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Translation – Didaktik – Kompetenz

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Beyond Teaching: Towards Co-Emergent Praxis in Translator Education

Don Kiraly, Gary Massey, Sascha Hofmann

1   Introduction

This chapter is the product of parallel as well as joint efforts by the three authors (Don Kiraly and Sascha Hofmann, faculty members of the School of Translation, Linguistics and Cultural Studies [FTSK] of the University of Mainz, Germany, and Gary Massey, Director of the Institute for Translation and Interpretation [IUED] at the Zurich University of Applied Sciences, Switzerland) to further develop collaborative approaches to learning and teaching with the aim of contributing to sustainable innovation in translator education.

In the second section of the chapter, Don Kiraly introduces an abductive frame of reasoning and an interpretivist line of inquiry for investigating processes in translator education. He then presents some of the abductive milestones along his own research trajectory, focusing particularly on findings from three of many action research case studies that have fed into a post-positivist model of *translator expertise emergence* that all three authors of this chapter are now attempting to apply and enhance.

The first of the three case studies was a classroom research project in which Kiraly and a student assistant observed and analyzed a subtitling course Kiraly offered at the *Ecole Supérieure des Interprètes et Traducteurs* (ESIT) in Paris. The second was the curriculum development component of the European Graduate Placement Scheme (EGPS) project sponsored by the European Union[1], geared towards the

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[1]   Erasmus Project – reference number 526808-LLP-1-2012-1-UK—ERASMUS-ECUE. 2012-2015. Project coordinating organization: Skills Cfa, London. Institutional partners:

creation of an online platform for international work placements for translation students and graduates. And the third is a long-term project that is currently underway and that involves a series of iterations of a blended-learning course offered for advanced MA students at FTSK, with a view towards further developing and refining the curriculum model developed for the EGPS and its incorporation into the BA and MA programmes of study at FTSK.[2] The blended-learning course in question is an example of an authentic collaborative translation project of the type originally proposed by Kiraly (2000) as a potential mainstay of instructional design in translator education. This particular course is offered within the scope of an optional module in specialized translation offered by the English Department at FTSK.

In the third section of the chapter, Gary Massey takes an organizational perspective to present and discuss the applicability of the co-emergence concept to the continuing development of translator education programmes and institutions. He refers to measures that have been undertaken at IUED to foster curriculum development and organizational learning within the context of the model Kiraly proposes.

In the fourth section, Sascha Hofmann outlines the genesis of a 'translation agency simulator', which he is currently developing at FTSK as an instructional tool for simulated translation project work. As will be explained in the discussion below, *simulated translation project work* can be seen to dovetail with both *instruction* in elementary domain-specific skills and concepts and *complex authentic translation project work* towards the end of a programme of study.

It should be noted at the outset that the three authors, all with diverse academic backgrounds and professional experience, do not share a monolithic understanding of the matters at hand. We are in agreement, however, that constructive debate from multiple perspectives has led to invaluable synergies and complementary

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[2] For a more detailed discussion of the EGPS project and particularly the curriculum development component, see: Kiraly and Graham (2013), Kiraly and Piowtrowska (2014) and Kiraly and Hofmann (2016).

understandings of the complex educational processes we are observing and attempting to facilitate. No attempt has been made in this chapter to obfuscate these different perspectives. Instead, we wish to emphasize our shared belief in the social constructivist principle of the inestimable value of multi-perspective collegial debate in the quest for viable educational innovation.

2 Initial Steps Towards an Emergentist Approach to Translator Education – Don Kiraly

2.1 Abductive Action Research: A Frame of Reasoning and Line of Inquiry for Qualitative Action Research

From the time I began to develop my social constructivist approach to translator education in the late 1990s (Kiraly 2000), my own research endeavours have almost exclusively involved action research on the development of translator expertise on the basis of an interpretivist epistemological paradigm with an explicitly abductive component. As is well known but, I believe, too rarely acknowledged, *abduction* is the ubiquitous third form of logical inferencing (along with *induction* and *deduction*) that enables the generation of hypotheses for verification in scientific research. It is often attributed to the American pragmatist philosopher Charles S. Peirce (Peirce 1931–1958) but in fact dates back to at least the 16th century (Reichertz 2009: 5). In Peirce's words:

> Abduction is the process of forming an explanatory hypothesis. It is the only logical operation which introduces any new idea; for induction does nothing but determine a value, and deduction merely evolves the necessary consequences of a pure hypothesis. Deduction proves that something must be; Induction shows that something actually is operative; Abduction merely suggests that something may be (Peirce 1903, 5.171).

Whereas it might be claimed that rationalist and empiricist forms of logic purport to seek knowledge about the world (the former through a top-down process of applying rules and the latter through a bottom-up process of generalizing from ostensibly objective data), abduction explicitly involves identifying phenomena of interest in a domain and proposing the most likely explanations (hypotheses)

to plausibly elucidate those phenomena – often with the clear prospect of confirming the viability of the hypotheses through scientific research. It is noteworthy that from the perspective of the American pragmatists (Charles Peirce, John Dewey and William James), who acknowledged the key role of abduction in the investigative process, scientific research is not a search for knowledge (in the sense of Plato's 'justified true beliefs'), but instead for pragmatically viable explanations – that will be usable for the time being, until a better explanation is found.

Hence, abductive reasoning lends itself especially well to qualitative research and in particular to *case-study action research*, where complex ideographic phenomena are often investigated and where laws of nature do not apply. This research methodology, which is widely used in many fields, dates back to the middle of the 20th century and the work of the German-American psychologist Kurt Lewin (Adelman 1993). In action research, practitioners (who are often involved in education) attempt to discern problems or other interesting phenomena in their respective microcosms, identify or propose plausible solutions or explanations, implement change in their professional practice on the basis of these potential solutions or explanations and assess the outcomes. The process is repeated as new phenomena and problems come to light. Hence, action research does not lead to definitive conclusions or truths, but at best to pragmatically viable solutions that must be revisited and revised as constellations of factors change dynamically and inevitably over time.

Abduction can clearly be a useful step even in positivist scientific research, particularly where phenomena of interest are difficult or impossible to observe. Examples of abductive conjecture would be the hypothesized existence of quarks and the Higgs Boson in physics (Jackson 2010: 89). But in interpretivist research, including action research, where the phenomena being investigated are particularly social, complex and ephemeral, abduction may well be a quintessential tool. The contemplation of theoretical constructs as well as the pursuance and observation of praxis complement each other as the researcher brings ideas to bear on the interpretive analysis of the social microcosm in question.

I have included this brief discussion about abduction and action research to explain my penchant for drawing on what one might consider rather surprising or at

least unconventional hypothetical relationships in attempting to develop models of learning and competence development that can serve as pragmatically viable stepping stones towards perpetual innovation in translator education. Like all social domains, this one is far too complex and dynamic for there to be best practices for all time. The best we can hope for, I believe, are pragmatically useful heuristics for current situations and circumstances. The models I have been developing hence have a strongly metaphorical character rather than a hypothesized ontological one. Further research on these models should not, in my view, purport to test their reliability and validity – but instead their utility in the process of co-constructing useful understandings of how to improve teaching and learning in this domain. In the following part of this section, I will outline the key 'serendipitous encounters'[3] that have provided some of the inspiration for the models presented in this chapter.

