme at CH Case 2 aims to prepare its translation students for work in more specialised fields, and offers relevant modules to help consolidate students' knowledge and skills. Unlike these two programmes, the MTI programme at CH Case 3 is trying to balance theoretical content and professional needs, which, in fact, represents the approach taken by most institutions in China.

Moreover, in view of the above findings, it can be concluded that economic and geographical factors have a strong influence on the design and delivery of MTI courses. There are more demands for translation services in the capital Beijing and the economically developed provinces, therefore the MTI programmes at CH Case 1 and CH Case 2 are likely to build up a better relationship between the university and industry. The internship places offered in these two universities are outstanding examples to illustrate this relationship. In addition, the reputation and the type of educational establishment may also have an impact on the MTI courses. Foreign language universities may have a higher calibre of staff to teach professional issues in translation, and may have more opportunities to build up university-business partnerships. These factors, deemed as education resources, will be further analysed in the comparison chapter.

Notes

1. The information on the professional degree in China is summarised from the official website of the China Academic Degree and Graduate Education Information, which can be accessed at: http://www.cdgdc.edu.cn/xwyyjsjyxx/gjjl/.
2. Please refer to the appendices for the full list of professional degrees at master's level in China.
3. This pathway has been established and started recruiting students since 2015. Due to the reason that it is still at its preliminary stage having few graduates, its aims and module content will not become research objectives in this book, but may be explored in detail in future research.
4. This information is obtained from the report on 'The Features of the Translation and Localisation Service Market in China', which can be accessed at: http://www.tac-online.org.cn/en/tran/2009-10/14/content_3180378.htm (TAC 2009).
5. Mandatory courses are equivalent to core modules in the UK. Restricted elective course means that although these courses are elective, students still need to choose some of them to study. Students do not need to select all the restricted select courses in the list. The same is true for optional courses.
6. The detailed information of the module content and the following analysis are summarised from (1) Programme Prospectus (hard copy); (2) the course flyer and programme specifications; and (3) the conversation with CH Interviewee A, who explained the rationales and the detailed content of specific modules.

7. Information about this firm is mainly consulted from its website: http://www.transn.com/index.html.
8. For example, there were 128 students (both translating and interpreting pathways) enrolled in the MTI programme at CH Case 2 in 2013.

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CHAPTER 5

Context and Comparison of Translation Programmes in China and the UK: Market Forces, Global Positions and Curriculum Content

5.1 Introduction

In Chapters 3 and 4, we thoroughly analysed the status quo of postgraduate courses in translating (English–Chinese) in the UK and China, respectively. The purpose of this chapter is to examine the impacts of neoliberalism and globalisation on the HE system in both China and the UK, and how their pertinent degree courses are responding to these impacts in their different national contexts as well as in their different global positions. In particular, the two major questions in this chapter are: (1) How have market forces affected the delivery of translation programmes? (2) How have the six case studies in both countries responded to these market forces? As comparative research into translation programme design of translating courses from a cross-national perspective is still at a relatively embryonic stage, in this chapter we compare six case studies in the UK and China so as to distinguish some key differences in delivery of translation programmes with the benchmark, the tension between education and training, and between its different facets: theory and practice; and research and product.

This chapter is organised as follows. Section 5.2 provides readers with information on the British and Chinese HE sectors in the context of neo-liberal globalisation, with a particular focus on how the HE sectors are differently placed. In short, the three main characteristics for current UK universities are: (1) internationalising the UK's higher education sector, (2) requiring that research achievements have more

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impact, and (3) linking HE to employability. The HE sector in China has been expanded, decentralised and commercialised over the past years. More importantly, the HE sector has become a significant part of China's wider development strategy (e.g. the construction of soft power). Section 5.3 discusses in detail the current tension between education and training in universities and how this tension has related to the subject area of Translation Studies, and Sect. 5.4 undertakes empirical analyses, using examples to demonstrate how differently the translation programmes in these two countries have responded to market forces. Section 5.5 concludes this chapter.

5.2 Higher Education in the Context of Neo-liberal Globalisation: The UK and China

5.2.1 *The Implementation of Neo-liberal Ideals*

Advocated by the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank, neoliberalism[1] was founded on 'a belief in the supremacy of the market over state intervention', and 'seeks to bring about societal changes by creating conditions that allow free competition' (Harland 2009, pp. 512–513). To be more precise, since the imposition of free market policies in the 1980s,[2] this new economic structure, mainly characterised by the opening of markets, government deregulation and wholesale privatisation, has come to dominate international affairs. Moreover, due to the collapse of the former USSR and the end of the Cold War, the world was no longer polarised between the US and Russia. Instead, international business and trade between different countries have become more frequent since then, and these regular exchanges have boosted ongoing global economic growth. Meanwhile, free trade in business has boosted the free trade in 'minds', and international mobility between the HE sectors in different countries has become more popular than ever before.

Despite resistance, neo-liberal political and economic reform has had a profound influence on higher education (Harland 2009, p. 512). In this context of neo-liberal (economic) globalisation, higher education policies in many countries (e.g. Australia, Canada, China, Germany, New Zealand, Singapore, Sweden, the UK and the US) are shifting to neo-liberal orientations, with a redefinition of relationships between the university, the state, and the market (Yang 2009; Ma 2013). Furthermore, the concept of 'knowledge economy' was first put forward by the United

Nations in 1990, which indicated that universities should make knowledge more useful for the economy. Traditionally, knowledge was primarily aimed at the development of individuals, but since neoliberalism, knowledge is required to make a greater contribution to economic development. In a sense, 'knowledge became recognised as a commodity that could provide economic wealth and also be traded' (Harland 2009, p. 513). The HE sector, in relation to knowledge production and distribution, cannot be immune to the international context.

Driven by neo-liberal values, universities worldwide—including the two collective case studies (the UK and China) in this book—are under a multitude of pressures from global economic competition. More specifically, market forces have had a major impact on university strategies, research purposes, teaching and learning methods and the delivery of pertinent education programmes. For instance, universities in both countries have realised the importance of the connection between knowledge and business sectors. Despite different approaches, both countries are internationalising their universities.[3] However, due to different national contexts and global positions, each country has formulated different (or partly different) strategies in their HE sectors to cope with this global pressure. The following discusses how British and Chinese universities are responding to market forces within different national contexts and global positions.

5.2.2 *Impacts of Neoliberalism on UK Universities*

It cannot be denied that teaching and learning traditions in a country are strongly influenced by its social, political and economic contexts. This is also true in both the UK and China. After World War II, the British government struggled to achieve a post-war imperial vision and deemed its HE sector an important tool to support economic recovery and development, and, more importantly, to exert power and influence in other countries around the world (Ma 2013, p. 78), mainly through foreign aid for higher education in member states of the Commonwealth of the Nations and in other less developed countries. From this perspective, global influence building and reputation and brand recognition were important tasks for the UK after World War II.

After the adoption of the free market policy in the 1980s and when 'resources failed to keep pace with high rates of inflation' (Willmott 2010, p. 131), the Thatcher government decided to make cuts in university funding. In addition, the policy of ‘full-cost university tuition fees’ was introduced. Thus, the ‘free’ university education was replaced by a system of student loans. This policy indicated that the previous ‘foreign aid’ strategy had been transferred to ‘foreign trade’ in the HE sector in the UK. From 1980 onwards, the government decided to make UK higher education more competitive (1980–1997) and to build a globally-competitive, knowledge-based and higher education services sector (1997–2010 or till now) (Robertson 2010). Many government reports were released to demonstrate the importance of the HE sector to boost the economic growth in the UK. For example, it was clearly stated in the *White Paper on Education: Meeting the Challenges* (1987) that the HE sector should serve the nation’s economic development more effectively, and that it was necessary for the HE sector to build up closer relationships with the business sector. The subsequent *Education Reform Act* (1988) regarded universities as also responsible for achieving for the wider social and national good. *The Dearing Report* (1997) also stressed that the HE sector should increase its contribution to the economy and its responsiveness to the needs of business. These education policies led to the adoption of the marketisation strategy of the HE sector in the UK.

In addition to tangible market demands and economic factors, the changing world order has also had an influence on the development of the HE sector in the UK. After the end of World War II (especially in the post-Cold War era), the power status of the UK and the USA was ultimately reversed, with the former declining to the position of a second rate power and the latter ascending to the position of a superpower. In world affairs, the UK, clinging to its ‘special relationship’ with the USA, is now the USA’s most capable and reliable ally. This transition of power within Anglo-American relations has affected the UK’s foreign affairs agenda, signifying that economic growth, instead of political influence, is now the nation’s top priority. It can also be seen from the government’s official website that the UK government now ‘works to promote and protect UK interests internationally, and works with other countries to make progress on issues of mutual concern like trade, climate change, security and economic development’.[4]

We can acknowledge that hard power like military and economic strength influence international politics. But sometimes, intangible attractions rather than military force or economic sanctions work more effectively. Soft power, defined by Nye (2005, p. 34), ‘is the ability to get what you want through attraction rather than coercion or payments.

It arises from the attractiveness of a country's culture, political ideals and policies'. Due to its history, culture, the global nature of English language, attractive tourist sites and the free market for investors, the UK has been very competitive in terms of soft power. According to the influential IFG-Monocle Soft Power Index, the UK ranked second in 2010 and top in 2012 (see Table 5.1).

In another influential ranking system, the Anholt-Gfk Roper Nation Brand Index 2013, the UK ranked fourth (see Table 5.2), while the first three brands were the United States, Canada and Germany.

Unlike some of the emerging economies (e.g. China, Brazil) that are in the process of building an image in world affairs, the consolidation of the reputation and brand in which the HE sector plays an important role, is more important to the UK government. For instance, the large number of international students studying in the UK can help strengthen the reputation of the UK via promoting the English language and British culture and building closer links between the UK and the students' home countries.

Table 5.1 Soft power index results in 2012 (top 5) (*Source* 2012 IFG-Monocle Soft Power Index (summarised from Bloomfield 2013; McClory 2013))

Rank	*Country*	*Score*
1	UK	7.289
2	USA	6.989
3	Germany	6.484
4	France	6.472
5	Sweden	5.752

Table 5.2 The Anholt-Gfk Nation Brand Index in 2013 (*Source* http://www.gfk.com)

2013 Rank	*Nation*	*Score change*
1	United States	−0.58
2	Canada	−0.40
3	Germany	−0.22
4	United Kingdom	−0.28
5	Switzerland	−0.21
—	—	—
21	Brazil	−0.26
25	Russia	−1.04
31	China	−0.14
42	India	−0.78

In view of the above, the HE sector in the UK has now become a key element of the wider global knowledge economy, with the expectation that teaching and research should generate an impact in response to society's economic, social and political needs. Driven by these strategies, internationalising the UK's HE sector, requiring that research achievements have more impact, and linking HE to employability are becoming three main characteristics for current universities in the UK.

5.2.2.1 International Education in the HE Sector

One consequence of the neo-liberal reform concerns the revenues of the universities. Currently, due to the decline of public funds, universities in the UK need to diversify their revenues, including moving away from government support, balancing local budgets, and delivering 'value' regionally and internationally. Moreover, UK universities have been relatively autonomous since the Blair government and should be responsible for their own sustainable development. Therefore, in order to raise money from different channels, the pursuit of international education in the HE sector has become an essential goal for most UK universities. One of the most prominent features of this international education is the recruitment of international students.

After many years' development, the UK is now the second most popular destination in the world for international students (Great Britain. Parliament. House of Commons 2007). There were 312,000 students from outside the EU (2014–2015) registered as students in UK universities, representing around 71% of all international students (HESA Students 2015; Universities UK 2017). The substantial number of international students makes a great contribution to the UK economy in both tuition fees and living expenditure. As Cemmell and Bekhradnia (2008) note,

> UK universities receive on average 8 per cent of their total income from international students. This income is as important as, for example, the funding they receive from the Funding Councils for research – and there are 10 institutions with twice this level of dependence on international fee income.

Moreover, over 75% of estimated income in 2011 (£13.6bn) is derived from the tuition fees and living expenses of students physically studying in the UK (Great Britain. Department of Education 2013). Living expenses also boost the economic development of the surrounding areas, for example, university partnership accommodation, grocery stores, book and stationery shops and more. Thus, 'the contribution of students to university cities and regions is an important part of a university's impact' (Universities UK 2014, p. 18) and brings direct economic value to the UK.

Apart from recruiting international students, some UK universities also take measures to broaden the dimension of international education aimed at seizing the HE market abroad via opening up transnational campuses,[5] or Joint Ventures (JV) universities. So far, according to the QS statistics (2012),[6]

> Most branch campuses have been clustered in the Gulf region, particularly in the United Arab Emirates, which with 37 has more than any other country. However, more campuses are now opening further east, particularly in Singapore, which has 18, and China, with 17. These are just the highest densities; on a smaller scale, branches are appearing in every part of the world – from South Korea to Greece, Mexico to Rwanda and many other countries in between.

Universities UK (2010, p. 19) estimate that 'there are between 50 and 70 overseas universities with bases in the UK'. These models of transnational education, apart from projecting economic value and recognised reputation, can also allow the UK HE sector to bid for and engage in overseas-funded research projects.[7] More broadly, this model enables UK universities to develop partnerships with overseas counterparts and local businesses, which can facilitate international knowledge transfer and spillovers. Another important benefit which cannot be underestimated is that overseas campuses have the function to attract students to the institution's campus in the UK for further study, from which the institution itself and the UK economy will derive additional value (Great Britain. Department of Education 2013).

The above facts and figures highlight that international education has become an important strategy for the sustainable development of UK universities. Apart from contributing directly to the nation's economy, education exports also bring a number of indirect benefits. Firstly, students who study in the UK or UK affiliated campuses can help promote the English language and British culture. Secondly, international exchange can strengthen the quality and reputation of the UK HE sector. Lastly, current international students, alumni, visiting scholars, and executive programme trainees are precious assets to the UK HE sector as well as to the country because these people may help to strengthen overseas business, research, social and cultural links.

5.2.2.2 *Excellence in Research: A Measure of Securing a Sustainable Future for Universities*

Since the 1980s, the higher education system in the UK has 'placed considerable emphasis on cultural exchange and the need to overtly manage academics and academic work in the context of marketisation and gradual privatisation of publicly funded education' (Deem et al. 2007, p. 9). In this vein, the trinity of teaching, research and management has transformed itself significantly, and this significant change affects the nature of academic work; for example, the nexus between research activity and the needs of industry has been increasingly reinforced in this new context.

As Schofield (2011, p. 12) claims, 'in the UK there is a strong tradition of research in all subjects, and most of the UK's long-term, curiosity-driven and strategic research is carried out in HE'. In recent years, due to neo-liberal-driven practices, researchers are encouraged to share knowledge with others outside of their institutions, and then to form partnerships outside the world of academia. Policymakers of universities are also keen to establish sustainable university-business partnerships to maintain success of their institutions on a global scale.

These partnerships are also known as Knowledge Transfer Partnerships (KTPs), which support UK businesses wanting to improve their competitiveness, productivity and performance by accessing the knowledge and expertise available within UK universities and colleges. Knowledge transfer is currently an increasing priority for universities, and is also a major expectation of government (ibid., p. 31).

These knowledge exchange activities with industry and business sectors have dual benefits. Universities, on the one hand, may obtain resources, credibility and opportunities; while on the other hand, business sectors may gain at least six benefits: latest knowledge, talent, ideas, capacity, research expertise relevant to its business and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR).[8] More specifically, through working with universities, companies have access to research expertise. They can gain knowledge about the latest developments. Meanwhile, research is able to help companies find new ways of addressing challenges which are nearer to the market, and to help companies improve business processes and efficiency. Human capital is another important benefit as businesses use the recruitment of graduates as well as research staff as a primary way to access the latest research and skills (Russell Group Strategic Report 2010, pp. 8–16).

Knowledge transfer is not only associated with science-related subjects, but also embedded into research projects in the Arts and Humanities. The Arts and Humanities Research Council (AHRC),[9] a renowned national funding agency supporting both Arts and Humanities research, has of course formulated relevant strategies of knowledge transfer in its strategic aims (AHRC Vision and Strategy, 2007–2012). Fulfilling this aim will involve strengthening the impact of Arts and Humanities research by encouraging researchers to disseminate and transfer knowledge to other contexts where it makes a difference, and by raising the profile of Arts and Humanities research and thus achieving the aim as an effective advocate for its social, cultural and economic significance (ibid., pp. 13–15). Moreover, in the latest annual report and accounts of the AHRC, it is stated that 'the AHRC supports Arts and Humanities researchers in their engagement with the UK's vibrant creative economy, helping to develop new IP (Intellectual Property), innovative products and services, and new business models in this rapidly changing field' (2013, p. 16).

These visions and strategies have established a framework for researchers in the Arts and Humanities to exchange their latest research with other disciplines and sectors from the perspective of policies. However, it is not easy to generate concrete economic benefits for society in every subject area of Arts and Humanities. Subject areas like English, Museum Study or History are more likely to generate economic and social impacts. For example, English can be applied in local communities; exhibitions can also be set up in museums. But for subjects like literature or linguistics, it is relatively difficult to generate sufficient economic benefits to society in that the research accomplishments in these areas may not find direct applications in pertinent industries; instead, research accomplishments of literatures, for example, focus more on the level of knowledge enhancement than on concrete techniques.