2.2 Moving Beyond the Method: Using Abduction to Generate Hypotheses

Social constructivism was the first ideational resource that I brought to bear (after a chance but serendipitous encounter with the ideas of Lev Vygotsky) on translator education, against the backdrop of what I considered to be a virtual absence of theoretical underpinnings in the field when I began my research in the field of translator education in the middle of the 1980s (see Kiraly 1995 & 2000). Rather than taking social constructivist principles as a set of truths or rules to be applied and implemented in a rational (deductive) manner, my efforts entailed seeking both plausible explanations and, at the same time, inspiration for my own emerging praxis as a translator educator. In a nutshell, social constructivist ideas served as affordances[4] that have continuously inspired and buttressed my efforts to bring

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[3]   Van Andel and Bourcier (2002) discuss links between serendipity and abduction in scientific research. The term 'serendipitous encounter' has been borrowed from Damerow and Renn (2003). Dobson et al. (2012: 1) aptly call these encounters "eureka moments".

[4]   Affordance is the term proposed by the psychologist James Gibson (1979) to features in the environment that facilitate given activities.

collaborative learning and authentic project work into the translation studies classroom. To reiterate, my research agenda has never focused on seeking the 'correct' way to educate translators, but instead to explore a plethora of pragmatically valuable explanatory ideas and practices in the pursuit of ever more effective educational practices over time.

A second serendipitous encounter was with complexity thinking, which Hanna Risku (1998) had referred to in the context of translation-process studies shortly before I completed my monograph on a social constructivist approach to translator education. From that initial encounter, complexity theory has struck me as an exciting perspective for describing processes involved in translator education – and one that appears to me to complement social constructivism. But it was only in 2010 when I undertook an action research study on a course I taught at ESIT at the University of Paris VI that I was convinced of the potential offered by complexity thinking for understanding and improving translator education.
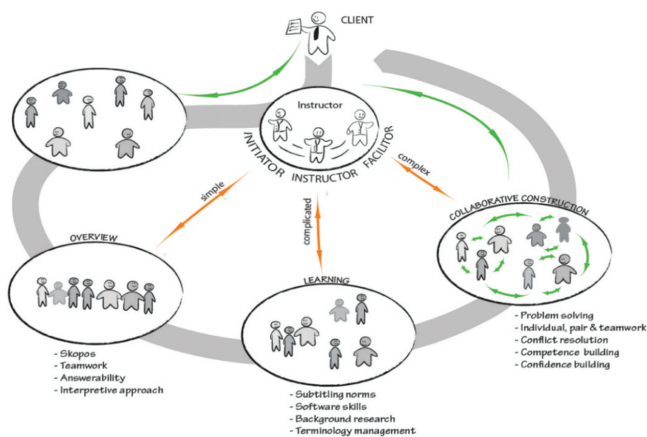
Figure 1: Complexity emerges in praxis in an action-research study at ESIT

Figure 1 is a graphic representation of the didactic processes observed during a course in subtitling from French to English that I offered at ESIT in the fall semester of my second year as a visiting lecturer at the School. While I was already thoroughly convinced of the value of using a collaborative, authentic-project based approach to developing translator competence both in a German and a

French university environment, I was dissatisfied with how little I was aware of the actual learning and teaching processes that occurred in my apparently successful authentic classroom projects. At that point, I felt that I needed to come to a more overt, conscious understanding of the processes and procedures involved if I were to be able to improve my own teaching praxis as well as share my approach with other translation teachers. In hindsight, the action research approach I adopted involved incorporating Donald Schön's (1984) ideas, not just of being a reflective practitioner (which includes the embodied but subconscious grappling with one's own praxis), but of 'reflecting on reflection' – which entails the conscious scrutiny and analysis of one's own emerging expertise.

To briefly set the stage for the reader, this 'reflecting-on-reflection' projected entailed observing (with the help of a student assistant) all of the sessions of the subtitling course I facilitated over the course of that semester and then analyzing what had actually transpired during the course in terms of learning and – here specifically – my own teaching or facilitating efforts. I will spare the reader details of the project here as it has been discussed at length in an earlier publication (Kiraly 2012a), but the key finding that I wish to focus on – one that set the stage for the dynamic model of curricular learning to be discussed below – was the revelation of the unfolding of a pragmatically viable hierarchy of stages in the emergence of the course in the absence of a specific lesson plan. As in all of the authentic, project-based courses I had taught up to that time, the only significant aspects of planning that I brought to the table at the beginning of the course were the translation commission and a brief.

For this particular course, a small film production company in Paris had offered me a subtitling job to do with students over the course of the semester. The translation brief required the creation of a set of professional-quality English subtitles for a new short French film on the last days in the life of Marcel Proust. Figure 1 above illustrates in a cryptic graphic manner the stages that my research assistant and I found emerging from that initial impetus of the subtitling commission (as well as my didactic obligations and the students' learning requirements as specified by the School administration).

Through our observations and subsequent analysis, we found that not only did the course exemplify most of the social constructivist principles that had long been part and parcel of my collaborative teaching approach (respecting multiple perspectives, maximizing democratic decision-making in the classroom, and promoting student responsibility and empowerment), but it also clearly reflected the hierarchical trichotomy of knowledge types that have been discussed repeatedly from the perspective of complexity thinking: simple, complicated and complex.[5] Much to my surprise, I found that instruction *per se* was not at all absent from the process as I believed my approach had assumed up to that point. Instead, the earliest stages of the course, corresponding to the acquisition of basic (binary) knowledge and skills about translation theory, subtitling norms and the handling of subtitling software were replete with transmissionist 'instruction'.

A gradual shift away from instruction and towards facilitation occurred spontaneously during a second (observed but not overtly planned) stage in the project. During this stage, students practiced using the software and applied their emerging understanding of subtitling norms and translation theories (particularly interpretive and functionalist theory) in simulated mini-projects (exercises) that I created for them as the course progressed. It was only during the final third of the course that it became a truly interactive and facilitated (rather than taught) workshop: the students worked in collaborative teams, with a minimum of supervision on my part, to subtitle, review and revise segments of the dialogue from our commissioned authentic task and to produce the single, publishable set of subtitles that was submitted to the client at the end of the semester and shown at a public screening at a cinema in Paris shortly thereafter.

In hindsight, the simple-to-complicated-to-complex progression in terms of both teaching and learning appeared logical and sensible, if not absolutely self-evident. But my prior reliance on social constructivist theory had not provided me with an overt understanding of how to order my didactic activities over the course of a

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[5]   Simple refers to binary facts or skills that are either right or wrong; complicated refers to mechanically combined elements of simple knowledge or skills, and complex knowledge refers to non-binary and non-mechanical knowledge that emerges autopoietically against the backdrop of a complex environment.

project or how to see different types of didactic interventions as synergistic rather than epistemologically antithetical. On an intuitive level, my teaching praxis had in fact already progressed beyond my initial theoretical (social constructivist) views, and it was my chance encounter with complexity theory that set the stage for consciously and overtly adding a plausible component of hierarchical and temporal progression to what I had thought was already a convincing and viable didactic approach.

The confirmation of the value of social constructivist principles for translator education that resulted from this project and also the potential for enhancing a collaborative approach with the simple-complicated-complex progression would be taken a step further two years later, when Sascha Hofmann and I co-initiated a project to enable and promote international work placements for translation students. This study will be introduced in the next part of this section.

2.3 The EGPS Project

The European Graduate Placement Scheme (EGPS) project (2012–2015) was funded by the Erasmus strand of the European Commission's Lifelong Learning Programme. Its overall goals were to establish a practical and theoretical framework for a work placement scheme for postgraduate translation students in translation service companies, and to facilitate educational synergies between universities and companies across Europe. A key component of the project was the development of a curriculum development model and a plan for incorporating work placements into translation studies curricula. On the basis of curriculum development ideas that emerged during my action research project at ESIT, a curriculum model incorporating internships was to be developed and tested within the scope of the EGPS project. This model was initially designed abductively on the basis of understandings I had drawn from complexity thinking, reflecting a step beyond the still prevalent linear, reductionist view of curriculum towards an emergentist vision that is in tune with state-of-the-art thinking on the nature of learning in our post-modern era. The essence of the proposed innovation might be seen as a transition from a fractured competence perspective to a fractal (self-similar, self-generating and emergent) one.

Competence-based learning is one of the catchphrases that have dominated didactic discourse in a range of educational domains already for a third of a century. Within the field of translation studies, a number of models have been proposed based on the concept of translator or translation competence over the last ten years. These are exemplified by those proposed by Göpferich (2008), the PACTE group (e. g. 2003) and the European Master's in Translation (EMT) Expert Group (2009). Each of these models purports to specify the particular sub-competences that comprise this translator super-competence. From the perspective of the still widespread positivist-reductionist epistemology in the social sciences and education, it might indeed be plausible and sensible to dissect the professional translator's overall competence into its component parts for educational purposes. Reducing the sum (overall translator competence) to its parts (the sub-competencies) would facilitate the process of identifying translation-specific knowledge and skills to be taught in subject-matter courses within a translator-education curriculum, and might also make it easier to measure the degree to which translators-in-training are moving towards the level of expertise, knowledge and skills that professional translators require.

There are, however, several difficulties with this approach. First of all, each of the models referred to above specifies a different set of sub-competences. And in each case, these are depicted in static two-dimensional illustrations that we believe belie the complexity of *competence* and that, lacking as they do the dimension of time, reveal nothing about how a translator's expertise and professional skills might develop through instruction, other types of institutionalized learning and/or experience. The two-dimensional models each include a set of boxes, some of which are contiguous and some of which are linked by arrows. The static boxes in the models, labelled with hypothesized sub-competences, can be seen to suggest a container-like metaphor through which knowledge and skills are seen as discrete products or contents that can be pre-determined, dissected for instructional transmission and covered systematically in focused subject-matter courses.

The reductionist thinking underlying this and other competence-based approaches to curriculum development and instructional design has been described by leading contemporary scholars in educational philosophy as a remnant of the modernist

turn in education and traced back to the industrial efficiency methods initiated by Frederick Taylor in the US at the beginning of the 20th century (see, for example, Davis [2004] and Doll [2008]). Supported by the predominant behaviourist thinking of the day, the efficiency movement had an enormous impact on education throughout the 20th century.[6] The post-positivist translator competence development model developed at the FTSK, which was intended from the beginning as a conceptual tool for bootstrapping much-needed innovation in translator education in the third millennium, is built on an alternative non-reductionist view of translator competence. Rather than seeing competence as discernible **products**, that is, fragmented skills and knowledge that can be accumulated piecemeal in a linear fashion, my model conceptualizes both learning and competence as holistic and autopoietic (dynamic, unpredictable, self-generating and self-maintaining) **processes** in which the whole is far more than, and very different from, the sum of the parts.

It was my conviction as I began working on the EGPS project that it would be an ideal opportunity to experiment with this post-modernist pedagogical epistemology in the context of translator education: an educational domain which, while perhaps not normally considered within the realm of vocational education *per se*, is clearly professional in nature. That is, it has for some time been undergoing constant and rapid change to prepare students to function competently, if not expertly, in our ever-evolving post-industrial economy. To date, the post-industrial workspace has been marked less by the kind of repetitive mechanical tasks that predominated on the assembly line at the turn of the 20th century, and increasingly by networked thinking where teamwork in ever-changing constellations, perpetual problem solving and the dynamic application of continuously changing tools under ever-increasing time pressure. Most translators who, like myself, began working more than 30 years ago will acknowledge the nature of radical changes in the translation profession over this period (Kiraly 2000: 3).

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[6] As William Doll (2008) explains, the roots of Taylorism can be traced back at least to Petrus Ramus, the French humanist and educational reformer who first proposed the concept of 'method' and applied it to curriculum design back in the 16th century.

2.4   The Genesis of a Post-positivist Model of Translator Competence

My initial model, a general post-positivist model of learning in natural (e.g. non-institutional) settings, is depicted in Figure 2a below:
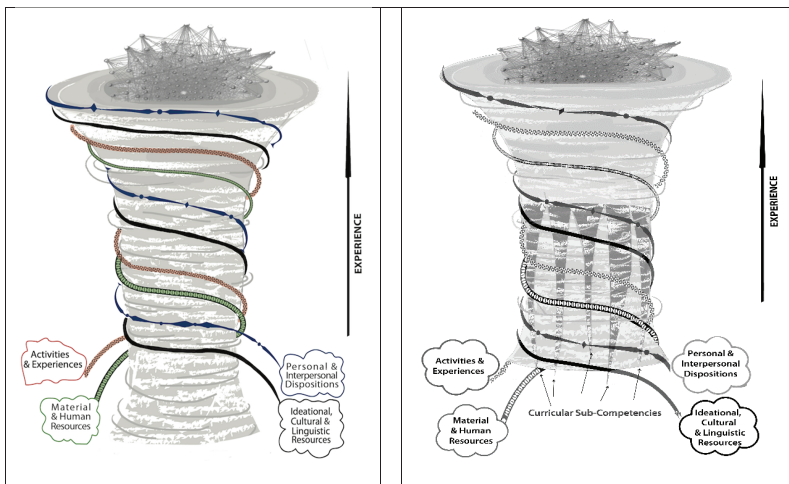

Figure 2a & 2b: A holistic model of learning (left) with a reductionist curriculum added (right)

To reiterate, the model was inspired by complexity thinking, which has come to inform a post-modern understanding of learning as a largely autopoietic (i. e. self-initiating, self-sustaining and perpetually dynamic) process of becoming, rather than a static set of learnable facts and piecemeal skills (Ricca 2012: 33). The model depicts learning metaphorically as a dynamic, perpetually evolving vortex that emerges within an individual in response to that person's interactions with the world through a set of personal and interpersonal dispositions, on the one hand, and affordances on the other, which I have identified and categorized ad hoc in terms of ideational, cultural and linguistic resources, activities and experiences, and material and human resources. In this view, learning cannot be seen as a process of merely receiving knowledge or skills from a teacher or other resource. Instead, the model suggests that individuals interact in myriad ways with a multitude of entities, factors and resources in their environment, and, in so doing –

learn. Instead of accumulating skills and knowledge, we become more skilled and more knowledgeable on the basis of experience with the world.

It is important to remember that this generic model purports to depict learning outside the confines of educational institutions. A prime example of non-institutionalized learning would be the almost universal development of a high degree of communicative competence in the native language by children around the world before they begin to attend school and in the virtually complete absence of any curriculum or instruction (the purported transmission of knowledge) *per se*. Traditional institutionalized learning, on the other hand, most often depends on a piecemeal or reductionist curriculum put in place or developed by an institution's administration with the specific goals of 1) subdividing the overall competence or expertise that pupils or students are expected to acquire during their respective programme of studies and 2) providing modularized teaching activities to ensure that learners accumulate those various sub-competencies and sub-skills. Figure 2b depicts the multiple vortex of a reductionist institutional curriculum superimposed on my proposed holistic model of generic learning. On the basis of the influential competence development model proposed by Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1980) to depict learning in institutional settings, this model depicts a set of sub-competences corresponding to curricular strands that merge into a single holistic vortex as expertise develops.