This progressive tightening of the coupling between research and industry has also influenced teaching. As research-led teaching is quite prevalent among UK universities, research-led teaching within the framework of KTPs may equip graduates with the personal and professional skills that employers need (Russell Group Strategic Report 2010, p. 3). In its strategic report the Russell Group has conveyed the importance of enhancing students' employability through daily teaching, arguing that this upgraded teaching method may turn out students who are independent and critical thinkers, effective communicators, and professionals with the transferrable skills that are demanded in the marketplace, indicating that the Russell Group is mixing old and new priorities.

In the meantime, Professor Rebecca Boden from Roehampton University Business School[10] and Professor Maria Nevada from Manchester Business School have raised their concerns about the necessity of incorporating employability into university degrees which should be a target for the whole university, in line with the neoliberalism of the higher education. They believe that 'producing workers so that we can compete in the global knowledge is also a legitimising discourse' (Boden and Nedeva 2010, pp. 37–38). Hence, to make university courses (both at undergraduate and postgraduate level) more professional seems to have become the consensus among most UK universities, though the execution of this varies tremendously in different institutions.

5.2.2.3 Teaching, Learning and Supply of Highly Skilled Labour: The Importance of Employability

Students are now paying tuition fees themselves and they also expect universities to offer practical teaching content, provide them with career guidance and help them develop employability skills to compete in this neo-liberal globalised era. This is why degree courses are required to meet market demands and the changing expectations of the students. Adding employability-related elements to their courses is common practice in today's UK universities. The essence of 'employability' could be embedded in many strands. Teaching skills that increase employability and offering short-term work placements are two feasible actions often carried out by university programmes.

In response to this market demand, multidisciplinary courses are also not new, especially in the fields of science, engineering and business. The MSc in Sustainable Energy and Entrepreneurship at the University of Nottingham is such an example. As clearly introduced in the course flyer, students will develop confidence and understanding 'in the specialist field of entrepreneurship applied to technology that can arise from the research base of sustainable energy subjects'. Upon graduation, they are provided with a solid foundation in modern business as well as essential technical skills in the field of sustainable energy. Such graduates from a joint programme are called 'interdisciplinary talents'. This type of faculty collaboration could also exist in the faculties of arts and social sciences. A course including both cultural industries and management could be another feasible example targeting arts subjects. In such courses, students are provided with both theories and practices in cultural studies and the skills to explore various models for the development of creative enterprises. Universities such as King's College London (KCL), Leeds and Warwick have opened such courses linking creative cultures and business in the UK. For example, KCL offers an MA in Cultural and Creative Industries, Leeds has an MA course in Culture, Creativity and Entrepreneurship and an MA in Creative and Media Enterprises is offered by the University of Warwick. These examples successfully demonstrate how university courses are linked with employability, work experience and industry. In the field of Translation Studies, there are several examples of specialist and multidisciplinary orientations (Business Interpreting in Chinese and English, and Scientific, Technical and Medical Translation with Translation Technology). More professional issues or employability skills in specific subject areas could be included in these programmes.

5.2.3 Impacts of Neoliberalism on Chinese Universities

The Communist Party of China's (CPC) decisions on the transformation from a planned economy to a market economy in the late 1970s has 'led to the growing prominence of ideas and strategies along the lines of neoliberalism being adopted not only in reforming the economic sector but also in managing the public sector and in delivering social policy' (Wong and Flynn 2001; So 2006, cited in Mok and Lo 2007). These market philosophies have also burgeoned in the Chinese higher education sector, and the influence of supranational organisations is increasing. Commercialisation is no longer the prerogative of Western countries. Therefore, building closer links between education and the market has become one of the most prominent themes of China's recent education reforms. Similar to its peers in the West, along with rapid economic development as well as in the broad context of neo-liberal globalisation, the Chinese HE system has also undergone radical changes. These changes, for example, include the commercialisation of the HE sector, the expansion of higher education and its marketisation and privatisation, the recognition of the value of knowledge in the knowledge economy, and the trend of supporting professional education (Yang 2009; Mok and Lo 2007; Wu and Zheng 2008; Yao et al. 2010; Chen 2012).

5.2.3.1 *The Expansion of the Chinese HE Sector (from Elitist to Mass Education)*

The expansion of the HE sector is one of the most prominent changes resulting from the implementation of neoliberalism in education. From 1949 to the late 1970s, the HE sector in China was based on the former USSR model. In this context, all HE relevant resources and policies were controlled by the state and very few senior high school students (less than 5%) could be enrolled in universities (Wu and Zheng 2008; Yao et al. 2010). At that time, government agencies such as the MoE and agencies in charge of infrastructure (steel and the railway)[11] provided students with tuition and accommodation fees, and jobs were also guaranteed for students who completed designated degree courses (Wu and Zheng 2008). However, since the 1990s, the government has decided to expand its HE sector to keep pace with expansion in industrialisation and rapid developments in the science and technology sectors (Wang 1999, p. 157).

There are two main aspects of this expanding process: the expansion in the number of China's undergraduate entrants, and large increases in the number of Chinese universities. According to the statistics gathered by Li et al. (2012, p. 137), there have been large increases in student numbers: 'in 1998 the total number of graduates was 830,000; in 2009 it was 5,311,000, an increase by a factor of 6.4. The number of enrolments (both for new students and for total students) has also risen rapidly' (see Fig. 5.1).

Moreover, the number of universities nationwide also saw significant growth from 1022 to 1912 institutions between 1998 and 2007 (Chen and Wu 2011, p. 15), and as of April 2012, there are altogether 2138 national colleges and universities. This rapid expansion in numbers of both students and universities signals that the Chinese HE system has been transformed from elite to mass (Pretorius and Xue 2003; Wu and Zheng 2008; Yao et al. 2010). This sudden large expansion, on the one hand, was favoured by parents, students and employers. More and more students have the opportunity to enter into universities, and the expansion also 'contributes to national economic growth, since better-educated workers create more production' (ibid., p. 840). On the other hand, however, Chinese universities were not well prepared for the unexpected phenomenon and therefore faced pressure due to a shortage of facilities (Du 2000, p. 159) and public funding. In particular, the HE expansion in both volume and speed cannot be supported by the central

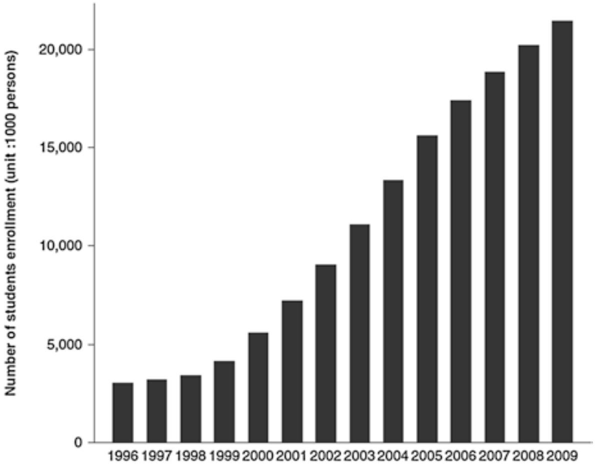

Fig. 5.1 Enrolment in tertiary education in China (unit: 1000 persons) (*Source* National Bureau of Statistics of China (2006/2010), cited in Li et al. (2012, p. 138))

government's allocations to education. The government-related agencies were no longer able to afford to pay every student's tuition fees and living expenditures. Instead, students (in most cases their parents) had to pay their own tuition fees. Furthermore, the funding mechanism of the HE sector has been reformed so that the MoE—the representative of the central government—only funds a small number of prestigious universities, while the great majority of 'normal' universities are funded and managed by local governments. Therefore, with the continual decline in the central government's allocations to education, educational financing and provision have relied heavily upon the financial abilities of local governments and individual contributions (Mok and Lo 2007).

5.2.3.2 The Decentralisation of the Chinese HE System

This has brought about another reform: the decentralisation of the Chinese HE system. In particular, the MoE is only in charge of 107 national key universities (recognised as 'Project 211' and 'Project 985'[12]). Local governments are expected to be responsible for support of all non-key universities (Huang 2005). These 107 prestigious universities are research-oriented and are expected to become internationally competitive. Most of them are located in directly governed city regions[13] and some rich cities and provinces (e.g. Shanghai and Guangdong). While non-key universities, in terms of numbers, far outweigh national key universities,[14] many of them are located in less developed regions with reduced access to education resources.

The strategy of decentralising powers from central to provincial government has improved efficiency and quality, provided local authorities with greater incentives to support and participate in the HE reform, and promoted linkages between higher education and local economic and social conditions (Wu and Zheng 2008; Pretorius and Xue 2003). But at the same time, the expansion and decentralisation of the HE sector has brought several challenges. As Yang (2006, cited in Yao et al. 2010, p. 844) points out, 'students from national key universities are more likely to find jobs (and indeed, better-paid jobs) than those from non-key universities'. This, of course, causes tension in the labour market, which has brought about two consequences. Firstly, underdeveloped regions (western and inland provinces, mainly) experience serious shortages of human capital, such as qualified technical and professional workers (Yao et al. 2010). Secondly, as Wan (2006) summarises, the supply of graduates greatly exceeds demand in major cities and coastal provinces.

5.2.3.3 Commercialisation, Privatisation and Diversification of the HE Sector

Another impact of the neo-liberal policy on the Chinese HE system is the commercialisation of universities. Owing to the fact that marketisation of higher education has become a significant trend all over the world (Wang 2016), China has also responded to these market ideologies in several aspects. With the adoption of the socialist market economy system, the HE sector in China is increasingly affected by market forces. As a result, private education institutions, Sino-foreign universities or other partnerships with new funding patterns have emerged, which clearly suggests that China's education has been undergoing this process of marketisation. While these new forms of universities, on the one hand, provide high school students with more HE choices and opportunities, on the other hand, closer links between education and the market are built up as these types of universities are not entirely run by the state but also owned and operated by companies and other entities (Li et al. 2012).

In addition, the expansion of students in regular HE institutions has stimulated the increase in postgraduate candidates. More and more students have decide to pursue further study after graduation due to the problem of unemployment (Wu and Zheng 2008). In order to address this problem, in line with the nation's rapid economic development, the professional degree (mainly at master's level), regarded as a typical example of the closer relationship between education and the market, was established in 1990 and has been expanded greatly in the past two decades. Nowadays, there are 39 subjects at master's level (Appendix 2), including our target the MTI programme. This professional degree is designed to meet professional requirements in pertinent industries. The professional degree, equally important as an academic degree which is more research-oriented, aims at cultivating more skilled labour for the market nationally and internationally. Seen in this light, driven by market forces, the HE provision in China has clearly been diversified and developed through various forms and methods. (Wei and Zhang 1995; Lin et al. 2005; Mok 2005; Mok and Lo 2007).

5.2.3.4 Higher Education as Part of China's Wider Development Strategy
Previous parts in this section give a demonstration of the impacts of neoliberal economic reform on the Chinese HE sector. However, China's culture, ideals and policies, regarded as soft power, are 'far from being the equal of America or Europe' (Nye 2012, p. 155), and are still not as influential as its economic contribution on the global stage. Despite attainments in many fields, China is a newcomer in international affairs and is still in the process of building its image, reputation and brand recognition. In this sense, the government has decided to promote the nation's soft power because it seeks to establish itself as a major player in world affairs (Yang 2010). Therefore, soft power construction has become an urgent and important agenda for the Chinese government in recent years. Translation programmes, the Confucius Institutes (CIs) and media coverage are three examples which contribute towards fulfilling the national aim.

The Chinese government has taken many measures to achieve this goal. In 2007, the then CPC General Secretary Hu Jintao, spoke vehemently and convincingly to the 17th Communist Party Congress about the importance of constructing the country's soft power. Five years later, during the opening ceremony of the 18th CPC National Congress in November 2012, Hu, in his keynote report,[15] reiterated the necessity for consolidating cultural soft power of the country under the section of 'developing a strong socialist culture in China'. This strategy remains an important issue under the government of President Xi Jinping.[16] According to a report by Xinhua Net, 'President Xi Jinping has vowed to promote China's cultural soft power by disseminating modern Chinese values and showing the charm of Chinese culture to the world'[17] (2014). In fact, China is blessed with a wide spectrum of cultural resources that help produce soft power: natural wonders, cuisines, traditional medicine, literature, arts, philosophies and folk religions (Zhang 2009). China also has had 'attractive traditional culture, such as Confucian values of social harmony, ritual, filial piety and compassionate rule spread to influence much of East Asia' (Nye 2012, p. 154). In line with Wang's (2013) argument, culture, as a pillar of soft power, can inspire desire and duty and thus persuade people to cooperate. As Nye (2005, p. 41) also proposed, 'when a country includes universal values and its policies promote values and interests that others share, it increases the possibility of obtaining its desired outcomes because of the relationships of attraction and duty created'. All these facts and statements demonstrate the significant role of soft power in a nation's sustainable development. Apart from enhancing the overall strength and international competitiveness of Chinese culture, the current Chinese government wants more say in international affairs, indicating that effective communication with the rest of the world is also vital for the country's further development in all spheres of life.

There are many ways to promote Chinese culture and policies in other countries. Media coverage is an effective way to promote core Chinese cultural values globally. For instance, the channel CCTV News (originally CCTV 9) of China Central Television[18] serves as an important channel to promote Chinese culture and language by broadcasting reports and stories in English. This is part of a broader effort at 'soft power rise' and is believed to be an effective way of increasing China's global influence (Zhang 2009, p. 111).

Secondly, the strategy for Chinese companies to 'go global' can also promote Chinese soft power in some ways. As part of a strategy to increase China's international competitiveness and to help rebalance the country's export-oriented and investment-driven growth model, as well as to gain political capital overseas, the Chinese government launched a national campaign in 2006 to encourage Chinese firms to 'Go Global' (Yao and He 2014, p. 30), which aims to enable Chinese firms to compete with foreign competitors and to benefit further from the international division of labour. In recent years, both state-owned enterprises and private-owned firms have started to internationalise with purposes of seeking resources and market expansion. Establishing branches or JVs or merging with local companies in other countries demonstrates a nation's ability in finance, technologies and resources, which are, in fact, 'hard power'. But on the other hand, managing and interacting with local employees who have different cultural backgrounds is also important, representing a nation's 'soft power'. Additionally, people working in these international firms, or translators, interpreters and language experts getting involved in business negotiating activities, are also natural 'messengers' of Chinese cultural values in other countries.

Apart from interacting with the media and Chinese firms, education can and should play a pivotal role in making China become more internationally competitive. Clearly, the government realises the critical role of higher education in the projection of soft power (Yang 2010) as exchanges among universities and countries, international cooperation and joint research, and academic staff and students' mobility may also have an impact on the construction of a nation's soft power, and on the promotion of a nation's values (Nye 2005; Li 2013). Despite criticism from political and academic circles that CIs might jeopardise the academic integrity of higher education (Yang 2010; Chey 2007; Starr 2009), the establishment of CIs is an outstanding example of promoting Chinese soft power via the HE sector. Affiliated within each university in different countries, the CIs provide students and staff who are interested in China with a platform to understand Chinese perspectives by learning Chinese language and culture (ibid.). This is commonly regarded as a tool to enhance China's soft power (Gil 2008).

In addition to CIs and other exchange programmes in the HE sector, are there any connections between translation programmes and the promotion of Chinese culture? The answer is definitely yes. The process of translation between two different written languages is, in some sense, a process of cultural exchange and transfer. Moreover, political, people-to-people, and economic and financial dialogues between China and the rest of the world happen almost every month, in which English–Chinese translators, interpreters and bilingual experts are the messengers. Therefore, translation is given a key role in this national mission of promoting soft power. The translation programmes established in the HE sector (at both undergraduate and postgraduate level) are then expected to respond to this national strategy. In particular, policymakers and scholars hope the translation programmes' teachers can develop students' cultural awareness and outgoing translation competence so that more and more Chinese masterpieces, and political and cultural values can be translated and introduced to people from the rest of the world.

Meanwhile, cross-disciplinary research and practice between Translation Studies and other subjects should be carried out in the HE sector as translation should also play a role in other sectors such as economics, finance, publishing, science and technology, commerce and more (Huang 2011; Zhou 2012; Wang 2012; Xu 2012). Also, outgoing translators and language professionals—especially those who are competent in the areas of infrastructure, finance and economics—will be in bigger demand in the future as more international cooperation projects are underway within *the Belt and Road Initiative* (Huang 2017). These are advocated in order to fit translation education into the national strategy.

To sum up and compare these two countries, it is worth highlighting that in the context of neo-liberal economic globalisation, universities in both the UK and China are facing common challenges, such as the tension between education and training, and they have to make their degree courses more professional in order to nurture high calibre labour forces facing fierce global competition. However, due to the fact that these two countries are now in different positions in the global system, they have different strategies to respond to the neo-liberal trend. For the UK, the business growth benefits of the HE sector matter most. Moreover, universities in the UK have more autonomy, and they respond independently to the market forces of government. University heads need to be responsible for the university's sustainable growth. In China, disseminating the nation's soft power is an important agenda in most sectors, not limited only to the HE sector. From another perspective, economic benefit is relatively less considered because China has a much more centralised HE system which is more homogenous. The government directs each university to carry out their own strategic plans. In a sense, the HE sector should serve the nation's social and political needs. These different national contexts in the UK and China will also influence the delivery of their degree courses.