Figure 3 below depicts the third stage of my model-building efforts. It represents the specific emergent learning model I developed within the context of the EGPS project for translator education and is based on the multiple and holistic vortex models illustrated in Figures 2a and 2b.
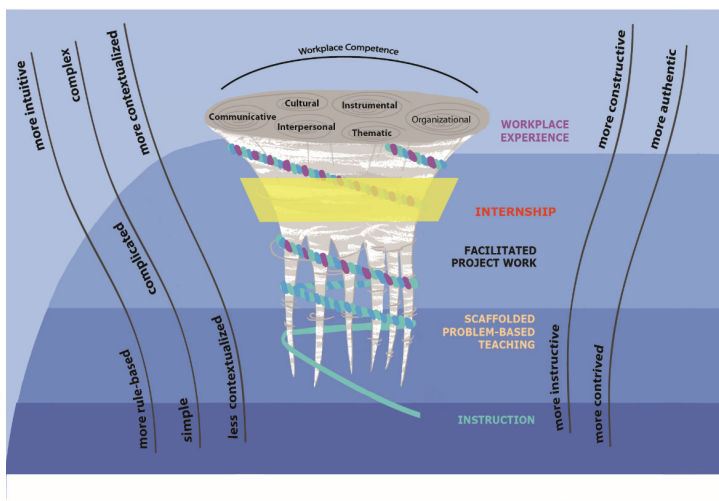
Figure 3: A dynamic, multi-vortex curricular model for translator education

This proposed multiple-to-single progression in fact reflects the virtually universal reductionist understanding of the function of a curriculum. It has been incorporated into this model largely for pragmatic reasons: to reflect the status quo of many if not most contemporary translation studies curricula. Hence, the reader will see that the current model preserves the conventional notion of fragmenting the professional's super-competence into presumably acquirable sub-competencies. This, of course, still begs the question of which particular set of sub-competencies to build into the system and also of what leads to the eventual merging of the sub-competencies into a single super-competence. In my view, the variability in the sub-competencies, which one can see when comparing the various two-dimensional models proposed to date, suggests that these sub-competencies may have more of a heuristic function than an ontological reality. This would mean that different programmes of study in different institutions and countries may well vary considerably in terms of their course offerings, depending on the particular set of sub-competencies adopted in each one. But I hypothesise that once they move beyond the phase transition point, when translation students change over from being largely acquirers of sub-competencies to exercising the integrated competence of (semi-)professional translators, the specific heuristic sub-competences applied in their particular program of studies will turn out to be largely

irrelevant. In my view, it is the translation praxis in which junior translators participate during and following their studies that will allow them to continue to proceed along the lifelong learning process without curricular constraints, thereby relativizing the value and necessity of a particular set of curricular sub-divisions during their studies.

Rather than depicting a linear cause-and-effect relationship between teaching and learning, this model reflects learning as a holistic, emergent, self-perpetuating and embodied lifelong process that proceeds both within the individual and within communities of practice at different levels and in different contexts. Rather than stimulus-response educational inputs and outputs, this model, like the generic ones in Figures 2a and 2b, depends on the affordances that set the stage for emergent learning to take place organically (the affordances have not been depicted in the second model in order to reduce the complexity of the image).

Progression through the programme of studies is portrayed not in conventional, reductionist building-block fashion, but instead in terms of movement from less to more complex. Teacher-centred instruction is employed most extensively at the earliest stages of the programme of studies where students are acquiring basic, relatively simple skills. As they move beyond those basic skills and knowledge, students will be exposed to scaffolded problem-solving activities where they can practice the application of the basic skills they have acquired (and surely continue to acquire) to realistic situations. The final stage of the curriculum involves facilitated project work, where the students tackle authentic projects with the support of facilitators rather than teachers. Course design progresses from more to less contrived; learning proceeds from more conscious to more intuitive; activities proceed from the less contextualized to more contextualized; and didactic style proceeds from more instructive to more constructive and facilitative. The model presented in Figure 3 was an outcome of the EGPS project and also the starting point for another action research project that was initiated at FTSK in 2013–14, when the University offered grants for undertaking research projects for adding distance learning components involving the Moodle platform to our almost exclusively classroom-based curriculum.

2.5 Applying the Vortex Model: A Series of Moodle-based Courses

Within the scope of our Moodle project, each of three colleagues in the English Linguistics Division of the FTSK offered a different Moodle-based course: one designed to cover an introduction to the translator's computer-based tools (which turned out to be taught in a largely transmissionist, i. e. instructional, manner); a second to introduce intermediate BA students to the praxis of translation largely through contrived translation exercises and simulated projects; and a third course, which I offered, in collaborative authentic translation for advanced MA students who were nearing graduation. This initial Moodle project is discussed at length in Kiraly, Rüth and Wiedmann (2016). Of particular importance here were, first of all, the findings of that initial iteration of the project that strongly confirmed the viability of the simple–complicated–complex curricular structure I had observed in my ESIT subtitling course a few years before and that I had incorporated into the curriculum design model I created for the EGPS project. In addition, the success of my own part of that first project in providing students at the most advanced level with tremendous opportunities to develop workplace competence through work on authentic projects supported by a distance-learning platform meant that the course would be incorporated into our departmental curriculum and offered on a regular basis.

2.6 From Vortex to Holon and From Uni-directional to Synergistic Teaching and Learning

The success of that first experimental collaborative course also meant that future iterations would also be available to pursue my action research agenda. It was during the fourth iteration of the Moodle course when Hofmann ran a seminar for graduate students in which the students would participate in the initial development of a 'Translation Agency Simulator'. He has envisaged the simulator as a pedagogical tool to allow teachers to interject problematic situations to challenge students in simulated project classes (the second stage in the curricular model presented in Figure 3). The seminar students observed the work of my translation

students (their translation, glossary-creation and proofreading work) as well as communication with team members, the client and me as the project manager and course facilitator. But they also needed to investigate the work of professional translation service providers.

Through ties (established during the EGPS project) to Medax, a small but very successful Munich-based translation bureau specialized in medical translation, Sascha Hofmann and I arranged to have a Germersheim graduate who was working as an EGPS intern for the company, together with the CEO, visit FTSK to discuss the Medax workflow and to answer questions that were arising within the scope of the Moodle course. The epiphany that occurred to us on the occasion of that one Medax visit was that without a clear plan to do so, we were effectuating a radical change in the conventional conceptualization of professional education at our institution. We had provided basic training to the Medax intern, who had spent six months on a work placement before being taken on as a full-time staff member at Medax. But she returned to Germersheim with her boss to provide the next generation of students with additional training taken directly from their experience in providing translation services to the market. In addition, it quickly became evident during the Medax visit that the students' questions and comments, for example regarding the Medax workflow, which they had been studying all semester long, were perceived by the Medax staff member and CEO as valuable food for thought.

A suitable ideational resource to help explain and justify this new phenomenon we had encountered presented itself in the form of the 'holon', conceived of by Arthur Koestler (1984) and discussed at some length by the American philosopher Ken Wilber (1995) as an aspect of the hierarchy (or *holarchy*) inherent throughout nature. The holon is a theoretical construct representing a whole that hosts other holons and that is part of yet other holons all at the same time. This concept is reminiscent of the geometrical figure of the torus – which has been identified by some as the common representation of self-perpetuating processes in nature at all scales. By seeing the single vortex I proposed in the model in Figure 2a as the central part of a torus, it was possible to envisage learning in terms of a self-perpetuating (autopoietic) entity incorporating a feedback loop. Image 4 is an initial

attempt to depict the new vision of translator education we have begun to investigate further. The smaller holons represent individuals (translators, students and industry mentors). Each is potentially in contact with innumerable similar individuals forming a community of practice. And instead of seeing the educational process merely as the teaching of students by teachers, it suggests that the various groups of stakeholders and the individuals comprising those groups can learn from each other in myriad constellations of symbiotic interaction. The purpose of proposing such a model is to arouse awareness on the part of industry representatives, students and teachers of their interdependence and of the potential of learning on the basis of a far wider range of affordances than lectures and readings. Both industry mentors and university lecturers can see themselves as learners – along with the students – in the process.
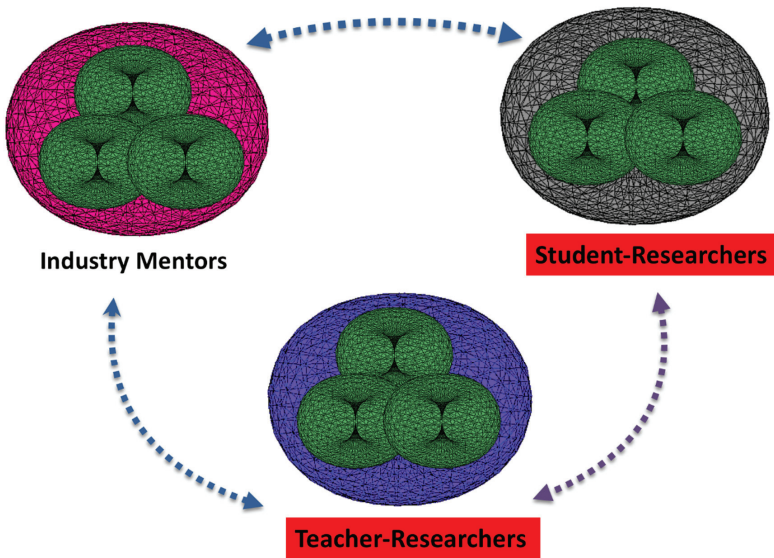