5.3 The Tension Between Education and Training

According to the earlier analysis, it is the case that both China and the UK's higher education systems are equally exposed to the forces of globalisation and neoliberalism, and both want to make their programmes more 'professional'. However, this professional idea is not always well adopted in the process of designing a course as 'the relationship between real-world vocational demands and the classical humanist traditions of academe has not always been an easy one' (Kearns 2008, p. 18).

In this section, the relationship between education and training will be initially discussed. The findings of this discussion will then be used to assess translation programmes in this respect, and investigate the different tensions between education and training faced by translation programmes in the UK and China, but mainly within British models.

Before going any deeper, it is essential to acknowledge the distinct aims of education and training. From Bernardini's point of view, training aims to,

> Prepare learners to solve problems that can be identified in advance through the application of pre-set, or acquired procedure. Learning through training is a cumulative process, in which the learner is required to put together as large an inventory of pieces of knowledge as possible in the field in which she is being trained. (Bernardini 2010, p. 19)

On the other side, 'the core aim of education is to favour the growth of the individual, developing her cognitive capacities, and those attitudes and predispositions that will put her in a position to cope with the most varying (professional) situations' (ibid., pp. 19–20).

In view of the above definitions, it is found that the function of training is to teach for specific purposes, particularly dealing with short-term vocational courses; education, however, is for general purposes, which usually coincides with long-term aims of seeking 'the growth of individuals and their long-term empowerment with generic problem-solving abilities' (Tan 2008, p. 595). This is usually the aim of degree courses at universities, especially the humanities.

Although education—traditionally—primarily refers to university courses while training is more related to short-term vocational courses, these two terms are both used in current universities, especially in universities' policies, mission statements or programme specifications. For instance, The University of Manchester—a research-intensive institution—makes provision within its strategic plan to:

> provide world-class postgraduate research and training as a vital, integral part of the overall research activity of the University[…]Superb postgraduate research and training is a core function of a research university, both in contributing to present research excellence and as an investment in future success… (*Source* http://www.manchester.ac.uk/)

Moreover, 'training' and training-related words (e.g. skills, profession) are also frequently used in a variety of degree programme specifications. The MSc in Sustainable Energy and Entrepreneurship at Nottingham University, for example, claims that it 'provides students with advanced skills and vital training in renewable energy, energy efficiency and business'.[19] The underlying message of these examples is that training is no longer understood in the narrow sense of short-term training or vocational apprenticeship. Instead, with the proliferation of the marketisation of current universities, the concept of training, together with all its different facets (skills, professionalism, market-driven method) is largely adopted in university settings. For example, phrases like 'transferrable skills' are frequently used in the programme or module specifications.

Be that as it may, the discussion on the dichotomy between education and training has never been resolved. Some, adhering to the classical humanist tradition, may hold the opinion that there should be a dichotomy between education and training, or more exactly, between academia and profession. However, as Kearns argues (2008, p. 192),

> To those accustomed to more traditional university curricula, such an approach[20] appears not to permit either intellectual reflection or a role for research and thus rules itself out of contention for inclusion in university curricula.

Hager and Hyland (2003, p. 274) also provide opinion against this dichotomy, arguing that,

> Such dichotomous theory/practice thinking prevents serious consideration of knowledge peculiar to the workplace, or of the possibility that the workplace might be an important and distinctive source of knowledge. If workplace practice merely involves the application of general theories (taught through formal education), then the details of the workplace remain of little interest to formal education.

No matter how the relationship is defined (education/training, academia/profession, theory/profession), education and training can be made to coincide in Translation Studies. For example, TS scholars use 'education' and 'training', to some extent, to refer to the same activities, which are to nurture competent translators at universities. Moreover, the mix and match use of education and training is not new in our field, and 'education' and 'training' are not strictly separated as 'translation competence is most effectively developed at an academic institution' (Schäffner and Adab 2000, p. x).

For example, Ulrych (2010) and Niska (2010) use 'training' to discuss translation and interpreting education programmes, curricula and practices at tertiary level at universities. Also, in her book entitled *A Handbook for Translator Trainers*, Dorothy Kelly (2005) proposes objectives, activities, tasks, projects, syllabuses, and full curricula for implementation on all translator training programmes (referring to degree courses at universities). The case study of the Chinese MTI Programme also follows the essence of training, but this professional degree course is contingent on academic settings. Thus, by linking this situation to the earlier discussions that both 'education' and 'training' are receiving attention in current universities we know that balancing academic and professional pedagogies can be a possible strategy in teaching translation. Moreover, transferrable skills and employability can be embedded in the curricula of translation programmes. Training here is not only related to vocational skills. What's more, some translation training courses are 'fully integrated into the university systems and thus linked to departments which also conduct research; these tend to include a higher proportion of theoretical elements' (ibid., p. 9).

Another dimension of the tension between education and training mainly centres on the impact of market demands on the degree course, in particular how to bridge the (potential) gap between degree programme curricula and students' employability. Driven by the neo-liberal model of universities, it is advocated both by employers and the major stakeholder, students, that HE institutions need to take into consideration the employability of graduates. This has resulted in the development of key skills, or similarly named skill enhancement (Hills et al. 2003).

Our field, Translation Studies, is also an appropriate example to illustrate the above demands. It is found that translation programmes at most universities in both the UK and China gradually realise the notion that there can be no pure dichotomy between education and profession in the TS field, considering the practical nature of translation. In most cases, education and vocation are aligned in this subject.

However, it is not always easy to design a well thought-out programme balancing both abstract knowledge (education) and concrete skills (training). Unlike sister programmes in French universities, such as Université Paris III, Université Rennes 2 and Université Lumière Lyon 2, which put their primary goal of translation teaching on chiefly skills-training (Tan 2008, p. 594), translation programmes in the UK—at least shown in our case studies—are struggling with the balance between curiosity-driven methods and market-driven methods.

If the overall objective is to nurture professional translators via a degree course at universities, this course will take into account local resources and institutional priorities in the first place. Secondly, as at least one objective is to cultivate professional translators, it is worth discussing what professional translators are actually required to do and what the real market demands in this field are.

Viewed from our cases, the first suggestion is mostly adopted, and the content of the courses mainly depends on the institutions' strategic plans and current resources. But the second idea was not 100% adopted in the curriculum. Both from the programme description and the interviews between the author and the course directors, it is found that the translation programme at GB Case 1, due to its large volume of resources, considers market demand as the top priority when designing the course. Meanwhile, it follows the British education model to provide students with the awareness, resourcefulness and reflectiveness that they will certainly require in this discipline. However, the course contents in the other two programmes rest more on generic concepts, followed by limited practice opportunities. The next section will discuss in detail their different behaviours in designing a course from the perspectives of course objectives, modules provision, teaching methods and education resources.

The Chinese MTI Programme shares some similarities with translation programmes in France rather than in the UK. The notion of being market-driven is largely accepted at the national level in China, from the perspective of policymakers, but when dealing with specific programmes, the execution processes vary tremendously from one to another. The imbalanced education resources, which will be discussed in later sections, seem to be the root cause of this disparity.

It is important to highlight that the respective models in the UK and Chinese case studies do not represent two extreme poles of education and training. I will discuss below how this tension is visible in the programmes. In summary, as suggested by Bernardini, 'translators need to be formed through a reasoned, timely and thought-out balance of education and training. This long and effortful instructional period is a necessary requirement if we are to form competent professionals' (2010, p. 27). Although differences exist at different levels, this study still insists that it would be good to see them as 'integrated, sequential wholes, one part of which is necessary, and comes first, and the other accessory' (ibid., p. 28).

5.4 Facing the Market: How Does the Design and Delivery of Translation Programme Respond?

In the previous analysis, it has been explained that universities in both China and the UK have realised the importance of making their courses more professional. Nevertheless, due to different economic, political and educational contexts in these two countries, the executing process of this professional orientation is different, both internally and externally. The most important external factors include national policy, regional economic development situation and market needs. In terms of internal factors, an HEI's (or school/department) specific training vision or strategic plans, available resources, staff expertise will have impacts on this executing process.

Kelly (2005) proposes a diagrammatic form regarding the process of curriculum design, which includes every step to design a course, such as identifying social and market needs, formulating aims and intended outcomes, designing overall course content and structure, and implementing the course and its valuation. Discussions in Chapters 3 and 4 mainly follow Kelly's diagrammatic form, but in this chapter, in terms of comparison, four major criteria are selected to present the planning and delivery of each translation course in both countries. The criteria are: course objectives, module content, the ethos of teaching and education resources. The reasons for choosing these four elements have many strands.

First and foremost, the six case studies have all considered these four criteria in designing their courses. They can be compared in parallel within the same national context as well as between the two countries. Secondly, these four criteria reveal how the relationship between education and training works in our case studies. In our cases, course objectives reflect the overall intentions (theory/practice) of a translation programme in a particular context. By illustrating the module content of each case, the specific proportion of theory-based modules and practice-based modules is clearly presented.

The third criterion 'the ethos of teaching' closely relates to the choice of teaching methods, the preparation of teaching materials and the design of guided tasks, aimed at unravelling whether or not the translation profession is incorporated in daily teaching activities. The fourth element is the education resources. There are several facets of education resources, such as national education policies, regional market needs, staff expertise, aptitudes of students, alumni contributions, collaborations with industry, and cutting-edge facilities (translators' labs or interpreters' booths). Any of these elements could be constraints affecting the aims, planning and delivery of the corresponding programme. These four criteria, gathered together, will finally provide illuminating evidence on how the translation programmes in both China and the UK respond to the pressure of market demands.

Through comparison of the curricula in translation programmes in these two countries, this section endeavours to find out how the tension between education and training plays out in the field of Translation Studies. The six case studies are the main examples in our discussions, but facts and figures of other translation programmes in both countries are occasionally included in order to make the argument clearer.

5.4.1 Comparison of Course Aims

For both long- and short-term courses, it is obvious that formulating course objectives is the very first step in designing a course. In the UK, although one consensus in most translation programmes is to foster professional translators, the specific course objectives vary from one context to another due to different institutional policies and constraints. For example, university systems within a strongly academic tradition will not formulate their overall aims in the same way as those with a more vocational tradition (ibid., p. 23). This difference can be exemplified by Russell Group universities and post-1992 universities (e.g. former polytechnic[21]) respectively. Although the distinction between old universities and polytechnics is fading away, the post-1992 universities still aim to 'produce graduates in vocational disciplines and applied research—as if 'vocational' and 'applied' were straightforward labels' (Scott 2012).[22] That is to say, aims and objectives of courses in post-1992 universities are more profession-oriented. In contrast, due to the fact that the Russell Group is 'a group of twenty universities with the best research reputation in the country and who receive a large proportion of the government's research funding' (Armstrong 2008),[23] courses in a Russell Group university are more research-oriented.

The above difference between 'research' and 'profession' has varying degrees of impact on the delivery of pertinent courses. This is also true with translation programmes, which are usually under the management of school/department of modern languages and/or cultures, belonging to the field of Arts and Humanities. In particular, translation programmes offered at post-1992 universities pay much attention to practical translation and skills required in the translation industry. Here, two of the post-1992 universities (henceforth University W and University M) can be justified as good examples. According to the published materials outlined on the official website[24] of Translation and Interpreting MA course at University W, this course will provide students with professional training aimed at translation and interpreting markets, and an opportunity to build on their existing language skills to develop a career in those sectors. University M, on the other hand, has classified its translation programmes into different specialised domains[25] (see Table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Translation and interpreting courses at University M

Level	*Type*
Undergraduate courses	Diploma in Legal Translation Diploma in Medical Interpreting Translation and Interpreting BA
Postgraduate taught courses	Business and Legal Translation MA Audiovisual and Literary Translation MA
Postgraduate research courses	Master of Philosophy (MPhil) Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)

Table 5.3 exhibits a full cycle of university-based translation programmes at University M. These courses have different focuses at different levels. The Business and Legal Translation MA, for example, aims to 'provide students with the opportunity to gain an insight into the needs of a professional translator in a globalised world where businesses, institutions and governmental organisations require more translation work'. It also covers 'fields of translation that are particularly in demand, opening up increased career opportunities and providing students with the competences and skills to maximise their employability'.[26] Reflected in the above two cases, translation programmes at post-1992 universities, in line with other disciplines, are also profession-oriented. Enrolled in these courses, students have clear objectives to develop their professional skills in the translation profession. Also, enhancing students' employability is an important goal. In so doing, generic theories are given less attention.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, due to the fact that nearly all university disciplines in the UK have to face the tension from the market and make responses, it is suggested that professional units are incorporated into their courses. However, this ideal scenario cannot be entirely matched with reality. For example, a research-intensive university will still consider primarily how to cultivate students' critical thinking and research abilities rather than their practical skills. This can be demonstrated in two of the British case studies (GB Cases 2 and 3) in this book. In our context, these two programmes have a strong research ethos. This is illustrated through many strands, ranging from course objectives to teaching methods.

On the MATIS at GB Case 2, for example, three out of four course aims (except the second one) are very profession-oriented (see Table 3.1). Nevertheless, the more detailed learning outcomes seem to be unaligned with these four aims. More specifically, five out of six learning outcomes are relevant to abstract knowledge in translation and interpreting studies, or to relevant pragmatics and cultural studies. There is only the sixth learning outcome (see Table 3.1) relating to practical translation and interpreting, which is presented as,

> specific translation and/or interpreting practices and the role of the translator and/or interpreter in various sectors of economic activity including the audiovisual media, publishing, localisation, commercial and international organisations, depending on the chosen pathway. (MATIS Programme Handbook 2013/2014; 2014/2015)

This misalignment indicates that this course has the vision to make its programme more professional, but perhaps due to several constraints (e.g. staff expertise; available resources; research pressures), it is still not easy for GB Case 2 to identify an effective professional model to fulfil its aims. The MATIS at GB Case 3, referring back to Table 3.2, has a clear research focus. Specifically, three of the four aims are related to Translation Studies, theories and research methodologies. Only one aim is designated to teach students a set of skills appropriate to translating different text types, which is more professionally oriented. Based on the analysis in Chapter 3, it has been established that this research focused course aim is also reflected in pertinent learning outcomes, module content and teaching methods.

The other case study—the MATI at GB Case 1—uses quite a different system in cultivating professional translators. This course aims to teach students high quality translating and interpreting skills to help them enter the translating or interpreting profession in fields such as technology, commerce, international relations and journalism upon completion of their period of study (see also Chapter 3). The reasons why the GB Case 1 programme is responding to the professional world more radically are twofold. Firstly, it has a long history of teaching English–Chinese translators and interpreters. During the process of its course development, it gradually gained much experience in designing aims, contents, teaching activities and assessment. Secondly, there is a team of teachers who are English–Chinese bilingual and bicultural experts in the translation and interpreting programme (Chinese strand) at GB Case 1. They have sufficient knowledge of the Chinese market and Chinese students' needs. As Chinese students are the largest group in the three case studies, considering their needs and their home country's market demands becomes necessary. Therefore, experience and abundant resources differentiate the MATI at GB Case 1 from its peer programmes in the UK.

From the above illustration it is noted that translation programmes in the UK are trying to balance their course aims between research and practice. Their course objectives, in general, are vague in defining Translation Studies and translating. For example, some courses entitled 'Translation Studies' also have an aim of professional translator training. As discussed earlier in this chapter, they now feel pressures due to the changing picture of universities in the UK. These pressures have two main facets. On the one hand, there is an ethos in which research is a central part of the university's operation and where it is often claimed that teaching and learning is informed by research (Healey 2005). In this context, attention to research achievements must be paid. Concomitantly, teaching and learning abstract knowledge and theory accounts for a bigger proportion of modules in relevant courses. On the other hand, the KTPs at universities (indicating that research should generate impact and students need to be more employable) have put pressures on almost all the degree courses, including Translation Studies.

Translation programmes in China, have experienced similar tension between 'research' and 'practice', or to be more precise, between 'academia' and 'profession'. The MTI programme is a typical example that explains how China responds to this pressure. Clearly, the policymakers in TS have realised that students graduating from the traditional research-based MA in Translation Studies may not able to undertake the high-level practical translation tasks that the real market demands. As such, the MTI programme is designed to meet the market demands and then to nurture more application-oriented practising experts in translation and interpreting. This professional aim, in line with other professional degree courses (MBA/MPA), is a representation of the close relationship between education and the market. This is because China has seen rapid economic growth over the past three decades, and there is growing demand to have more highly skilled persons working in nearly every sector, including translation and language services.

With regard to our three case studies in China, this aim is solidly recognised by the MTI programmes at CH Cases 1 and 2. Both of them aim to prepare their students for future careers as professional translators and/or interpreters, but have different foci. The MTI programme at CH Case 2, for example, has formulated as its objective that graduates can work in a highly specialised field or domain (commerce/law/media, etc.). The CH Case 1 programme, also introduced in Chapter 4, aims to prepare students for their future careers as professional translators in the humanities and social sciences, focusing on the enhancement of their translation skills and work ethics, as well as the accumulation of career-related experiences and a strong awareness of modern language service technologies (Programme Prospectus 2013). Moreover, after establishing its pathway in languages administration, nurturing high calibre managers in the field of language services has become embedded as another important course objective.

However, course objectives of the MTI programme in the third Chinese case study, have paid attention to both practical skills and theoretical knowledge. On the one hand, the professional aim is recognised by this programme. For example, it aims to provide students with solid translation competences and encyclopaedic knowledge so as to translate texts and documents in various subject areas (see Table 4.4). On the other hand, however, translation theories, histories and linguistics are also their key concerns.