Figure 4: A holarchic representation of co-emergent learning

The findings at each stage of the odyssey I hope to have outlined here have, to my mind, clearly guided my action research process step by unexpected step. This is surely a key advantage of the combination of a social constructivist epistemology,

an integrated abductive research component and an action research methodology for model building in social science domains: the possibility of forging a path for improving educational praxis by observing and reflecting systematically, but with our eyes and ears open for serendipitous encounters and a willingness to incorporate those experiences in the scientific method.

In the next section, Gary Massey will move on to the extensive and multi-facetted research efforts related to translator education that he and his staff have been involved in, particularly over the past decade. Of particular interest, in my view, is the way the mixed-methods research approaches dovetail with my more exclusively interpretivist one. Opportunities for exploiting synergies present themselves at every turn.

3 Co-Emergence and the Continuing Development of Translator Education Programmes and Institutions – Gary Massey

We proceed now to considering the applicability of the emergentist model proposed by Don Kiraly beyond intra-curricular interactions and integrated work placements to curriculum, programme and, ultimately, institutional development. After all, the learning systems that the model seeks to account for are assumed to be fractal, enabling it to "depict learning within an individual, a class session, a group or even a community of practice" (Kiraly 2016: 64). As Kiraly (2012b: 87–88) himself remarks in a previous paper "[t]ranslators […] co-emerge with their fellow learners, their teachers, the institutions they attend and the entire community of translation practice with which and whom they interact […]". It is the co-emergence of learning among teacher-researchers and the organisations they work for that I would like to focus on in this third section of our joint chapter. As in the previous section, this one adopts a primarily narrative structure to reflect the experiential nature of the co-emergent learning systems we have identified, and have been promoting, in our organization.

3.1   From Research to Teaching and Back: The Cycles of Individual and Institutional Learning

It was small-scale didactic studies in process-oriented teaching that first alerted our Institute to the potentiality – and actuality – of co-emergent learning beyond the main target group of the student participants. In those studies, we set out to identify the diagnostic and didactic opportunities presented by the use of process research methods in teaching translation to BA, MA and continuing professional development (CPD) students. In doing so, we were building on various reports of the deployment of process-oriented techniques in translator education to increase students' capacity to reflect on their decisions and actions and to help raise their problem-identification and strategic problem-solving awareness. Methods that have been applied ranged from the use of more established instruments, such as written reflective commentaries, learning journals and integrated diaries (cf. García Álvarez 2007; Bergen 2009; Orlando 2011), to the implementation of more immediate "online" techniques (cf. Dam-Jensen/Heine 2009; Krings 2005), such as spoken monologue, dialogue and collaborative think-aloud reports and protocols (e. g. Kiraly 1995; Kussmaul 1995; House 2000; Pavlovič 2009). Poised between the two is the written integrated problem and decision reporting (IPDR) proposed by Gile (e. g. 2004), which, depending on its particular form of implementation, can have the immediacy of concurrent notation by the student or the 'offline' quality of subsequent introspection (albeit without the use of screen-recorded cues to stimulate recall, as discussed in the next paragraph). In fact, it was Gile's suggestion that IPDR produced learning effects on both students and teachers that provided an important stimulus for our own initiative.

In the event, the techniques we applied made the most of the recent advances in process-data elicitation technologies and methods. Those developments included keystroke logging, screen recording and eye tracking, some of which had already been deployed with success in a variety of pedagogical experiments and settings, often in combination with forms of concurrent verbalization, retrospection, peer evaluation, self-assessment and diagnostic mentoring (e. g. Alves 2005; Hansen 2006; Pym 2009). Screen recordings, in particular, provide a practicable tool to facilitate student exposure to the good and better practices of others, such as those

of professionals (Angelone 2013), and they have been demonstrated to be an effective diagnostic supplement to product-based evaluation (Hofer/Ehrensberger-Dow 2011; Enríquez Raído 2013; Massey/Ehrensberger-Dow 2013). They also appear to have the advantage of greater accuracy over forms of offline written reporting – Angelone (2015), for instance, has noticed a mismatch between content documented in IPDR logs and errors in the product, suggesting that attributes that are truly problematic may go unnoticed; and where assessment is potentially or actually involved, students might also be inclined to falsify reports that are written retrospectively (see Massey 2017). We therefore decided to use the same methods and technologies we have been applying in our own research into laboratory and workplace translation processes and cognitive ergonomics (see Ehrensberger-Dow/Massey 2014), during which participants have remarked on how much they are learning from observing, and retrospectively commenting on, screen recordings of their own translation processes, sometimes overlaid with visualisations of eye-tracking data.

The use of screen recording in teaching was first deployed at our Institute in CPD courses to supplement the more traditional product-based evaluation of the participants' performances (Hofer/Ehrensberger-Dow 2011). On the basis of the greater transparency that access to these processes provided, a pedagogical study was initiated to gauge the potential of applying process-oriented techniques to translation teaching on our MA programme in Professional Translation (Massey/Ehrensberger-Dow 2011, 2012, 2013). To investigate possible learning effects, we tracked MA students' keystrokes, screen activities and eye movements as they translated two texts, one at the beginning and one at the end of the semester, into their L2 (from German into English) and L1 (from English into German) respectively. Immediately after each, we had the participants observe and retrospectively comment on their own processes; they were also asked to comment on the recorded process of one of their peers, randomly selected, and were then interviewed on what they had learned from comparing the peer processes with their own. In the concluding part of the study, the students participated in a questionnaire-based interview on their involvement. But we were also very interested in discovering how the teachers themselves reacted to the process-oriented approach we had adopted, and in ascertaining what they, too, might have learned. So we

had four of them, two specialized in German-English translation and two in English-German translation, view an anonymized selection of student processes in their respective translation version and, while doing so, comment on what they were seeing. They then participated in a semi-structured interview on the various aspects of translation behaviour they had noticed.

The results, reported in detail in Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow (2011, 2012, 2013: 159–164), showed the students to have learned something new from their experiences. Their awareness of their own processes was discriminating and reflective, while they also demonstrated a keen receptiveness to the procedures and strategies of their peers, which was especially evident in the second part of the study at the end of the semester. Overall, the results confirmed and refined those of previous studies. They suggested that the use of screen recording to complement product-oriented teaching with a process-oriented component can and does stimulate self-reflection, increase procedural awareness and support peer learning, at least among the student participants at our Institute.

At the same time, however, there were strong indications that it was not only the students who were learning and developing. There were distinct signs of concomitant learning by the teachers and the institution they worked for. Most obviously, the teachers were gaining new insights into the strengths and needs of their students, both as individuals and as a group. They were able to identify issues related to source-text reception, processing and segmentation, information retrieval and literacy as well as recursive editing and end-revision strategies.

Our Institute was also learning, both about ways in which the curriculum could be adapted to accommodate student needs and about its teachers and their requirements. Thus, the comments elicited from the teachers, both in their verbalizations as they viewed the screen recording and in the final interviews, showed them to have gained new knowledge of the individual behaviour of their students, in particular regarding macro-level phasing and procedures, such as the presence of the orientation phase, information retrieval with external resources, segmentation and the size of translational units, as well as explicitation techniques and revision actions. This indicates that process-oriented methods such as screen recording and observation could serve as a useful diagnostic tool to support product-oriented

teaching and assessment (see below). Yet, compared to those of the students, the teachers' commentaries placed greater emphasis on the source text and emergent target-text products and were more evaluative of the latter than the student participants were, while their interview responses revealed, both implicitly and explicitly, that they had not identified any strategic behaviour on the part of the students. For a programme and Institute director like myself, this suggests strongly that the teachers in question would themselves require more guidance and support in order to accommodate a process-oriented perspective on translator education and relinquish an exclusively product-oriented approach to teaching and assessment. The institution had therefore learned that, in order to implement process-oriented methods across the curriculum, its staff would itself have to learn how to make the most of the opportunities presented by the new techniques.

The decision to operationalize our insights fed into a further cycle of research. In a study aimed at identifying good practices amongst better students and professionals, Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow (2014) have been able to compile a catalogue of indicators for teachers to look out for when guiding their students through the process analyses. These include targeted problem-type identification, problem solving through the consistent deployment of internal (cognitive) resources, the selective use of external resources adequate to the type of problem identified, larger translation segmentation manifest in longer writing bursts, minimal self-revision and reduced multiple tasking to avoid cognitive overload. The research has also shown that even short sequences of recorded or observed processes deliver robust performance measures for quality translation output, which makes it more feasible for hard-pressed teachers to implement such techniques despite time and group-size constraints.

As an immediate consequence of our studies, the decision was taken to record the mandatory aptitude tests taken by all the candidates who apply for a place on our MA. Those tests comprise translation tasks, performed on on-site computers with full internet access, in every language pair and translation direction for which the applicants wish to enrol. The recordings are used both as a supplement to the assessment of the target-text product and in order to advise candidates of how they might improve their performance. Once the products have been assessed and the

results communicated to the applicants, all the candidates are invited to take part in a voluntary counselling session to discuss their target texts and the processes by which these came about. Immediately after every session, each participant is asked to complete an online questionnaire on how useful they found the session to be (Massey/Ehrensberger-Dow 2013: 164–167). At the time of writing this paper, 78 candidates have taken part in these voluntary sessions, with 68 of them returning answers in the questionnaire survey. They could answer four questions using a four-point Likert scale of "strongly agree", "agree", "disagree" and "strongly disagree", with the option of adding comments where they sought fit. On the question of whether they found the overall session useful, all 68 agreed, 66 of them strongly. When asked in greater detail about whether the discussion of the target text had been helpful, all again agreed, 59 of them strongly. We also asked whether they had found the discussion of the process recordings to be helpful: all agreed that it had, 53 of them strongly. Finally, they were asked if they thought it would be worthwhile to discuss recordings in class. Three did not agree, but 65 did, 36 of them strongly. The comments were overwhelmingly positive. They focussed on the added value of process recordings in lending greater depth to the analysis of errors in the product, on raising strategic awareness, on the ability to reflect on one's own decision-making processes and on effective information search and retrieval strategies. On the question of using screen recordings in class to introduce a process-oriented component to teaching, the majority of comments suggested that deploying the method would be very beneficial to learners, for the reasons just mentioned; some respondents also pointed out that one or two such sessions per semester would suffice.

Here again, therefore, learning is not restricted to the applicants alone, with the survey furnishing the Institute with valuable feedback. Moreover, the institutional advisors, of which I am one, have been able to glean a great deal of information from both the survey and the combined discussion of the future students' products and the processes. On exceptional occasions this has led to insufficient grades, awarded on the basis of translation products alone, being reversed – a clear instance of the cycle of action, feedback, reflection and adaptation central to any learning process, be it individual or organizational. By analyzing the products and

processes and then discussing the analyses with the candidates, we have discovered more about their problem-solving repertoires and procedural knowledge, the way they seem to mentally model the source text, how they deploy their cognitive resources, on what and how they conduct their research, how they phase their translations and revise their drafts, the way they manage their desktops and, last but by no means least, how they conceive of translation and the translator's role. The latter provides especially enlightening clues to the theories and ideologies driving the way they have approached their tasks. In a number of cases, those who will later teach the future students are directly involved in the sessions, and are therefore able to use this information once the applicants enter our programme; otherwise the analyses and the insights gained from these sessions can be passed on to other teachers. It is the organization's duty to facilitate the distribution of this knowledge.

3.2 Dissemination and Staff Development

The success of the above-mentioned study and implementations, combined with the perceived necessity to provide training and incentives to deploy process-oriented techniques on a broader front, quickly persuaded the teachers and directors at our Institute to undertake appropriate staff CPD initiatives. We devoted portions of our in-service training provision to CPD workshops designed to disseminate the outcomes of our studies and to explore the feasibility of integrating products and processes in the education and assessment of student translators. Teachers were encouraged to incorporate realistic, small-scale process-oriented components into their courses. Research staff were made available to help design the components, and to support staff in the use of methods to evaluate some of their effects.

Two examples of these teaching projects are reported in Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow (2013: 167–169) and a further one in Massey and Jud (2015). All three were conducted within our BA curriculum in Applied Languages, the first two as part of conventional German-English inverse translation courses for students with L1 German, one for first-level beginners, the other for final-level students, and the third within a final-year subtitling course for students translating

from English into German, their L1. In the conventional translation courses, students were put in pairs and, while one translated a text on a computer, the other observed his/her actions and made notes on a pre-prepared questionnaire; partway through the lesson, they switched roles. All the processes were recorded. Afterwards, they watched the recording in pairs, each commenting on the processes as their peers took notes. They then came together as a class group to discuss their experience. A research assistant was present throughout to help the students with the software, to get them to comment on their processes and to encourage them to participate in a wind-up plenary discussion with the teacher and research assistant. The only difference between the first-level and final-level unit was the time factor – whereas the beginners had a double lesson in which to complete the assignment, the final-year students had only a single one. This gave them less time for the translation – which they were asked to complete at home – and no time at all for the general discussion with the teacher and research assistant.

The results of the evaluation of the student questionnaires were predictably mixed. The quantity and quality of the first-level students' reflective comments indicated a clear benefit from observing themselves at work, suggesting strongly that they had indeed been learning from their own actions and the new procedures they had witnessed. This perception was supported by the informal feedback we received from the participating teacher and research assistant. However, the fourth-level students produced much less convincing results, with far fewer reflective comments that went beyond superficial comparisons of peer and own processes. As teachers and an institution, we had been given a salutary lesson: to plan more carefully and allow enough time for the variety of learning opportunities afforded by the new approach, and to be more coherent in implementing that approach. It is likely, for instance, that these advanced students would have had more to say if more time had been reserved for their process analyses, and may well have reaped more tangible benefits from the final group discussion that had failed to take place. At the same time, the homework exercise did nothing more than reproduce the standard product-oriented approach to which they had been repeatedly exposed – as such, it served no valid purpose within this particular learning scenario. In short, the organization was learning from its mistakes, in a way not unlike the "learning by observation" and "learning by doing" stimulated by process-oriented

teaching itself (Dam-Jensen/Heine 2009) – and, of course, by the experiential learning scenarios described in the second and fourth sections of this chapter.