The second attribute of Chinese MTI Programme is the top-down pattern. We know from Chapter 4 that The Official Guiding Plan, drafted by the MTI Committee, regulates almost every element of designing a professional translation course, ranging from learning outcomes, suggested modules and assessment methods to dissertation models. Despite regulations by the MTI Committee, institutions are advised to use this guided plan as a framework, and then to formulate their own courses mainly contingent on resources and regional economic conditions. In this case, the MTI Committee directs each member institution in terms of course design and development. However, in the UK, there are no official documents to regulate translation programmes, and the course design is more up to the university itself.

Thirdly, as discussed in Chapter 4, curriculum design of the MTI programme in each university is advised to follow the policy of 'same aim but divergent curricula'. In China, there are different types of universities such as comprehensive universities, foreign languages' universities, teachers' universities, universities of science and technology, and of finance and economics, to name but a few. This categorisation is mainly on the basis of each university's strongest disciplines, and sometimes such a tradition also affects the university's MTI course. More specifically, designing specific course aims in line with the university's strong subjects is suggested by many scholars in China (Qian and Yang 2013; Mu and Wang 2011; Wang 2010; Zhou 2012). For instance, foreign language universities may nurture professionals working in foreign affairs areas, while universities of science and technology may hope that some of their students apply translation skills in scientific fields upon graduation. Moreover, the MTI programme at a university specialised in economics and law can aim to nurture future legal translators, or business and court interpreters. Concomitantly, it is advised that such a programme should design modules like Commercial Translation, or translating contracts or legal documents.

The MTI programme at CH Case 2 can exemplify this 'diversity'. To be more precise, according to the case study of the MTI programme at CH Case 2 (Zhao and Mu 2013, pp. 78–85) as well as the interview with CH Interviewee B, it is clear that the MTI programme has now adjusted its training focuses to five specialised pathways: Conference Interpreting, Public Service Interpreting, Business Translation, Legal Translation and Media Translation. Of these, Business Translation, Legal Translation and Media Translation belong to the translation pathway. The students who graduate from Business Translation are expected to work as in-house translators, language experts and/or cultural consultants in multinational companies or other business settings. As for the pathway of Legal Translation, it aims to prepare its students to enter careers in, for instance, law firms or international mediating agencies, or to conduct judicial translation for the legal department of an organisation. The MTI in Media Translation, as another categorisation, would like its students to work in international news agencies and global TV channels to transmit news bulletins to millions of people around the world (Bielsa and Bassnett 2011, p. 10). As clarified by Gouadec (2007, p. 49), Media Translation could include voiceover, subtitling and overtitling and dubbing and also new techniques such as media description. Therefore, producing translations in these new forms could be other career choices for the Media Translation graduates.

Despite the fact that some universities have made good progress in specialising their course aims, the vast majority of the MTI programmes, as criticised by Professor Weihe Zhong[27] at the annual conference of the MTI education, seem only to copy and paste the suggestions from the guiding plan which is merely a template. A lack of specificity[28] in the aims and objectives is a common challenge confronted by many MTI programmes (cited in Ping 2013, pp. 50–52).

Another important feature of the MTI programmes is that this postgraduate course has been designed to serve the needs of the nation's economic and social development (The Official Guiding Plan 2007/2011). In particular, the national policy and changing market demands may have impacts on the design and development of the MTI programmes. In Sect. 5.2.3 we argued that as a rising power, the Chinese Administration stressed the need to enhance Chinese culture as part of the country's 'soft power' (Zhang 2010). From this viewpoint, it is necessary to educate and train competent translators who can help promote Chinese culture and values in other countries, and this aim has been recognised and achieved in several MTI programmes in foreign languages universities, foreign affairs universities and more.

Moreover, as China continues to offer more economic opportunity (Greenaway and Rudd 2014), so the opportunity to exchange and trade with the rest of the world grows. Large businesses start to establish internal translation or language services departments for operating language services. Sinopec Group,[29] Baosteel Group Cooperation[30] and Huawei Group[31] are three examples. Sinopec Group was even ranked top among the 50 best firms in China towards internationalisation in 2014 (Wang et al. 2014). They all use in-house translators and interpreters. Specifically, translators, interpreters and language experts work in the Foreign Affairs Office in both the Sinopec Group and the Baosteel Group. The Office mainly coordinates the international communications, international exchanges and foreign affairs carried out by these two companies. Huawei Group, on the other hand, owns a translation centre to deal with product translation, localisation and foreign affair issues. Additionally, many other firms outsource their translation tasks to language services companies. In this vein, language services cover a large market in today's business life (Johan 1998).

These changing demands from the regional or national market have aroused attention from various parties (e.g. universities, translation and language services firms, Translators Associations of China). Firstly, there are more and more frequent dialogues and exchange events between the universities and professionals from the language services firms. The more recent conferences or forums in the field of TS have also shifted their themes from translation and/or interpreting to language services. For example, the theme of the 6th China Translation Profession Forum (2014) was 'language services in the context of globalisation: idea, technology and innovation[32]'. The annual conference of the Translators Association of China coincided with the 2016 China Language Services Industry, and published the latest report on the language services in China accordingly.

Secondly, the MTI programmes at two universities with abundant resources (one of which is CH Case 1) began to consider shifting their orientations from educating professional translators to language administrators and managers. In order to enhance graduates' employability and to diversify their graduate destinations, these two universities have established a Master of Languages Administration (MLA) under the structure of the MTI programme (see also Chapters 1 and 4). The core aim for this new postgraduate course is not restricted to fostering translators only.

Instead, CH Interviewee A revealed that this new course aims to prepare their students to become qualified translators, multilingual experts, project managers of language services companies, technology specialists and language consultants to meet the current and future industry needs. Students who study this course are expected to have strong written translation competency into both the native and foreign languages; to have knowledge on managing translation workflow; to be proficient in a variety of key business areas such as globalisation, accounting, marketing, business economics and international business strategy; and to be able to communicate effectively with everyone involved in the business process and translation process. This new MLA programme, on the one hand, has taken a pioneering role in innovating the MTI course, and has provided feasible examples for other MTI courses who want to follow them. On the other hand, this new orientation is also a reflection of the increasing demand for language-related services, as bilateral or multilateral exchanges happen so frequently in almost every sector in China.

In line with the above discussion, it can be summarised that there are mainly three differences between these two countries in delivering their translation programmes. Initially, the UK cases prefer to provide students with abstract knowledge in TS in the first place, and then encourage them to think and reflect on what they have learned in class. Professionalism is one of the course aims in most UK translation programmes, but they are still struggling to balance the proportion between theory and practice. Chinese MTI programmes aim directly at encouraging students to practise a lot in order to confidently enter into the professional world upon graduation. Secondly, in China, translator education is linked with the nation's economic and social development (e.g. promoting cultural influence via translation), while the translation programmes in the UK are not designed to enhance the UK's international influence but to follow the UK higher education ethos of helping student's individual development. Finally, due to the fact that the Chinese MTI Programme is still in its developing stage and all the relevant systems and regulations need to mature, it is reasonable to accept the changing objectives of certain member universities. Translation programmes in the UK, in contrast, are relatively more stable and there could be slight amends when necessary. The language services industry is such an example. In China, the burgeoning language services sector has also stimulated the education and training of high calibre language administrators. In the UK, the situation is slightly different.

Many companies operating translation and interpreting use the words 'language services' in their names, whose services usually include translation and interpreting, British sign language, language assessment, language training, transcription and intercultural consulting, among others (e.g. Language Services Associates[33]). According to the report provided by the Common Sense Advisory, there are 12 British companies out of the top 100 language services providers, accounting for 12% of language services in the world.[34] We can see that the language services industry is existing and developing in the UK, however it is interesting to recognise that few translation programmes, have courses focusing on the broader areas of language services.

5.4.2 Comparison of Module Content

In the process of designing a course, the step immediately after formulating the objectives is to decide which modules should be included. Modules in this discussion are mainly categorised into two types: theory-oriented and practice-oriented, which reflects how each case study responds to the tension between theory and practice in the module content. From this point, and as shown by the discussion in Chapter 3, we can summarise that putting theoretical units as equal to—or even more important than—translation practice is the general tendency in UK programmes. In both the MATIS at GB Case 2 and MATS at GB Case 3, for instance, units offered are mainly research-oriented.

As shown in Table 3.5, in GB Case 3, only one module covers some issues in translation practice. In addition, a workshop focusing on practical translation is offered, but it is only voluntary and offered fortnightly. From the perspective of alignment, the module content totally matches the theoretical course aims in GB Case 3's programme. But if GB Case 3 would like to educate professional translators, at some stage, it could be a bit difficult to provide students with up-to-date professional skills which are required by the translation and language services market, in that few practice modules are included in this programme.

From Chapter 3, we acknowledge that course designers of this programme have, in fact, realised the limitation of offering a large amount of theory-based modules in a translation programme. Since the MATS at GB Case 3 is in its gradually developing phase, practical issues such as staff expertise and student recruitment may still hinder the process of designing practical modules. Furthermore, according to GB Interviewee C, students in GB Case 3's programme come from different countries (China, France, Greece, Japan), and these students have different learning needs and language combinations. This ethnic diversity in the classroom could raise issues of teaching and learning. In order to appropriately minimise differences of ethnicity between students and actively engage them in their learning (Biggs and Tang 2011), the current theory-based model is the most suitable one for GB Case 3 in that this is comparatively easier to fit students with various language combinations into a single cohort.

In GB Case 2, modules are divided into two categories: practice-oriented and research-oriented (see Table 3.4). All the compulsory modules are research-oriented (45 credits), accounting for 25% of the total course credits; while optional course units are in total 75 credits. The majority of the optional units are practice-oriented, but according to the description in the programme handbook (MATIS Programme Handbook 2014/2015, pp. 17–18), two or more[35] research-oriented modules are still offered in the optional course units. The dissertation, which is written in summer and is more research-oriented, counts for 60 credits. As discussed previously, students have two options from which to choose: (1) a written thesis on a topic focusing on 'a research area of translation or interpreting studies'; or (2) 'a specific translation/interpreting task plus critical analysis' (ibid., p. 17). Both types expect students to show clear evidence of 'an ability to critically evaluate existing research on the object of the study as the basis for identifying and defining new fields of research' (ibid., p. 60). As a result, even if all the chosen 75 credits optional modules are practice-based, research-oriented units still outweigh the practice-oriented in the MATIS at GB Case 2.

Additionally, although a comparatively large number of practice-based modules are also provided in this programme, their module content is not entirely practical. For example, traditional lectures focusing on conceptual and terminological research on Commercial Translation make up the greater proportion in the module called Commercial Translation, while language-specific tutorials on practical translation work constitute a very small proportion: only four language-specific tutorials per semester. That is to say, this module is actually designed to educate students regarding the concepts and general knowledge of Commercial Translation, not to teach students how to translate texts in the commercial area of work. In fact, this kind of teaching model is not only shown in the Commercial Translation modules, but also reflected in other related modules, such as Scientific and Technical Translation.

As discussed in Chapter 3, the learning outcomes and course aims are not always aligned in MATIS, and the same is true for the module content. Theory-based units take up a higher proportion. However, it is important to highlight that the MATIS is making efforts to try to bridge the gaps between theory and practice. The provision of translation project management is such an example, though it is newly launched and needs more time to make it fit market standards and students' needs more. But this has at least signalled that the MATIS has realised the necessity of incorporating more professional units into its curriculum.

The MATI at GB Case 1, however, provides us with a different phenomenon. Its course, in general, includes more practice-oriented modules than theory-oriented ones (see Table 3.6). Although training professional translators is the primary goal of the GB Case 1 programme, it is not a pure vocational short course. In fact, students are also provided with two or three theory-based modules[36] (both compulsory and optional) in order to deeply understand the principles behind the practical translation process, and then to become reflective learners in translation and interpreting.

As noted above, the MATI at GB Case 1 clearly regards developing the translating and interpreting skills that are required in the market as the top priority, and uses translation and interpreting theories to enable students to learn through critical reflective practice. Two-thirds of its modules are practice-based, and moreover, there is an independent module covering current issues in the T&I profession, which is merely included within other modules in UK programmes. In terms of teaching content, there is more practice than the input of abstract knowledge. The ideal of 'learning by doing' is actually embedded within GB Case 1's modules.

It is also important to point out that the MATI at GB Case 1 does not belong to the majority group in the UK. In fact, most translation programmes (especially those entitled Translation Studies) in the UK, similar to the other two case studies, face the pressures between theory and practice. However, as shown in their course objectives and module content, these UK translation programmes nowadays endeavour to establish a 50/50 balance between research and application.

We mentioned previously that all institutions in China that offer MTI programmes are expected to establish purely professional courses, from the perspective of the official curriculum suggested by The Official Guiding Plan (revised version in 2011), the vast majority of the modules focus on translating texts in different subject areas, including business and commerce, foreign affairs, law, science and technology, media and project management. Besides, it is implied that pure theory-based modules are very few. There is only one theory-oriented module in the compulsory module list, and there are fewer than five optional modules targeting translation history and theories. However, the guided plan is only advisory rather than regulatory. Each institution ought to behave differently in designing its own course. Also, when it comes to specific institutions, the MTI Committee cannot guarantee that practice-based modules outweigh theory-based modules in every single institution. Viewed from our three case studies, modules at the MTI programme at CH Case 2 are the most practical (see Table 4.8), while modules at the MTI programme at CH Case 3 are the least (see Table 4.9). The MTI programme at CH Case 1 sits in the middle (see Tables 4.6 and 4.7).

The MTI programme at CH Case 2, as a leading promoter of the MTI course (Wang and Mu 2009), aims to prepare its graduates for the rapidly changing market, and the module content also reflects this professional maxim. Besides, both course aims and module content of the CH Case 2 course are in line with the suggestions from The Official Guiding Plan, but pay more attention to professionalism and specialisation. Thus, practice and profession are the two keywords to describe this programme, and theory and research complement them (Zhao and Mu 2013). Modules offered in this programme also reflect this ideal.

As introduced in Chapter 4, this programme has decided to establish five pathways targeting translating in different subject areas. In so doing, in addition to translating general texts, modules on translating texts (e.g. legal or legally binding documents) in these specialised fields are included in each pathway. Moreover, general knowledge (e.g. Media, Broadcasting, Trans-editing News) in these subject areas is also taught in the MTI programme at CH Case 2 (see Table 4.8). The purpose of designing the programme in this way, as explained by CH Interviewee B, is to prepare students to become high calibre translators/interpreters in specialist fields.

It is also acknowledged that professionalism is another important aim for the MTI programme at CH Case 2. However, there is no single module regarding all the relevant professional issues, including professional ethics. Instead, the professional units are scattered through outreach activities, such as inviting professionals to give public lectures. But it is still necessary to point out that it could be more convincing if the

MTI programme at CH Case 2 could schematise all the professional issues and group them as a whole in the curriculum.

In Chapter 4, we have seen a well thought-out combination of theory-oriented and practice-oriented modules offered at the MTI programme at CH Case 1. In addition, this course has always tried to build up a cross-disciplinary programme. Its module content also reflects these two features. In the previous cohorts, computer-aided translation modules took up a comparatively large proportion. More recently, since the MTI programme at CH Case 1 is now admitting students to study languages administration, modules in this programme have been reorganised. Modules like 'Economics', 'Project Management', 'Business Ethics and CSR', and 'Human Resources Management' are included in this programme, and modules targeting translation skills are still there. Obviously a solid collaboration with business studies has been set up at CH Case 1.

However, both through programme objectives and via the interview, it is acknowledged that language administration is, in fact, a very broad concept. Although modules related to business and management are introduced, there is a possibility that students may still feel confused if they cannot network these modules by themselves and find internal relations between them. From its recent course specification, we know that the CH Case 1 programme has categorised its general elective modules into different areas, such as translation and technologies, languages and cultures, social sciences, business and law, but this classification does not apply to required modules and restricted elective options. It would be better for policymakers to customise students' learning experience in the whole MLA course, not merely within several modules. Specifically speaking, they could specialise all their modules (see Table 4.7) into different groups, and each group has a clear career development focus (e.g. professional translators, editors, linguistic and cultural consultants/specialists, language administrators or language-based managers, technologists in languages and translation). As such, students would then have a focused area to develop in their two years of study. This may create depth and understanding in an important translation and languages administration issue. If students choose one of these routes, along with a dissertation (or project report) in the same area, they have the option to become professionals in a specialised area.

We see from Chapter 4 that modules offered in CH Case 3 can reflect this programme's aims and objectives. In addition to offering practical translation based modules, another distinct feature at the level of module content is that linguistics-related modules account for a certain amount of proportion. This might be related to the student profile. In conversations with CH Interviewee C, we found that the MTI students' linguistic competences are relatively lower than expected. As such, offering modules regarding language enhancement will help students understand the source texts more accurately and then produce more qualified target translations. Furthermore, literary translation is also an important module component. The main reason might be associated with teacher profile. English literature is one of the strongest subjects at the academic school where CH Case 3 is located, and a group of staff members have research interests in this area (see Table 5.9). It is thus relatively easy to staff modules combining literary studies and translation.