A similar pattern is evident in the third of our projects. Massey and Jud (2015) report on a study investigating the use of screen recording and eye tracking to teach subtitling. The design involved students translating part of an authentic commissioned translation assignment in a usability lab equipped with an eye-tracking system. Eye tracking was used in order to identify the students' allocation of cognitive resources, indicated by fixation duration at areas of interest (AOIs) (Tangsgaard Hvelplund 2011: 111). In the first phase of the translation task, the students used a master template with pre-set subtitles in the source language; in the second phase they set their own target-text subtitles from the film alone. Two days after the recording, they received individual feedback sessions with two teachers who had previously analysed the translations and processes, just as in the MA aptitude tests. The aim was to raise student awareness of process-analysis and product-analysis techniques in a subtitling environment. The participants then viewed one randomly assigned peer process online, and immediately completed an online questionnaire with open questions about the processes they had observed. As in the questionnaire on the MA aptitude test sessions, they were also requested to answer closed questions on a four-point Likert scale about the usefulness of peer observation and of the feedback session on their own processes, with the option of making additional comments. All the open answers and any added comments were then analyzed and coded for propositional content.

The readers are referred to Massey and Jud (2015) for a detailed presentation and discussion of the results. For present purposes, it is enough to say that the questionnaire-survey results replicate those of previous studies, suggesting positive learning effects from process observation and feedback through self-reflection and awareness raising. This seems especially pronounced when students observe their own processes. Less expected, and therefore more striking from the institutional perspective, is the fact that, when the survey responses were analyzed, the participants appeared to lack the conceptual terminology for process-oriented analysis, and were apt to confuse the process and the product in their answers. We had already noted this phenomenon in the MA aptitude test questionnaires. With

the data from this study now indicating similar issues, we were therefore alerted to another institutional need. We have learned that, if process-oriented teaching is to be successfully implemented, both students and teachers should be empowered to conceptualize the process in terms that are distinct from those conventionally applied to product-oriented didactics and diagnostics.

Another unanticipated result came from the analysis of the eye-tracking data, which clearly showed that across the sample the mean fixation duration, which has been interpreted as an indicator of cognitive load (Tangsgaard Hvelplund 2011: 66–67), was much higher on the spotting navigation bar in the second task phase (when students had no master template to work with) than in any other AOI. At the same time, the coded comment data revealed that just under a quarter of total comments focussed on intermodality (i. e. spotting and image-sound aware-ness), by far the largest category of coded comments, and that two thirds of these contained negative judgements of performance. When the results from these two data sources are triangulated, one reasonable interpretation is that the additional demands of subtitle spotting increased the cognitive load on the students, which impacted adversely on their capacity to address intermodal aspects of the audio-visual translation process. This represents another important lesson for our Insti-tute, which can again learn from its mistakes. The cognitive demands of integrat-ing technological skills and what PACTE (2003) calls the instrumental sub-com-petence into a translator super-competence should not be underestimated, as Kiraly has already intimated in the previous section of this chapter. In particular, teaching intermodal and technology-dependent forms of translation must be very carefully planned and scaffolded to meet target-group needs. It is incumbent on the Institute and its directors to provide the teachers themselves with the necessary framework to enact such measures on the ground in their courses.

3.3 Facilitating Co-emergence to Empower the Learning Organization

Establishing such frameworks is a complex undertaking, requiring an integrated approach to curriculum design and staff CPD within an overarching concept of

organizational development. The institutional structures must be in place to facilitate and incentivize the type of (action) research studies described above, and to allow the results of those studies to feed back into staff development and curriculum design. On the basis of a clearly regulated staff CPD provision and requirement, we have been able to institutionalize regular workshops and exchanges among teachers, module convenors and programme managers, for instance during dedicated in-service training weeks. These are designed both to disseminate the results of our studies and to promote further experimentation and research in innovative didactics and diagnostics. We have also set up training committees composed of teachers and directors to discuss, among other things, the didactic and curricular issues emerging from these CPD sessions and to initiate change wherever this is seen as warranted. For example, as a direct result of our various studies in process-oriented teaching and performance predictors, we are not only introducing process-oriented components to our teaching and assessment at sub-modular level, but we have also redesigned our MA curriculum to re-accommodate specific modules in monolingual writing skills (see Massey/Ehrensberger-Dow 2014).

As already suggested at various points, a key motor of our development cycles is the research undertaken by our teacher-researchers, especially their action-research initiatives (Massey/Jud/Ehrensberger-Dow 2015). Although it has by no means received the attention it deserves, action research has had various proponents in translation studies and translator education (e. g. Kiraly 2000; Cravo/Neves 2007; Hubscher-Davison 2008). The approach has the particular advantage of being able to engage all the participants involved in a practical event, such as a learning project, in an iterative, multi-cyclical process of action, feedback, reflection and adaptation. As such, it has the potential to serve as a tool with which to develop both individual participants and the collective in which they are embedded.

A case in point is presented by Massey and Brändli (2016), who report on a collaborative translation project, commissioned by a real-world client and carried out by a group of our MA students with the aid of a networked translation-memory system. The project was guided by the class teacher, who together with another

researcher and an assistant conducted a concurrent study on the feedback flows and learning effects as the translation project unfolded. Data were collected from the students about how they assessed their own and their peers' competences, about the nature and perceived usefulness of feedback they received and about their experiences during the project, both as learners and as study participants. In addition, the client organization drafted a written report assessing the project and its outcome, and the teacher provided a statement of her own about the project and study, the students' involvement and her own role and individual development as the project progressed.

The results provide indicators of who learns what, where and how. The students' assessment of their own development highlights a perceived improvement in the technological and interpersonal aspects of translation service provision, while they report that feedback seems to have worked best when it was peer-sourced on the process, client- and teacher-sourced on the product, bilateral, dialogical, interactive, unmediated, timely and task-relevant. These findings not only reinforced many insights gained from general pedagogical research on effective feedback (see Wiliam 2010), they also furnish our organization with very practical measures we can introduce to promote more effective feedback flows in future collaborative learning scenarios.

Just as useful from an organizational perspective are the findings suggesting complementary experiential learning effects on the other participants. The teacher explicitly refers to her own technological and didactic learning curve. At the same time, her comments point to the role conflict created by her minimally invasive coaching, which indicates an incompatibility between this form of teaching and her underlying pedagogical epistemology. By participating in this action research study, she has clearly been engaging in the reflective (teaching) practice necessary to maintaining her adaptive expertise. Interestingly, a similar form of cognitive conflict, followed by adaptation, had been revealed in our previous studies on process-oriented teaching, when teachers and their educational managers began to question their own epistemological and pedagogical positions underpinned by normative, product-based methods of teaching and assessment. Realizations of

this sort, embodying as they do the "double-loop" learning by which an organization explores the very norms that govern it, have been a long-standing pillar of organizational learning (e. g. Argyris/Schön 1978).

Less anticipated, but equally gratifying, were the client organization's responses to the project. Beyond their immense satisfaction with the outcome, their assessment of the students' performance demonstrated advanced awareness of key features of the situated activity of translation – notions of stakeholder involvement and interests, distributed cognition and functionalism can all be seen in, or inferred from, the comments that were made. The feedback loops therefore seem to have extended beyond our learning organization to our external partners, suggesting a marked potential for concurrent learning effects on both sides if these can be tied more directly into the action-research process itself.