In addition, as discussed earlier in this book, it was acknowledged that translation is an effective means to promote cultural soft power. This is reflected in the module content. It is suggested in The Official Guiding Plan (2007/2011) that modules like 'Chinese into English translation', 'Chinese Language and Culture', 'Comparison and Translation between English and Chinese', and 'An Anthology of Chinese Masterpieces in English Translation' should be offered in corresponding MTI programmes (see Table 4.4). In view of the three cases in China, both CH Case 2 and CH Case 3 offer similar modules. Other MTI programmes like that at universities of foreign languages and cultures also set up modules on translating Chinese classics. It is worth pointing out that the necessity of offering modules which are related to translating Chinese culture, academic books or political values is realised by policymakers, scholars and some universities, but this is still in a pilot stage. In fact, many factors such as programme aims, staff expertise, available resources and students' aptitudes hinder the setting up of such modules. This indicates the gap between the nation's needs of 'going global' and the actual available resources.

In comparison, we see that the tension between theory and practice still exists in UK programmes in terms of the weighting of theory and practice in the module content. The fact is that theory-based modules still outweigh practice-oriented modules, and more abstract knowledge than specific skills and techniques is taught in the classroom. However, influenced by market forces, these postgraduate courses have to build students' practical translation competence through provision of profession-related modules and through engagement with business. In this case, practice-oriented modules complement theory-oriented ones. In China, integrating as many professionally oriented modules in the MTI programmes is the expectation from the perspective of policymakers. In fact, the MTI programmes with more resources in language-related disciplines have a higher degree of professional issues included in the module content, whereas other under-funded programmes do the opposite. Despite differences in each MTI programme, the general features of the module content in Chinese MTI programmes can be summarised as follows. First of all, teachers of the MTI programmes intend to teach specific skills needed in the market, so there are more skill-based modules included in this degree course. Secondly, many translation tasks are in fact carried out in specialised domains, and in China a vast majority of sectors need translators. In this case, we see that a number of modules on cross-disciplinary areas or subject areas are provided in some MTI courses. Moreover, in line with the cultural diplomacy proposed by the Chinese Administration, modules on Chinese language and culture are also included in several MTI courses.

5.4.3 Comparison of the Ethos of Teaching

From the perspective of the ethos of teaching in translation programmes, the major difference between the UK and China is that research-led teaching is more important in the UK and the professional-oriented approach is more important in China.

It is acknowledged that this teaching method has become widely recognised and adopted in a variety of disciplines in most UK universities (Gresty et al. 2013) and has drawn much pedagogic attention over recent years, especially for those universities which are research intensive. In our UK case studies, two of the three are Russell Group member universities. Research-led teaching and learning lies at the heart of the Russell Group universities' experience. Moreover, the Russell Group defines the following notions to reinforce the importance of the positive nexus between research and teaching.

> The culture of enquiry-based, independent learning in a world-class research environment is at the heart of the students' experience in Russell Group universities. Russell Group universities are committing to delivering the added value of a research-informed learning experience, with all the resulting opportunities and benefits for students. We recognise the need to demonstrate how the benefits which flow from learning in a research intensive environment are excellent value for money for students. (Russell Group Teaching Strategy 2010)

On the other hand, although the Russell Group is confident of its teaching strategy and teaching standards, these ambitions may not be 100% fulfilled in every member institution due to many variables. If we regard these ambitions as visions or hopes, the situation could become more realistic. Although the third case study is not a Russell Group member university, teaching in the GB Case 3 still relies much on research.

Clearly, this research-led teaching strategy impacts on the delivery of a course in almost every discipline. 'The relationship between good research and good teaching is dialectic, and they support each other' (Elton 2006). Teaching triggered by research achievements may promote students as active researchers. In turn, research development of academics can be enhanced through teaching. Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that disciplinary research will not only benefit students during their degree studies, but can also make contributions when they move into the world of employment afterwards. It is also hoped that this method is useful in lifelong learning. To sum up, research-led teaching aims to give students the following four benefits:

- Deepen students' understanding of the knowledge bases of disciplines and professions, including their research methods and contemporary research challenges and issues.
- Build students' higher-order intellectual capabilities and enhance their skills for employment and lifelong learning.
- Develop students' capacity to conduct research and enquiry.
- Enhance students' engagement and develop their capacity for independent learning.

(Krause 2009)[37]

On the other hand, research-informed teaching faces several challenges. Initially, as Lips (1999, cited in Gresty et al. 2013, p. 572) argues, 'teachers can lose control of the research process by encouraging students to be partners in the activity'. That is to say, due to different interests, students may struggle with the process, obtain little useful data and end up with a negative perception of research. In our own field, for example, students may just want to learn more translating skills required in the market instead of too many theories in TS, and it therefore might be difficult for the current MA students to assimilate the results of intensive research carried out by the staff.

According to Elton (2006), the nexus between research and teaching may be seen quite differently by different stakeholders (e.g. academic staff, recent graduates and existing students). In a recent case study led by Pan et al. (2011) investigating perceptions on the implementation of research-informed teaching initiatives from both staff and students within one post-1992 UK University's Sustainable Building and Construction programmes (cited in Gresty et al. 2013), it was found that although research-led teaching is an effective method for enhancing student learning, many barriers to implementation still occur.

Students, the major group of stakeholders, flagged up some key issues. Of these, the problem of 'a greater emphasis on research at the expense of industry-desired practical skills' was raised (Pan et al. 2011, cited in Gresty et al. 2013, p. 572). In addition, as Healey and Jenkinson (2006) propose, 'students may need to be convinced of the benefits of unfamiliar research-informed teaching for their learning'.

The above discussions have provided us with a balanced picture of pro and cons of research-informed teaching. But in our field, what are the benefits and limitations of research-led teaching, respectively?

If we ask how research achievements in translation, interpreting or intercultural studies could benefit students in their learning experience, the answers, on the basis of the programme outcomes (see Sect. 5.4.1) of the MATS at GB Case 3, could have many strands. Firstly, students are able to have a systematic understanding and critical knowledge of (but not limited to): (1) the history of Translation Studies; (2) translation theories; (3) research paradigms and methodologies in Translation Studies. Secondly, students will be familiar with concepts at the forefront of the academic discipline of Translation Studies and with pertinent concepts in a related discipline. Thirdly, students will gain abilities of critical analysis, including the ability to critically evaluate current research and advanced scholarship in the discipline of Translation Studies and, where appropriate, propose new hypotheses; the ability to evaluate methodologies and develop critiques of them and, where appropriate, propose new methodologies; and the ability to demonstrate originality in the application of knowledge, to name but a few (MATS Programme Specification 2013).

It cannot be denied that this research-led teaching method could cause problems. Due to the fact that the research-led teaching method requires that teaching content should stem from cutting-edge research rather than from the teachers' personal practical experiences or preferences, one possible challenge here could be that too many theories are included in the daily teaching. For instance, from both the programme handbook and the interviews with GB Interviewees B and C, it was found that up-to-date research in Translation Studies is largely taught in class. In other words, teaching content fundamentally depends on module convenors' research expertise. Correspondently, in terms of format, lectures or large group presentations are dominant in these two programmes, supported by several practice-based or language-specific workshops or tutorials.

Another tentative challenge is related to the limits of staff's research expertise. One gap between practice and theory is that the research on how to teach practical translation and the research on industry needs are still limited. Before analysing the research areas within the TS subject, it is necessary to look at a comprehensive picture (Tables 5.4, 5.5, 5.6) of staff members' research interests at the British three case studies.

The findings shown in Tables 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6 suggest that interdisciplinarity[38] has become a distinguishing characteristic of current research trends. As proposed by Munday (2012), scholars in our field tend to carry out interdisciplinary research projects, but Translation Studies primarily adhere to the longer-established disciplines, such as linguistics, modern languages and language studies; language teaching and learning; cultural studies (especially gender studies); and philosophy (of language and meaning, including hermeneutics and deconstruction and ethics). This preference for researching primarily on general cultural and linguistic theories in the TS field, proposed by Munday, is also demonstrated in Tables 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6.

Moreover, Translation Studies is now firmly established as an academic discipline (Snell-Hornby 2001; Malmkjær 2010), but translation is indeed a professional activity, like medicine, accounting and law. In this vein, TS is 'a buoyant field where theorists and practitioners frequently come together (often in one person)' (ibid., p. 1). For example, teaching staff in TS could be both practitioners in translation and interpreting and academics in these two areas. In theory, this link between theory and practice should also be reflected in research. However, the data from Tables 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6 reveal that research on abstract knowledge (e.g. translation theory) seems to be more acceptable than the area of applied Translation Studies (e.g. translator training, specialised translation in specific subject matters, translation policy and its place in society), which indicates that there is still a gap between practice and theory in the

Table 5.4 Staff members' research interests at GB Case 1[a]

Staff member	*Research interests*
1	Translation/Interpreting Studies, Reflective Learning, Autonomous Learning, Educational Psychology and Philosophy
2	The cognitive resource allocation in language interpreting, including consecutive interpreting and simultaneous interpreting
3	Poetry Translation—especially how poetry translators translate and how they work with others, creativity and style, and the social/ethical role of the poetry translator South Slav (ex-Yugoslav) Area Studies, especially in the fields of modern poetry, culture and identity, with a specific interest in Bosnia and Serbia
4	Teaching Chinese and Translation, Corpus Linguistics and Word Combination in both Chinese and English, Cross-cultural Communication
5	The Interpretation of Numerical Values, Chinese Numbers and Numerology, Numbers in Chinese Culture, Education and Environment, Translation Theory and Practice (including transcreation and rewriting and paratext)
6	Interpreter and Translator Education/Course Design/Pedagogy, testing/assessment and quality assurance issues of interpreting examinations
7	Interpreting Studies in various settings (including but not limited to legal and healthcare interpreting): Legal Translation/Language and Law/Legal Discourse/Sociolinguistics/IP Law/Linguistic Ethnography/Discourse Analysis

[a]There are altogether eight core members of staff in the translation programme at GB Case 1. However, this table only consists of research interests of seven people due to incomplete information provided on the official website. The other member of staff only provides teaching summary (Consecutive Interpreting; Simultaneous Interpreting; Public Service Interpreting)

research areas of teaching staff. In addition, the research interests shown in the above tables suggest that market and industry research also has limited coverage in our context.

This is partly because the Arts and Humanities have a common idea that 'they understand themselves to be an education not primarily structured around the imparting of skills and competences' (Martin 2003, p. 301). Moreover, TS is mostly established within the schools/departments of modern languages and/or cultures in the UK, where the theoretical Arts and Humanities tradition is still the mainstream. Another possible reason which may be responsible for the gap between research and practice is that 'research assessments in the UK (formal external audits and evaluations of individuals' and departments' research output)

Table 5.5 Staff members' research interests at GB Case 2[a]

Staff member	*Research Interests*
1	Translation/Interpreting and Conflict, Translation/Interpreting and War, Translating/Interpreting and Citizen Media (especially in the context of the Egyptian revolution), Ethics in Translation Research and Translator/Interpreter Training, Application of Narrative Theory to Translation and Interpreting Framing & Contextualization Processes in Translation and Interpreting, Activist Communities of Translators/Interpreters (e.g. Babels, Tlaxcala, Translators for Peace, ECOS, etc.), Translation/Interpreting and Protest Movements, Corpus-based Translation Studies
2	Translation and Memory, Memory Studies and the Distant Past (the Middle Ages), Translating for International Organisations, French–English Translation of Nineteenth and Twentieth Century Literature, Intercultural Communication
3	Conference Interpreter Training, Online Resources for Interpreter Training, Training Interpreters Working in a B Language, English Enhancement for Professional Interpreters, Interpreting between Spanish and English, Interpreting for the EU
4[b]	Conference Interpreting
5	The Socio-technical Practices of Translation (from a range of perspectives and in a variety of settings), Ethnographies of Translation, Translation of Science, Volunteer Translation
6	Audiovisual Translation, Forensic Application of Spoken Discourse Studies, the Interface between Forensic Linguistics and Translation Studies
7	Theory and Practice of Public Service and Conference Interpreting, Intersubjectivity, Sociology of the Workplace, Interpreting in Social Service Contexts, the Neutrality of the Public Sphere, Migrant Rights, Third Sector Organisations, Capacity Planning, Interpreting in Situations of (Violent) Conflict
8	The Intersections between Book History and Translation/English Translations of Late Medieval or Early Modern Italian Literature/Later Print and Digital Culture

[a]There are nine core members of staff at the translation, interpreting and intercultural studies team in the GB Case 2. However, this table only summarises research interests of seven staff due to incomplete information provided on the official website. One member only provides teaching summary, and only personal contact details are offered for another member.
[b]Staff 4 is the only Mandarin native speaker in the core teaching team.

have valued academic articles higher than translations, even translations of whole books. This ignores the fact that the practice of translation is an invaluable, not to say essential, experience for the translation theorist and trainer' (Munday 2012, p. 25).

Table 5.6 Staff members' research interests at GB Case 3[a]

Staff member	*Research interests*
1	Translation, Ethnic and Radical Studies and Diaspora
2	The Translation of the Qur'an and Arabic Literary Texts into English, The Linguistic Challenges that Translators of these Two Genres (Arabic and English) Come Across and the Total Effect of Their Choices on Their Respective Output
3	Performance, Translation and Adaptation of Shakespeare in France
4	Latin and translation, Renaissance literature
5	Self-translation
6	Translation Theory, Translation Studies, Translation and Language, Translation and Philosophy, Hans Christian Andersen's Language and Literary Production in Danish and in Translations into English
7	Literary Translation (Spanish–English)
8	Key historic texts in translation
9	Translation from Italian, Translation and Performance
10	Literary translation (English–Chinese), Chinese literature in English Translation, Translation in Migrant Literature

[a]This information is summarised from the official website of the translation programme at GB Case 3. Accessed on 26 May, 2017

In fact, several TS scholars have expressed their concerns about the gap between the translation profession and its academic discipline. One possible means to bridge this gap, suggested by Malmkær (2010), is to ensure that teaching programmes have face validity for members of those professions in which students might seek employment. This opinion has been consolidated by Mackenzie and Schäffner. According to Schäffner (2012, p. 38),

> If the aim of translator training programmes is to prepare graduates for the rapidly changing market, we need to ensure we have the required content, teaching methods, assessment procedures and the teaching staff who are themselves knowledgeable and competent in delivering the programme.

Mackenzie (1998), showing similar viewpoints, stresses the need for course designers to understand the world of professional translation.

The above hope for TS teaching staff proposed by Malmkjær, Schäffner and Mackenzie could be achieved in many ways. Firstly, a translation teacher could be a professional translator themselves. Secondly, programme designers could invite professionals to deliver presentations or provide students with placement opportunities. Thirdly, teaching staff who conduct research on market demands, industry needs or translator training towards social needs (Kelly 2005; Li 2012) could be another effective means. Furthermore, as analysed in Chapter 2, the market requires trainee translators—if they want to become professional translators upon graduation—to develop at least the following competences (refer to Fig. 2.4) in the universities: language competence, translation competence, professionalism and extra-linguistic knowledge. Thus, research could be conducted on the evaluation of these translator competences, and how to integrate them into daily teaching. These competences required by the industry could then become benchmarks for quality assurance on the translation programmes (Schäffner 2012) and would, in turn, enhance teaching effectiveness.

Finally, there seems to be little cross-disciplinary research combining translation and other disciplines (e.g. business, politics, media and law). But in fact, there is a relationship between Translation Studies and other disciplines. In addition to translating texts from specialised areas (technology, business, literature, science, social science and law),[39] translation may have a role in other areas in accordance with the expertise of a particular institution. In this context, Translation Studies have a relationship to a new discipline. At the very beginning of this chapter, we discussed the current convention in most UK universities to promote and react to new links between types of knowledge and technologies. Although we may have seen limited progress in Arts and Humanities in that it is not easy to generate immediate business benefits from research achievements in these disciplines, illuminating exchanges and debates between researchers and the profession could still be promoted. On the one hand, this may help identify specific areas of research innovation; on the other hand, it may provide teaching staff with opportunities to enhance their teaching content and to share best practice with students. From a more practical point of view, knowledge and ideas shared by practising experts may help embed the employability enhancement in the learning outcomes and teaching process of pertinent modules.

Unlike British models that mainly rest on research-led teaching, teaching in MTI courses is required to be professionally oriented. The ethos of teaching on the MTI programme shares the same fundamental ideas with the programme aim and module content, which influences the types of teaching (lectures or small group teaching), the teaching content (authentic materials) and teaching activities (buzz group, role play). The keyword of the ethos of teaching could be ‘skillset’. More specifically, programme designers and teaching staff of the MTI programmes need to provide students with the combination of different skills that they have and can use in the translation and interpreting profession. It is also hoped that the skillset that students gain in universities matches industry’s needs. In so doing, being different from the British cases, abstract knowledge and theory are taught less on the MTI programme.

In addition, in order to help students build up their own professional skillsets, the MTI Committee has offered some suggestions for improvement, mainly consisting of three dimensions (The Official Guiding Plan 2007/2011). Firstly, in contrast to traditional lectures, it is strongly advocated that discussions, workshops and simulated translation processes should be applied in teaching MTI students. The translating process in the professional world is strongly advocated to be introduced in the classroom. In respect of translation-related modules, a project-based method is recommended, whereby teachers should group translation materials into different projects and then lead the students towards finishing these projects. It is furthermore strongly suggested that high calibre professional translators and/or interpreters be recruited to help teach modules (or part of the modules) or give public lectures on professional issues of translation and interpreting. We can also regard this method as teaching for employability.

In fact, this method of introducing an element(s) of professionalisation into teaching has been advocated by many TS scholars. For instance, in his book *Pathways to Translation: Pedagogy and Process*, Kiraly (1995, p. 72ff) describes an experiment in which all his students are put in a real situation, providing them with a real assignment as group work and suggesting they work out for themselves what knowledge (or skills) they need to know and how to acquire the necessary resources, under the supervision of the teacher. In this context, the teachers act in the role of consultant. Mackenzie (1998, p. 36) also suggests that in the translation classroom, the teachers can choose texts that have already been translated in a real situation, and in this way, teachers can take the role of client, expert consultant or language reviser. The students can work in groups and act as different roles involved in the translating process. This real or simulated role play teaching method has also been supported by Kelly (2005, pp. 101–102), advising that ‘within a small group, roles are assigned to simulate professional situations. One student is the client, another the terminologist, the researcher, the translator, the project manager, the reviser…' The students can also rotate their roles with their peers to get a comprehensive picture of the workflow in the industry.

Based on the illustrations above, we can see that the prominent benefit of this professional approach is that students can acquire at least some of the knowledge and skills necessary for success in the translation profession (Malmkjær 2010). Nevertheless, there are also many prerequisites to fulfil this ambitious goal. For example, cutting-edge translation and interpreting facilities are of paramount importance if the simulated professional method is the mainstream. Furthermore, the teaching staff themselves (both in-house and freelancers) should be of a high calibre as numerous in-class teaching activities need to be carefully supervised.

The second dimension is that the thread of the whole teaching process in MTI programmes is practice. Teachers are advised to pay particular attention to developing students' translation competences at all levels. Concomitantly, it is suggested that critical analysis of translation case studies should be incorporated in the curriculum to be executed through teaching activities. Additionally, students are required to complete at least 150,000 words translation work or 400 hours interpreting tasks. This regulation indicates that the policymakers of Chinese MTI Programme do believe practice is the most important way to become professionals. This, in some quarters, is in contrast to the education ideas in the UK. Although some universities (e.g. GB Case 1) recognise the significant role of practice in the enhancement of translating and interpreting skills, they do, however, think it is necessary to provide students with enough knowledge on translation as an academic subject, mainly in a research or theory-oriented way.

The third dimension is to carry out tutor group instruction. The essence of tutor group instruction relies on the following:

> The tutor group is mainly composed of professors and associate professors with qualifications for instructing master's students and also consists of eminent interpreters and translators with senior professional qualifications working in foreign affairs offices, enterprises or business division. A double tutorial system may be adopted: students are instructed at the same time by a teacher in the university together with a senior interpreter or translator or a professor of editorship with rich practical experience and advanced research ability. (The Official Guiding Plan of MTI programme 2011, p. 2)

This tutor group instruction can be understood as a cooperative model. It is suggested that different parties within both academic institutions and professional organisations are included in the team of teaching MTI students. This team teaching model should incorporate in-house professors and lecturers, in-house translators, interpreters, editors or project managers from different domains, and freelance translators, interpreters or linguistic experts. The tutor group instruction is an ideal model as professional translators can complement the MTI teaching in academic institutions, constructing what happens in the professional world. Nevertheless, several practical questions still need to be taken into consideration by the programme designers. The very core concern should be the practicality of how this cooperative model can fit an MTI department. More specifically, how many professional translators should be recruited by a MTI department? How many modules (or teaching hours) should they contribute? How can they work collaboratively with the in-house teaching staff? Are they able to teach in the department constantly (at least for a year's time)? Who will mark and assess students' work? All these questions proposed by the author are very crucial for the effectiveness of teaching MTI students.

In response to the above suggestions promoted by the MTI Committee, our three cases have carried out different plans. For example, as Zhao and Mu (2013, p. 81) explain, most of the core teaching staff of the MTI programme at CH Case 2 are both practitioners and researchers in translation and interpreting (also see Table 5.7). Additionally, the department constantly invites senior translators and interpreters who work for the UN and EU or other professional organisations to deliver short courses. Many teachers of the MTI programme at CH Case 2 are involved in the process of drafting and designing The Official Guiding Plan. Thus, they acknowledge the importance of professional engagement in this specific degree course from the very beginning. The professional standards of the core teaching staff at CH Case 2 are reflected in Table 5.7, which summarises their teaching and research interests.

As shown in Table 5.7, we can see that research on translation/interpreting studies and related issues is the mainstream, though linguistics and literature are not entirely excluded. This is different from some universities in the UK (see Tables 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6) and also its sister programmes in China (see Tables 5.8 and 5.9) in which some staff still prefer to conduct primary research on linguistics, literature and cultural studies. Another feature demonstrated in Table 5.7 is that attention to the applied branch of TS has been given in CH Case 2, such as translator

Table 5.7 Staff expertise on the MTI programme of CH Case 2[a]

Staff member	*Research interests*
1	Interpreting Studies; Interpreting Teaching and Training; Translation Studies
2	Translation Education, Translation and Law, Forensic Linguistics
3	Linguistics, Translation Studies, Cross-cultural Communications
4	Translation Policy, Translation Theory, Translation Teaching, Language Services
5	Practical Translation (esp. official documents in international organisations)
6	Translation Studies, Pragmatics, Discourse Analysis, Business Interpreting
7	Translation Studies, Functional Linguistics, Business Translation Studies, Stylistics and Rhetorical Studies, Sociolinguistics, Discourse Analysis, Social Semiotics
8	Translation Teaching and Education, Translation Textbooks
9	Literary Translation: Theories and Applications, East–West Poetry
10	Interpreting Theory and Teaching, Translation Studies
11	Proper Names and Terminologies in Translation
12	Translation Theories and Applications, Chinese Prose Translation, Chinese to English Translation of Chinese Novels, Humorous Translation Studies, Translation and Dictionary, Translation of Chinese Medicine
13	Linguistics and Applied Linguistics, Languages and Translation
14	Translation Theories, Translation Criticism
15	Interpreting Theories and Applications
16	Interpreting Studies, Interpreting Teaching and Training
17	Interpreting Teaching and Research
18	Interpreting Theory, Interpreting Teaching
19	Interpreting Teaching, Interpreting Quality Assessment, Discourse Analysis in Interpreting
20	Translation Studies, Literary Translation
21	Interpreting Studies, Corpus-based Translation Studies
22	Translation Theories and Applications, Translation Teaching, Cognitive Poetics
23	Translation Education, Corpus-based Translation Studies, Computer-Assisted Translation
24	Translation Education, Interpreting Competence, Interpreting Quality Assessment
25	Translation and Cognition, Literary Translation, Translation Teaching, Language Services

[a]The information on staff expertise at the MTI programme of CH Case 2 is trans-edited from its official website

education and practical translation in different domains. Also, half of its staff has expertise in conference interpreting and interpreting studies. Through analysis of its staff expertise, it is not hard to acknowledge the reasons why the MTI programme at CH Case 2 has a higher level of professionalism and holds a leading role across the nation. Furthermore, due to the fact that the province where CH Case 2 locates is one of the most developed areas in China, frequent business exchanges in this geographical area have allowed both teachers and students to immerse themselves in the professional world. In this vein, staff expertise may not be a problem for the MTI programme at CH Case 2.

In addition to staff expertise, the MTI programme at CH Case 2 also has some guidelines on teaching materials. As explained by CH Interviewee B, the teachers should choose authentic materials to design different tasks, and these materials could be their materials which have been translated, published or even are part of the teachers' own translation project(s), and student translators need to produce the target texts before class. Upon completion, both teachers and students get together in the translation workshop to discuss the problems encountered in the translating process and strategies to cope with these difficulties. Their authentic tasks, for instance, include translating all the course materials of a joint part-time MBA programme between a Chinese medical university and corresponding universities in Sweden and the Netherlands. It is necessary to 'provide students with a rich variety of authentic translation tasks to accomplish collaboratively' (Kiraly 2000, p. 119). The purpose of designing the class activities in this way is to let students acknowledge different stages of completing a translation project in the profession (Li 2013, p. 12).

The MTI programme at CH Case 1, compared to CH Case 2, provides us with a different picture of teaching and learning. If we use the staff expertise as the initial benchmark (see Table 5.8), it is clear that Translation Studies, literature and linguistics are the mainstream.

From this perspective, we may assume that professional issues are taught less in this programme than expected. However, the MTI programme at CH Case 1 has actually been a pioneer with regard to computer-aided translation, translation project management and language services administration, which are very professional-oriented. They have also recruited professional experts in translation, localisation and the language services industry to convene modules. In Table 5.8, staff members 8, 14 and 15, who have plenty of working experience, mainly teach professional issues in translation and interpreting.

Table 5.8 Staff expertise on the MTI programme of CH Case 1[a]

Staff member	*Research interests*
1	Medieval British Literature, Bibliographical Research, Historical Linguistics
2	British and American Contemporary Novels, Comparative Literature
3	Translation Studies, Nineteenth Century American Literature, American Poetry
4	Translation Studies, Comparative Cultures (East–West), Shakespeare Studies
5	Chinese to English Translation, Irish Literature
6	Linguistics, Comparative Rhetoric
7	Chinese Languages and Literature
8	Computer-aided Translation, Localisation, Language Services
9	Translation Studies, Linguistics
10	Comparative Literature, Translation Theories and Applications
11	Translation Theories and Applications, Interpreting
12	Business English, English–Chinese Translation, Legal Translation
13	English–Chinese Translation (both ways)
14	Computer-aided Translation, Translation Technologies and Teaching, Localisation
15	Practical Translation, Translation Project Management

[a]The main sources to summarise the staff expertise at the MTI programme of CH Case 1 stem from the MTI programme's prospectus (hard copy) which was provided by CH Interviewee A during the interview

The delivery of teaching content in CH Case 1 does not entirely coincide with the suggestions provided by the MTI Committee, but always has a focus on the pertinent industries. As discussed in Chapter 4, the MTI programme at CH Case 1 provides students with a core module on Translation Profession and Translation Management, including topics such as the translation process, the market's needs, professional development, professional ethics and client education (Peng 2009). Additionally, project-based teaching methods and authentic tasks are fully adopted in this module, and the module convenor herself is also the managing director of a translation company. In so doing, students have the opportunity to acquire hands-on knowledge from an expert. Additionally, as introduced in Chapter 4, in previous years the MTI Education Centre at CH Case 1 established a joint CAT programme with the department of language and information engineering; localisation is also a core component in this programme.

Table 5.9 Staff expertise on the MTI programme at CH Case 3[a]

Staff	*Research interests*
1	Translation Studies, Comparative Linguistics (English–Chinese), Sociolinguistics, Cognitive Linguistics, Language and Philosophy
2	Translation Theories, Corpus-based Translation Studies, Comparative Linguistics (English–Chinese) and Translation
3	Translation Theories and Applications, Comparison between Translated Books (East–West), Translation Criticism, Translation and Cultural Studies
4	British and American Literatures, Comparative Literatures, Literary Translation
5	Translation Studies, Linguistics
6	Translation Theories and Applications (English–Chinese), Translation Criticism, Stylistics, Pragmatics, Comparative Linguistics
7	Translation and Interpreting Theories and Applications, American History, Comparison of East–West Cultures
8	Translation Theories, Translation Teaching and Training, Cross-cultural Communications
9	Translation Histories, Translation Theories
10	Translation Theories and Applications, Language Aesthetics, Comparison of East–West Cultures
11	Interpreting Teaching and Training, Interpreting Practices
12	Translation Theories and Applications, Literary Stylistics, Narratology, English Language Teaching

[a]The information was acquired from the official website of the academic school to which the MTI programme at CH Case 3 is affiliated. However, due to the fact that this page consists of all the teaching staff working in this school, including the departments of literature, linguistics and teacher training, the author of this book initially checked each member staff member's research interests and group a team of teachers whose primary research interests are translation studies

If we link the staff expertise back to the module content (Tables 4.6 and 4.7) of the CH Case 1 programme, it is clear that this programme is a combination of intellectual enhancements (education) and practical skills (training). On the one hand, the maxim of general education is reflected in the learning and teaching, which aims to furnish students with a broad intellectual perspective for dealing with unfamiliar questions and prepare them to make connections between intellectual pursuits and employability skills in the work place. On the other hand, the MTI programme at CH Case 1 is also good at cooperating with practising experts and allocates resources in the greater Beijing areas to provide its students with enough transferrable skills to meet the standards of employers. All in all, CH Case 1 ranks as the one of the top universities in China and is also research intensive, but its MTI course is far from theoretical in orientation. It is clear from the analysis that policymakers of this programme try very hard to strike a balance between theory and practice.

Although CH Case 3 was the first to establish an MTI programme in its area—which has a big volume of HE institutions in China—it is still not easy for the MTI programme at CH Case 3 to keep up with its sister programmes in the most developed economic zones. From conversations with CH Interviewee C, it is clear that staff expertise is indeed an important indicator when designing curriculum and teaching content in CH Case 3. In principle, module content is suggested to fit staff expertise. For example, if they cannot staff certain modules (e.g. Subtitling Translation), they prefer not to open them rather than establishing mere skeleton courses. The following table regarding staff expertise at CH Case 3 further reflects this programme's module content.

Table 5.9 demonstrates that 'translation theories' and 'comparative linguistics' are the keywords in terms of staff's research interests. This further explains why translation theory-related modules and linguistics-related modules are important components at CH Case 3's course. Fan (1994), Chen (1996) and Xiong (2011) have proposed a similar point, arguing that the comparison between English and Chinese language is mainstream when teaching translation courses. This preference suffers from two major drawbacks. Firstly, in terms of theory-related modules and linguistics-related modules, the teachers probably focus mainly on the knowledge input rather than sufficient practice, which makes it difficult to match the second suggestion proposed by The Official Guiding Plan. Secondly, there are small group teaching opportunities (e.g. seminars, workshops and tutorials). Traditional lectures which rely heavily on teacher-led explanations are still the dominant way (ibid., p. 93).

During the interview with CH Interviewee C, the author asked questions regarding teaching methods adopted in practical translation or related modules. It is known from the answers that a combination of task-based approach, group discussion and students' presentations are adopted in teaching practical translation. As regards theory-oriented modules, the teacher-centred method is still included. In addition, it is not easy for them to staff an single module regarding *translation as a profession* at the moment, so the simulated translation project highly recommended by The Official Guiding Plan actually needs to be established. Such kind of project will make students feel that "they are translating for a genuine need and a real purpose" (Li 2013, p. 14).

Viewed from the above core teaching ideas suggested by The Official Guiding Plan, as well as the plans taken up by the three cases, it is found that in order to fulfil the teaching objectives proposed by The Official Guiding Plan, teachers are required to have a certain amount of teaching experience, to be translation practitioners at the same time, and to be familiar with the workflow of translation projects in the profession. Cao (2012, p. 33) also argues that ideally speaking, MTI teachers should have multiple roles: combining professional translator, experienced university teacher and modern translation technologist, but this is not the real case for MTI programmes. Yet, according to Tables 5.7, 5.8 and 5.9, at least half of the teaching staff do not have research interests in the 'applied branch of TS', in practical translation or in market needs, which is similar to the situation in the UK. This has also been proven by the figures collected by Ge et al. (2011, p. 34) in their empirical study on the curriculum design of 13 MTI programmes, indicating that half of the MTI teachers lack professional translation experience. Therefore, it would be difficult to expect the teaching content and the teaching methods to be professionally oriented in MTI programmes overwhelmingly. It is also significant to highlight that there is a discrepancy between the national policy and the practice of member institutions. The professionally oriented approach cannot be entirely implemented in every MTI programme. In addition to staff expertise, institutional strategies and resources are other key factors in the decision-making process of teaching activities.

Those institutions that have large volumes of research, teaching and practice, may use various methods to guarantee 'profession' is embedded in their teaching process. But for the vast majority of MTI programmes, especially those in remote areas, this could be a problem. Even in our three case studies, there are differences. The imbalanced education resources are not only reflected in teaching activities, but are related to every step of designing a programme. Thus, the next section will discuss the education resources in both countries and how they could affect the development of a pertinent course.

To summarise, the above analysis has compared and overviewed national traditions in teaching and learning that are adopted in translation programmes in both China and the UK. Here the intention is not to opt for any one of them in particular, but rather to comment on their usefulness and potential pitfalls in different national contexts and at different levels of training. The choices of the teaching method(s) depend on the specific contexts and education resources, and which offers the richest learning experience to students and teachers.

5.4.4 *Comparison of Education Resources*

As discussed in previous parts of this book, education resources may be the root cause of deciding the development phase of a translation programme. By definition, education resources include two dimensions: external factors such as national education policy, regional economic standards and HE resources, or types of universities; and internal factors like institutional strategic plans, engagement with business or staff expertise. Both the external and internal aspects are important to deciding the orientation and specialisation of a pertinent course. Using data gathered from the curricula information about the six case studies and the interviews with six interviewees, this section endeavours to demonstrate evidence of how education resources are used as strengths or constraints in the planning and delivery of translation programmes in China and the UK, respectively.

In China, different levels of education resources influence the delivery and development of a degree course in many ways, and the same is true in our own field. The MTI programmes are located in different regions, and, due to the disparity of economic standards between different regions, there are different levels of market demands. Translators and interpreters are more needed in the more economically developed regions as there are frequent exchanges and trades; conversely the needs in the less economic developed regions are opposite. In addition, the HE system in China has been developing rapidly over the past decades: the numbers and sizes of universities have greatly increased, and the teaching and researching qualities have also been enhanced. However, regional disparities of HE resources and development in China still exist (Chen and Wu 2011). This regional gap, of course, is not an insignificant problem and will have several influences on MTI programmes. It will be easier for those programmes with more HE resources to recruit qualified staff and students. Closer relationships with the wider communities are also easier to help build up for those MTI programmes in developed regions. Finally, we mentioned previously that there are different types of universities in China (comprehensive, foreign language, science and technology, teachers, finance and economics, etc.). Of these, foreign language universities have more resources to locate and develop the translation programme. This is because translation, as an academic discipline in China, is developed from the subject area of foreign languages (Luo and Mu 2010).

In addition to the module content and teaching methods, another factor which is mostly affected by the above facets of education resources is the engagement with the profession. The reason why this is so important is that the MTI programme is designated to nurture professional translators and interpreters. Here the engagement with the profession has several facets, including internships, guest lecturers from the professional world and other industry partnerships (e.g. collaborative projects or site visits).

As introduced in Chapter 4, the internship is a compulsory unit in the two-year MTI programme. For this professionally oriented programme, internship is of paramount importance to students because it is a good opportunity to relate contemporary translation issues to the modules they take in semesters. The internship also allows students to demonstrate many of the skills they have learned on the course. However, the delivery process varies largely from one institution to another due to different levels of regional, local and institutional resources. The three case studies in this study further exemplify this disparity.[40]

The MTI programme at CH Case 2 is a foreign language university, which has offered courses in translation and interpreting since the late 1970s and now has translation programmes at different levels (BA, BTI, MA, MTI, PhD) (Wang and Mu 2009). This university also has a team of core academic staff who are combined with research experts and experienced professional translators (see Table 5.7). Meanwhile, as one of the most developed areas in China, there is high demand for translators in that geographical area. We can, in some sense, deduce that CH Case 2 has the most abundant resources in developing its translation courses, establishing internship bases and creating further professional activities.

CH Case 1 is one of the top universities in China. In the capital Beijing, due to its high concentration of political, economic and education resources, there is high demand for translators and language experts. Also, its MTI programme benefits a great deal from the multidisciplinary support within the university (e.g. School of Software and Microelectronics, School of Management). In terms of internship, the MTI programme at CH Case 1 has tried to collaborate with several government-based organisations to provide internship opportunities for its students. Nevertheless, as discussed in previous chapters, problems still occurred in the delivery process. Therefore, depending on its own resources, it has created an agency to provide students with simulated tasks in the translation and language services profession.

But not every institution can have as many resources as CH Case 1 and CH Case 2. The third case study in China is such an example. In terms of numbers, internship places at the MTI programme at CH Case 3 are relatively fewer than the other two case studies. Although course designers of this programme have decided to build up more work placements, numbers cannot always guarantee quality.

As investigated in Chapter 4, finding internship places to accommodate all the students is a challenge. Student numbers always outweigh the number of internship places that are available. Moreover, many translation companies have established internship opportunities with more than one university, even many. This may severely restrict the quantity of resources that can be allocated to each university.

In addition to internships, the connections with professional translators and organisations also benefit from, or are restricted by, education resources. Similarly to the allocations of internship bases, obviously MTI programmes situated in economically developed areas have more advantages than those in remote areas. For example, the MTI programme at CH Case 2 was able to recruit a team of 15 professional tutors[41] at a single time to make contributions to daily teaching, dissertation supervision and provision of lectures or seminars about the translation profession. CH Case 2's engagement with the profession still continues and optimises. The MTI programme at CH Case 1, although building up partnerships with professional translators and organisations in different ways, pays much attention to the professional impulse in its course.

But the MTI programmes established in the less developed regions are confronted with difficulties. Our third case study in China can shed further light on this issue. During interview, a question regarding professional presentations or speeches was raised. It is clear from the response that most of the guest speakers or lecturers are academics (professors of TS from sister programmes). The opportunities for inviting professionals to give lectures are fewer compared to TS scholars at the moment. Of course, CH Case 3 intends to strengthen its MTI programme in the future. Their plans are mainly twofold. Firstly, it intends to invite more professionals to deliver presentations mainly on the translation profession, professional ethics and professional regulations. Secondly, the staff members hope to introduce more knowledge of translation in specific subject areas; these hopes can be regarded as complementary to its core curriculum.

It is necessary to make the point here that the province (hereinafter H province) where CH Case 3 is located, is not a less developed economic area. Moreover, in their article *The regional division of the higher education sector in China: a spatial analysis*, Chen and Wu (2011) analysed HE development status and potential. Four zones[42] are categorised with different stages. Although there are constraints of local financial conditions on higher education development, H province, classified in Zone IV, is not a resource-lacking area in the HE sector. There are a certain number of MTI programmes actually located in Zone II and Zone III, in particular Zone III. Provinces in Zone III[43] 'are located in western China where both economic performances and higher education development lag far behind the national average' (ibid., p. 23). This indicates that these provinces may have fewer opportunities in terms of international exchanges and trades. Instead, domestic development should be the main target for the local government. Therefore, translation and interpreting only have limited roles to play.

According to the statistics from the MTI Committee in 2015, there were 206 MTI programmes in the whole country, and, in line with Chen and Wu's categorisation of HE regions (ibid.), 61 MTI programmes belong to the provinces of Zone III, accounting for 29.6%, and the vast majority (56) of these 61 programmes were established very recently (2010, 2014). As mentioned in previous chapters, the 206 MTI programmes were not established at the same time. In total, there were 5 batches. The first batch was established in 2007 (15 MTI programmes), the second batch in 2008 (25 MTI programmes), the third in 2010 (118 MTI programmes), the fourth batch in 2011 (1 MTI programme), and the fifth in 2014 (47 MTI programme). This shows that these newly established MTI programmes (third batch to fifth batch) may need attention from the MTI Committee in terms of staff expertise, internship places and professional engagement. Our case study, the MTI programme at CH Case 3, belongs to the second batch, and is still considering how to make its course more professional, and newly launched programmes may be experiencing greater difficulties. The fact is that the number of the newly established MTI programmes is still increasing in the recently three years. Many of them neither belong to economically developed areas, nor educationally developed areas. How and in what ways to quality assure this large number of new programmes are important tasks for both policy makers at the nation level and course designers at the university level.

It is also essential to argue that Chen and Wu's categorisation provides us with a general picture of the distribution of HE in China, but it is not an absolute indicator, and neither are different batches of the MTI programme. For example, there are several universities which do not belong to the first or second batch and are located in Zone III, which have advantages in foreign languages related disciplines. However, the major challenge faced by most MTI programmes, as presented by Professor Zhong in the annual conference (cited in Ping 2013), is that the professional essence of the MTI programme is not properly understood and acknowledged in many MTI programmes. Also, special attention needs to be paid to the newly established MTI programmes regarding their student admission criteria, curriculum design, staff expertise and other professional opportunities.

The MTI programme, in general, faces several tentative challenges, but it can still be seen to be developing positively. Initially, the MTI Committee made every effort to create more opportunities for those programmes that have fewer resources. Secondly, very frequent conferences and meetings regarding the development of the MTI programmes are offered locally, regionally and nationally. Thirdly, the Translators Association of China organises the training course on Training of Trainers (TOT) each summer, aiming to provide guidance for the teachers from universities or regions with fewer resources, or for teachers whose initial academic backgrounds are not Translation Studies. All these efforts may bring out positive prospects for this unique degree course in China.

In contrast, owing to the longer-established HE system in the UK, there are not as dramatic disparities of education resources as there are between the different regions in China. However, the notion of education resources still has some impact on the design of a course in the UK. More specifically, national policy, institutional strategic plans and staff expertise are the three most important factors, and the first factor has a decisive influence on the latter two. Today, public funding of the HE sector in the UK is ‘based upon assessments of performance governed by centralised procedures’ (Willmott 2010, pp. 138–139). The Research Excellence Framework (REF),[44] a peer assessment of the quality of academic research in all disciplines, can be regarded as ‘national policy’ in the UK context because the results determine whether or not steady funding will be granted to universities as well as their rankings in league tables. Every six years, universities are asked to submit examples of their best research to be assessed by a team of academics and industry experts. Each subject area is awarded up to four stars, and only subject areas that are awarded three and four stars[45] secure research funding. In general, a top rating can help universities secure research funding, while a poor performance may close a department. It is therefore understandable that research is vital for a university’s sustainable development in the UK.

The addition in 2014 of the new indicator of 'impact' (taking up 20% of the overall score) meant that research projects carried out by academics are required to have influence outside academia. To be more specific, research is now expected to have an impact on the economy, society, culture, public policy and services, health, the environment and quality of life, within the UK and internationally (REF Report 2014). Alongside impact, research is also assessed by two other criteria: research output (65%) which is the product of any form of research, including publications such as journal articles, books, conference contributions, digital media or exhibitions; and research environment (15%), which refers to the strategy, resources and infrastructure that support research activity in the submitted subject area and contribute more widely to the discipline (ibid.), including factors such as the number of PhD students within a department (Ratcliffe 2014).[46]

In terms of the benefit, the REF can lead primarily to an improved reputation for the unit in question. With an improved reputation, top ranking universities could be more attractive to potential students and staff. Moreover, the new assessment indicator 'impact' also reflects the fact that higher ranking universities have more productive engagements with a very wide range of public, private and third sector organisations. These corporate partnerships, in turn, can increase research volume, inform curriculum development, assist professional development, connect with alumni, support socio-economic agendas and further enhance reputation.

In our own field, all three cases participated in the recent REF assessment. In terms of both overall performances and the subject area performances,[47] GB Case 2 and GB Case 1 ranked higher than GB Case 3. Our previous analysis showed that the MATIS at GB Case 2 and the MATI at GB Case 1 have more available resources than the MATS at GB Case 3 in terms of engagement with business and staff expertise. For example, thanks to its strong research capacities as well as the constant engagement with the professional world, the translation programme in GB Case 1 has a well thought-out balance between teaching abstract theory and meeting professional needs. This resourceful advantage could also be embedded with the staff expertise. In addition to its core academic staff (research and teaching), a team of part-time staff drawn from professional translators and alumni who are now experienced translators also makes a contribution to the daily teaching and the further development of the MATI at GB Case 1. Thus students admitted to this programme can develop all-round abilities of both criticality and the key competences required by a professional translator. Also, they have additional chances to go to international organisations to find out more about the crucial work carried out by translators and interpreters in international affairs. The MATS at GB Case 3 has comparatively fewer education resources. From both the documents and the interview, we acknowledge that this programme wants to make its courses more professional because this is what the market demands. However, the GB Case 3 programme is still in the reputation-building stage. Also the unit of modern languages at GB Case 3 has not been ranked as highly as the other two cases in the REF assessment. The allocated funding and resources for GB Case 3 are relatively fewer. In this sense, there could be fewer collaborative opportunities for the GB Case 3 programme to connect with the wider professional community.

Additionally, universities in the UK are confronted with dual pressures from research and market demands, or student needs. Universities have to motivate their staff to improve their research levels in order to get better results in the next REF assessment. Yet with market forces, many degree or postgraduate courses are required to be more professional. Thus, teaching content is recommended to be professional-oriented in order to provide students with more employable skills. This is part of the reason why the tension between education and training and between research and profession always exists. The MATIS at GB Case 2 in our field further illustrates this pressure. The translation unit, or the broader language unit, at GB Case 2—as a high-ranking unit within a research-intensive university—has been granted more research resources than the other two cases. Notably, this programme has more research experts than professional translators in terms of its core academic staff (also see Table 5.5). This could explain why the priority of the MATIS at GB Case 2 is to maintain its research reputation. Moreover, as a stepping stone to PhD study,[48] it is reasonable to place a certain number of research-oriented modules in the curriculum. However, driven by market forces, policymakers have to add professional units to the curriculum in order to meet both the market and students' needs. In this sense, practice-based modules and seminars conducted by professional translators are also included in the curriculum, though in these modules or seminars theoretical content still outweighs practical input. From this example, we see that the MATIS at GB Case 2 is trying to find a balance between research pressure and industry needs, and the same is true with many other courses in UK universities.

In summary, this analysis demonstrates that university programmes in both countries are affected by the available education resources. In China, the disparities of economic standards and HE resources in different regions have a profound influence on the pertinent degree course. In the UK, the level of available resources to be used to develop a university course is mostly dependent on the university and the subject area's research reputation. A university's research level and reputation can attract more students and boost more collaborative projects between and outside academia—or have the opposite effect.

5.5 Summary

Summarising the findings conveyed in this chapter, this study highlights the changes of HEIs in both the UK and China as a result of exposure to neoliberalism and globalisation. For both countries, attention has been focused on the interface among higher education, industry and commerce. Changes originate from many directions. Governments have shifted their funding mechanisms, so most universities need to seek resources themselves. The markets in both countries have higher expectations of human capital. Requests for more practical teaching content by students—another stakeholder of higher education—are accompanied by demands for greater 'employability' skills in the job market upon graduation. All these demands indicate that both countries want to make their university courses more 'professional'. But the different national traditions of teaching and learning, as well as of social and economic contexts, have resulted in differences in curricula and programme design between China and the UK.

Due to different economic and cultural 'statuses' in the global system, the HE sectors and their translation programmes in China and the UK have responded differently. As China is now playing an increasingly crucial role in world affairs and seeks to increase its influence, the HE sector is expected to make contributions to the country's soft power construction. Translation programmes are also accorded an important role in this national mission. Graduates are expected to be able to play a vital role in the international exchange in a wide range of fields between China and the world, and to translate Chinese classics into English and other foreign languages to promote Chinese culture and core values in other countries. The UK, on the contrary, has successfully established its reputation over the past years due to its history, language and culture. Economic growth, instead of global influence, is now the nation's top priority. The higher education sector in the UK is an important sector of economic activity in its own right. Higher education generates more output than many other sectors (Universities UK 2014). Translation programmes (English–Chinese) in the UK are largely taken by international students, especially Chinese students. Due to the constraints of visa policies, the vast majority of these students need to return to their home countries, as they are not expected to serve the UK's political and economic development. This fact notwithstanding, the tuition fees and living expenses paid by translation students and other international students have made a substantial contribution to economic activity in the UK.

As a comparative study, this chapter, primarily based on the collected data and analysis in Chapters 3 and 4, also compares different curricula design strategies adopted in both countries' translation programmes to bridge the tension between academia and the marketplace, from the perspective of course objectives, module content, teaching methods and education resources. Regarding course objectives there is a clear distinction between China and the UK. The MTI programme in China has the pure practical aim of cultivating professional translators and interpreters working in different subject areas. However, in the UK, translation programmes are still trying to seek a well-balanced relationship between generic theory and the translation profession. Different course objectives could result in different module content. From the perspective of Chinese MTI programmes, translating and interpreting in different subject-specific fields (e.g. foreign affairs, commerce, law, science and technology) is advocated by the MTI Committee for incorporation into the curriculum. Sister programmes in the UK, on the other hand, tend to teach students more general skills to be applied in a wide range of areas. It is also essential to point out that the concept of language services first appeared in Chinese MTI programmes in line with the rapid development in the language services industry. Two pioneering programmes have already been exposed to this changing trend, and have made corresponding adjustments regarding their course objectives and module content. According to previous findings, there is not a single translation programme establishing a language services pathway for its translation and/or interpreting cohort in the UK, though language services is well accepted in the market. In terms of teaching methods, the British model as a whole represents research-informed teaching and learning (knowledge priority); while the Chinese MTI Programme is a purely professional degree course (skills priority). The biggest constraint faced by both countries is a lack of engagement with the profession. This could be a common task if they plan to optimise their courses in the future.

Notes

1. The principles, applications and limits of neoliberalism are not the key discussion points. This study will pay particular attention to the impacts of this neo-liberal reform on the HE sectors. The UK and China are two in-depth case studies.
2. According to Giroux (2002), neo-liberal ideology reached a critical point in the late 1980s with the major reforms of the Thatcher government in the UK and the Reagan government in the USA.
3. Recruiting international students to study in the UK is an important agenda for the UK government (also discuss this point in the following sections). In China, there are two dimensions regarding internationalisation of universities. Firstly, more and more Chinese students are likely to study abroad. Secondly, China welcomes Sino-foreign universities, partnerships and projects.
4. This statement is quoted from the official website of the UK Government https://www.gov.uk/government/topics/foreign-affairs.
5. This includes the University of Nottingham China Campus/Malaysia Campus, Herriot-Watt University Dubai Campus, University of Central Lancashire Bangkok Campus, University College London (UCL) Australia Campus, etc.
6. QS official website: http://www.topuniversities.com/student-info/choosing-university/university-branch-campuses.
7. For example, the University of Nottingham's presence in China enables them to bid for Chinese government research funding. In particular, according to the news report, 'a partnership between The University of Nottingham, Wanli Education Group (WEG) and Ningbo Municipal Government has successfully raised more than 21 million RMB (£2.3 million) for research into areas related to the marine economy industry' (http://www.nottingham.edu.cn/en/news/2015/21m-rmb-for-universitys-marine-economy-research-in-ningbo.aspx).
8. By definition, CSR means the contribution of business to social and environmental welfare.
9. Please consult its official website for more information: http://www.ahrc.ac.uk/Pages/Home.aspx.
10. At the time of writing and publishing their article, Professor Rebecca Boden worked at Cardiff School of Management.

11. In the past, some universities in China were not run by the MoE. Instead, they belonged to the government agencies in charge of agriculture, steel, the railway, finance, etc. (Wu and Zheng 2008).
12. According to the China Education Centre, 'Project 211 is the Chinese government's new endeavour aimed at strengthening about 100 institutions of higher education and key disciplinary areas as a national priority for the 21st century'. 'Project 985 is a constructive project for founding world-class universities in the 21st century conducted by the government of the People's Republic of China. On May 4, 1998, President Jiang Zemin declared that 'China must have a number of first-rate universities of international advanced level', so Project 985 was launched. In the initial phase, nine universities were launched in the project. The second phase, launched in 2004, expanded the programme until it has now reached almost 40 universities (http://www.chinaeducenter.com/en/cedu/ceduproject211.php). At the moment, the MoE issued a new evaluation system to develop a group of world-class universities and a certain number of universities which have world-class disciplines. Since this system is still at the exploratory stage, this book will not argue in detail.
13. In China, there are four directly governed city regions: Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai and Chongqing. They share the same function as provinces and are directly managed by central government.
14. Up until 2012, there were 2031 non-key universities while the number of key universities is 107.
15. Full text of Hu Jintao's report at 18th Party Congress can be accessed via http://www.globaltimes.cn/content/744879.shtml.
16. To better understand China's national policy of promoting cultural soft power, an article reported via Xinhua News Agency (the state press agency of the People's Republic of China) can further explain this strategy. (http://news.xinhuanet.com/english/china/2014-01/01/c_125941955.htm).
17. Full text of Xinhua Report can be accessed via http://news.xinhuanet.com/english/china/2014-01/01/c_125941955.htm.
18. The national broadcaster China Central Television (CCTV) launched China Global Television Network (CGTN) on Dec. 31, 2016. From its official website, we know that CCTV's English, Spanish, French, Arabic, Russian and CCTV 9 Documentary's web portals have been moved to www.cgtn.com, and this new portal aims to re-brand its product to the world, to cope with the global trend in media coverage, and they cover the whole globe, reporting news from China. This, in many analysts' views, is a further step towards fulfilling China's wider strategy of going global.

19. Quoted from the programme's course flyer. More information about this course can be found at: http://www.nottingham.ac.uk/pgstudy/courses/architecture-and-built-environment/sustainable-energy-and-entrepreneurship-msc.aspx.
20. This approach refers to the academic/vocational dichotomy.
21. This term specifically relates to 'the former polytechnics, central institutions or colleges of higher education that were given university status by John Major's government in 1992 (through the Further and Higher Education Act 1992)—as well as colleges that have been granted university status since then' (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/New_universities).
22. Full article containing this quotation can be found online at: (http://www.theguardian.com/education/2012/sep/03/polytechnics-became-universities-1992-differentiation).
23. Full article containing this quotation can be found online at: http://www.jobs.ac.uk/careers-advice/working-in-higher-education/1135/what-is-a-university-in-the-uk.
24. Full information of this translation course can be found at: http://www.westminster.ac.uk/courses/subjects/languages/postgraduate-courses/full-time/p09fptai-ma-translation-and-interpreting#overview.
25. More information of Interpreting and Translation Group at University M can be found at: http://www.mdx.ac.uk/courses/Film-media-and-English/interpreting-and-translation.
26. The programme overview of Business and Legal Translation MA at University M can be found at: http://www.mdx.ac.uk/courses/postgraduate/business-and-legal-translation.
27. Professor Weihe Zhong serves an important position on the China National Committee for MTI education. As he is fully involved in the process of designing the Chinese BTI programme, MTI programme and the future DTI programme, his comments need to be given careful consideration.
28. This was echoed at the 2017 annual conference, indicating that designing specialised translation course is not an easy task.
29. Sinopec Group, founded in 1998, is a huge state-owned petroleum and petrochemical enterprise in China. According to the Sinopec Annual Report in 2011, Sinopec was still the largest Chinese-based multinational enterprise in 2010 and also ranked among the top ten in Fortune Global 500.
30. Baosteel Group Cooperation is a typical enterprise arising from China's reform and opening up. The construction of Baosteel commenced on the bank of Yangtze River in north Shanghai on December 23rd, 1878, only one day after the closing of the Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh CPC Central Committee. After over 30 years of development, Baosteel

has grown into China's most competitive iron and steel group with the highest level of modernisation. At the end of 2012, Baosteel had a total of 130,401 employees located across the world.

31. Huawei Group was established in Shenzhen of Guangdong Province in China in 1987 as a small size private-owned firm. However, after many years' development, by 2002 the firm had become a global IT giant mainly providing solutions, products and services.
32. The China Translation Profession Forum is a nationwide conference held each year in May or June in which academics and professionals are brought together to exchange experiences and ideas on the development of translation education and industry in China.
33. The official website for language Services Associates is: http://lsaweb.co.uk.
34. The 12 UK firms who are doing business in the language services industry are: SDL; RWS Group; the big word Group; Semantix; Capita Translation and Interpreting Limited; Alpha CRC LTD; Lingo24 Ltd; Translate Plus Limited; Wordbank; TranslateMedia Ltd; Sandberg Translation Partners/STP Nordic; Language Connect. (www.commonsenseadvisory.com).
35. The optional modules can be slightly changed each year according to staff expertise or other possible reasons.
36. Theory-based modules at GB Case 1 programme include: *Translation Studies I & II; Research Methods in Translation and Interpreting.*
37. The benefits of research-led teaching on students are research outcomes generated from The Teaching-Research Nexus project. The quoted information in this chapter can be consulted at: https://www.academia.edu/6078349/Student_engagement_and_teaching-research_links_Opportunities_and_challenges.
38. The role of an interdiscipline in academic society, defined by Willard McCarty in his paper 'Humanities computing as interdiscipline' (1999), is explained thus: 'A true discipline is… not easily understood, funded or managed in a world already divided along disciplinary lines, despite the standard pieties… Rather it is an entity that exists in the interstices of the existing fields, dealing with some, many or all of them. It is the Phoenician trader among the settled nations. Its existence is enigmatic in such a world; the enigma challenges us to rethink how we organise and institutionalise knowledge' (McCarty 1999, cited in Munday 2012, p. 23).
39. These six semi-specialised areas are suggested from the market-entry test: Diploma in Translation (refer back to Chapter 2). These subject areas reflect the demands of the market to a certain extent.
40. Please see also detailed illustration on each case programme's internship places in Chapter 4.
41. Please refer to Appendices for more information about the professional tutors in the MTI programme at CH Case 2. The recruitment may have

slightly changes in different years due to availability or the adjustments of course aims.

42. The four zones are: Zone I: Higher development status and high development potential; Zone II: Low development status and high development potential; Zone III: Low development status and low development potential; Zone IV: High development status but low development potential.
43. Zone III accounts for 16 provinces in China. They are: Chongqing; Hunan; Jiangxi; Shanxi; Sichuan; Anhui; Gansu; I. Mongolia; Hainan; Xingjiang; Hebei; Tibet; Guangxi; Yunnan; Guizhou; Qinghai.
44. The REF is the new system for assessing the quality of research in UK universities. It replaces the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE), last conducted in 2008 (www.ref.ac.uk).
45. Four star is the highest level, which means the research is world-leading. Three star indicates the research is internationally excellent (www.ref.ac.uk).
46. This statement is acquired from the Guardian article on REF 2014, which can be accessed via: http://www.theguardian.com/higher-education-network/2014/dec/17/ref-2014-why-is-it-such-a-big-deal.
47. As the vast majority of the translation programmes are included in the school of modern languages and/or cultures, the assessment of the translation unit is embedded in the unit of modern language and linguistics (number 28).
48. The number of PhD students in a department is also an assessing factor in terms of research environment in the REF assessment.

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Conclusion

This book set out to answer the questions: how are universities facing up to the challenges of the new era as a result of neo-liberal market impact? How has this impact affected the translation programmes in the UK and China, and how have the six case programmes investigated in this book responded to market forces?

In view of the above chapters, we can summarise that this book has mainly discussed the following issues. The neo-liberal economic globalisation has had a profound influence on the HE systems in many countries in the world, including both the UK and China. However, due to different academic traditions and national contexts, the HE systems in these two countries have adopted different strategies. For universities in the UK, internationalising its HE sector, building knowledge transfer partnerships, and linking HE to employability are outstanding examples. In China, driven by market forces, some reforms of the HE system have been carried out, such as the expansion of the HE sector, the decentralisation of the HE system, and commercialisation, privatisation and diversification of the HE sector. It has also been found in this book that the UK and China are now placed with different positions in the global context, which has different expectations towards the HE sectors. China, as the rising power and new economy, is now in the process of building an image in international affairs and constructing its own 'soft power', the HE sector (including the translation discipline) is then given a significant role in this national mission. Graduates from the translation

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programmes in China are also expected to make contributions to help promote Chinese cultures in other countries and to help bridge the linguistic and cultural gap in the internationalisation process of Chinese firms. Obviously this is not the case in the UK. As the UK has been very competitive in terms of soft power, brand recognition is not an urgent task for the UK. Its economic and business growth of higher education is more important.

Despite these differences, a common pressure faced by the HE sectors in the UK and China is to make their degree courses more professional in order to meet the demands from the market, the employers and the students. There are many methods to address this pressure, such as developing degree courses with a professional orientation, building up work-based-learning programmes, and integrating transferrable employability-related skills into the university curricula. In the subject area of Translation Studies, the importance of professional needs has been given attention in both countries, but the tension between education and training still exist in the curricula of translation programmes in both countries, particularly with British models. Through the findings of this book it is clear that translation programmes in the UK are still struggling with balancing theoretical units (e.g. abstract knowledge; conceptual issues) and professional needs (e.g. linguistic competence, translation competence, professionalism, subject area knowledge), and it is relatively easier for some programmes to offer theory-based modules within their available education resources. In China, it is clear that policy makers have realised the necessity of nurturing professional translators due to the increased need of language professionals, and this is part of the reasons why the MTI Programme has been established. Several prestigious universities with abundant resources, including the two cases studies in this research, have made positive responses to this national policy, and have set up well-thought-out professional translation programmes. But for the rest of the MTI programmes nationwide, especially those located in inland and western areas, there are still many challenges in making their courses professional. It can be concluded here that education resources (e.g. research grants, staff expertise, collaboration with profession) have a strong influence on the design and delivery of translation programmes in both countries. Those translation programmes with more resources and funding are more professional and practical, and vice versa.

Suggestions for Future Research Directions

This study has made contributions to the field of Translation Studies, especially to the area of translator education. However, there are still interesting topics that require further investigating. Firstly, the fact that many students who study translation and interpreting courses do not intend to be professional translators and/or interpreters, as Li (2012) has suggested. Specifically, many students taking translation courses primarily intend to develop their language skills, and prefer to work in multinational companies or become language teachers after graduation. Li (2003, 2012, pp. 108–128) has conducted an empirical study at the Department of Translation of the Chinese University of Hong Kong to gather translation students' attitudes towards becoming translators and/or interpreters. The result has demonstrated that to enter into the profession of translation and interpreting was not the students' first choice. Instead, many of them preferred to work in government departments or private enterprises. This is also true with other translation programmes.[1] Therefore, further studies on the translation graduates' destinations could be conducted, and how to design modules in the translation and interpreting programmes (or 'transferrable' programmes) to deal with the actual needs of those students who do not want to pursue a career in translation and interpreting could be distinguished and specified in future studies.

In addition, this research has investigated that education resources (e.g. staff expertise) do have an impact on the delivery of translation programmes, at least as shown in the six case studies. However, a more realistic issue regarding staff recruitment—which is not analysed in detail in this study—could be further explored. More specifically, empirical studies may be carried out to investigate whether the translation and interpreting programmes demonstrate their success before new staff were appointed, or the purpose of appointing new staff is to contribute to the development of relevant programmes. However, more detailed survey questions or interviews will be required to address this issue.

Last but not least, the translation competences generated by scholars so far are still general ones. But in the new era of Big Data and confronted with the challenges of the AI, what kind of competences should translators and interpreters acquire? Also, in the time when international exchanges happen in almost every sector, what specific competences in different subject areas (e.g. finance and economics; law; international mediation, foreign affairs, etc.) should translators acquire in order to bridge communication gaps or misunderstandings? In this case, universities that would like to train translators in one or two specialised fields may also need to think how these specific competences can be embedded in their curricula.

Note

1. During the interviews with the six interviewees, the author raised the question regarding graduates' destinations. According to their responses, it is a fact that many students do not work as translators and interpreters after graduation. However, since not all the students kept in touch with the universities, the course directors cannot provide the author with published statistics. Taking into consideration the difficulty in gathering all the graduates' destinations, this book cannot provide conclusive evidence. However, this topic could be carried out as a further research project.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: List of interviewees in the UK and China

Number	*Country*	*Affiliation*	*Person*	*Time of interview*
1	UK	GB Case 1	GB Interviewee A	09/04/2013
2	UK	GB Case 2	GB Interviewee B	15/04/2013
3	UK	GB Case 3	GB Interviewee C	27/11/2013
4	China	CH Case 1	CH Interviewee A	25/04/2013
5	China	CH Case 2	CH Interviewee B	09/05/2013
6	China	CH Case 3	CH Interviewee C	30/05/2013

Appendix 2: Professional degrees at master's level in China

Number	*Chinese name*	*English name & Abbreviation*	*Issue year*
1	金融硕士	Master of Finance (MF)	2010
2	应用统计硕士	Master of Applied Statistics (M.A.S.)	2010
3	税务硕士	Master of Taxation (MT)	2010
4	国际商务硕士	Master of International Business (MIB)	2010
5	保险硕士	Master of Insurance (MI)	2010
6	资产评估硕士	Master of Valuation (MV)	2010
7	审计硕士	Master of Auditing (MAud)	2011

Appendix 2: Continued

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Appendix 2: Continued

Number	*Chinese name*	*English name & Abbreviation*	*Issue year*
8	法律硕士	Juris Master (JM)	1995
9	社会工作硕士	Master of Social Work (MSW)	2008
10	警务硕士	Master of Policing (MP)	2010
11	教育硕士	Master of Education (Ed.M)	1996
12	体育硕士	Master of Science in Physical Education (MSPE)	2005
13	汉语国际教育硕士	Master of Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages (MTCSOL)	2007
14	应用心理硕士	Master of Applied Psychology (MAP)	2010
15	艺术硕士	Master of Fine Arts (MFA)	2005
16	翻译硕士	Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI)	2007
17	新闻与传播硕士	Master of Journalism and Communication (MJC)	2010
18	出版硕士	Master of Publishing (MP)	2010
19	文物与博物馆硕士	Master of Cultural Heritage and Museology (M.C.H.M)	2010
20	建筑学硕士	Master of Architecture (M. Arch)	1992
21	工程硕士	Master of Engineering (ME)	1997
22	城市规划硕士	Master of Urban Planning (MUP)	2010
23	农业推广硕士	agricultural extension master (MAE)	1999
24	兽医硕士	Master of Veterinary Medicine (VMM)	1999
25	风景园林硕士	Master of Landscape Architecture (MLA)	2005
26	林业硕士	Master of Forestry (MF)	2010
27	临床医学硕士	Master of Medicine (M.M.)	1998
28	口腔医学硕士	Master of Stomatological Medicine (S.M.M)	2000
29	公共卫生硕士	Master of Public Health (MPH)	2001
30	护理硕士	Master of Nursing Specialist (MNS)	2010
31	药学硕士	Professional Master of Pharmacy (M. Pharm)	2010
32	中药学硕士	Master of Chinese Materia Medica (MCMM)	2010
33	军事硕士	Master of Military	2002
34	工商管理硕士	Master of Business Administration (MBA)	1990
35	公共管理硕士	Master of Public Administration (MPA)	1999
36	会计硕士	Master of Professional Accounting (MPAcc)	2004
37	旅游管理硕士	Master of Tourism Administration (MTA)	2010
38	图书情报硕士	Master of Library and Information Studies (MLIS)	2010
39	工程管理硕士	Master of Engineering Management (MEM)	2010

Appendix 3: 15 Professional Tutors Hired by the MTI Programme at CH Case 2

WANG Lei, Deputy Director, Guangxi International Expo Bureau.
CHEN Shengquan, Director, Translation Department, Huawei Technologies Co., Ltd.
LI Yongzhong, Director, Economic and Trade Bureau of Conghua City.
LI Ying, Director, Translation Department, Guangxi International Expo Bureau.
MIN min, Deputy Director, Protocol Division, Foreign Affairs Office of Guangzhou Municipal Government.
ZHANG Jicheng, CEO, Guangzhou E-say.com.
CHEN Dinggang, Officer, Guangzhou LangPro Translation Limited.
LIN Weiping, Director, Division of International Communication, Foreign Affairs Office of Zhuhai Municipal Government.
LIU Zhenlin, Guangzhou New Bridge Translation Co., Ltd.
QI Ying, Manager, Department of Product Innovation, Division of Strategic Management at Guangdong Development Bank.
JIANG Wangyue, Principal Staff Member, Consular Department at Foreign Affair Office, People's Government of Guangdong Province.
CHEN Jing, Manager, Interpreting Department, Translation Centre at Huawei Tech. Co., Ltd.
XIE Geng, Leader, Electromotor Soft Transediting Team, Translation Centre at Huawei Tech. Co., Ltd.
ZHANG Lingyan, Leader, Document Transediting Team, Translation Centre at Huawei Tech. Co., Ltd.