Our research shows learning to have taken place amongst the various stakeholders of translator education: students, teachers, researchers and the client. All along, our institution has also been learning – from and about the teacher-researchers who work for it, and from and about the students and external stakeholders it services. We can account for this phenomenon simply by scaling Kiraly's model up to the institutional level, where it can effortlessly absorb the organizational perspective, as this section has tried to demonstrate. Indeed, the model is one wholly congruent with classic theories of organizational development and learning, where learning capacity hinges on the capacity of an organization and its members to learn how to learn (e. g. Argyris/Schön 1978). To achieve this, Senge (1999) explains, organizations should provide the frameworks for their members to engage consistently in systems thinking, to develop the personal mastery to commit to lifelong learning, to scrutinize and constantly challenge deeply ingrained mental models, to possess the intrinsic motivation to build shared visions and to learn from one another in teams. In the specific context of professional (translator) education, we must promote individual and organizational learning by developing the fields, traditions and incentives for reflective practice (cf. Schön 1987: 311; Senge 1999: 258–259).

Our Institute has been attempting to do exactly that. More conventional ways of operationalizing institutional feedback and reflection cycles include staff, course

and curriculum evaluations, peer reviewing, sounding boards and graduate career tracking. We have been supplementing these with CPD and curricular development measures to foster co-emergent learning and reflective practice among all the relevant stakeholders in our organization: students, teachers, researchers, directors and external practice partners.

In concrete terms, this has meant devising an organizational development concept centred on low-threshold, efficient CPD opportunities as part of the mandatory requirement that all our full-time academic and teaching staff must do at least four weeks' CPD per year.[7] That concept, together with the regulation that will implement it, is based on the consolidation and development of three broad areas of expertise derived from the *EMT Translator Trainer Profile* (European Commission Directorate-General for Translation 2013): professional translation service provision (corresponding to "field competence" in the EMT profile), didactics (the profile's "instructional", "interpersonal", "organizational" and "assessment" competences) and theoretical field knowledge (represented in the profile as the integration of translation scholarship and research, and subsumed under "instructional competence"). In order to achieve excellence in all three areas, we will be introducing targeted staff CPD for our academic and professional educators, individualized to take account of their specific competence profiles. Measures already initiated, or envisaged in the near future, comprise job shadowing and professional mentorships, including mandatory freelance work for staff without translation experience, as well as the continued expansion of our various forums to promote exchanges between teachers, researchers and professional practitioners. As we have seen, our process-oriented teaching, authentic project work and real-world simulations make for a wealth of learning opportunities, which can easily be used to expose academic staff to the realities of the professional world of translation; and wherever possible, we aim to continue to provide incentives to pursue action research and case studies, ideally with the direct involvement of our client partners. By encouraging team teaching and mutual attendance of modules, we also

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[7] For part-time staff, this is proportionally reduced according to the percentage level of employment laid down in their contracts.

hope to broaden the range of our staff members and thus narrow the divide between theory and practice that besets many translator education institutions.[8] Finally, in order to facilitate and strengthen learning flows and loops between our Institute and professional practice, we are setting up more combined BA, MA and CPD offerings. With this catalogue of measures, we aim to supply the affordances that drive co-emergent learning throughout our organisation and beyond it, to the very community of practice it serves and is served by.

4 Putting Co-emergence into Praxis: The Translation Agency Simulator – Sascha Hofmann

Now that my co-authors, Don Kiraly and Gary Massey, have set the stage for a co-emergent approach to translator education from an educational and institutional perspective, the fourth section of this chapter will take a closer look at the implementation of simulated translation work in translator education. The main question here is: how might we integrate the community of translation practice that Massey discussed and the learning and curricula models proposed by Kiraly into our curricula? One potentially viable answer that translation studies has offered is authentic project work.

4.1 From Authentic Project Work to Simulated Project Work

If we take a look at initiatives throughout the translation studies community, we see that authentic projects are often part of the curricula in translator education programmes (Hansen Schirra/Kiraly 2013). Many of them base their projects on the work of Kiraly (2000), itself derived from social constructivism. And all of them focus on procedures applied in the translation workplace today that are performed between the commission and the delivery of a translation, as described by Gouadec (2007) in his book *Translation as a Profession*. During these procedures

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8   See, for example, Drugan (2013: 38–45) on "the academy-industry divide".

or operations, students or teams of students can be compared to freelance translators or small translation agencies that deliver translations directly to the customer. A recently published example is the collaborative translation project by Massey and Brändli (2016) that was introduced in the previous section. Most of these classroom-based translation bureaus simulate a real translation-agency environment in which real assignments for real customers are undertaken. The International Network of Simulated Translation Bureaus (INSTB) chaired by the Zuyd Hogeschool in Maastricht defines such a bureau as follows: "a translation bureau that is staffed and run by students as a real translation bureau. It is part of the curriculum and earns credit points".[9] Consisting of nine higher education institutions mainly in the Benelux countries and France, the INSTB is at the moment probably one of the largest academic networks that is running authentic project work in a real-life environment and a good example of the operationalization of the concept of authentic project work in translator education.[10]

Most of the other authentic projects, however, face one major problem, which is how to ensure that learners are directly exposed to real market requirements. Leaving the protected learning environment that a higher education institution usually offers students means exposing them to all the risks of a market with its authenticity and chaos. This also applies to the teacher, with the consequence that an error during the translation process will cause real-life problems, which often end up on the teacher's desk and result in extra work. This most certainly puts a lot of pressure on any participant in an authentic project. Furthermore, a certain level of translation proficiency is required to cope with these problems and to be able to produce a high-quality translation that meets industry standards. When we add the necessary high level of self-assessment proficiency to evaluate one's own actions and mistakes, the authentic project sets a high standard for the degree and quality of student participation.

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[9]   See http://www.instb.eu/.

[10]   See, for example, the SkillsLab initiative at the University of Mons led by Carola Henn and Gudrun Vanderbauwhede, a simulated translation agency which was presented at the last two EST conferences. The abstract can be accessed at http://bcom.au.dk/research/conferencesandlectures/est-congress-2016/abstracts/abstract-list/.

It is precisely this high level of proficiency that seems to be one of the problems in the process of translator education. With Kiraly's concept of authentic projects and the ongoing development of his learning model (see Section 2), we have seen considerable effort invested on the authentic project side. If, however, we take a closer look at the stages leading up to this clearly effective phase of translator education, we do not find many documented teaching approaches, except of course for Nord's (1996) 'who will take the next sentence' approach in which a text is translated sentence by sentence, disembedded from the context and the translator's workplace. We do find some "role-model translations", where the students serve as translators, proofreaders or terminologists (see Hofmann 2013: 211), and Krenzler-Behm (2013: 18) describes how an already completed project can be re-enacted. The "In Vivo Translation Course" concept developed by Krüger and Serrano Piqueras (2015), in which Risku's (1998) model of situated translation is put into practice, is an example for this model of project-based pre-authentic learning. As in authentic projects, these researchers at the University of Cologne use a realistic setting while focusing on the translational toolset (TM, terminology and even corpora) in a laboratory setting, with the difference that they do not take on real translation jobs. Another example is the recently published Moodle course project by Kiraly, Wiedmann and Rüth (2016), in which Rüth offered a distance-learning course that leaned towards a high degree of authenticity by simulating a real working environment in the classroom without the stress and time pressure of the real workplace. With these known teaching approaches, we are surely able to offer mixed forms of instructive and constructive teaching within a classroom setting. So why set up a simulator when such projects already exist and are well represented in translator education institutions?

Translator educators would presumably all agree that it is impossible to develop transferable skills and procedural knowledge in translation without working on real translations. Kiraly's dynamic, multi-vortex curricular model for translator education presented in the second section of this chapter introduced a differentiated sequence of increasingly complex and constructive (as opposed to instructive) teaching and learning. According to Kiraly (2016), the exposure to scaffolded problem-solving activities within the context of simulated project work

should be the second phase of learning after the instructive phase at the very beginning of the educational process. If we assume that beginner students receive instruction in basic knowledge about translation, it would appear to be a huge step from this rather simple learning phase to the very complex learning environment involving authentic projects. If we define the translation process as a problem-solving activity, as Massey has earlier in this chapter, and if we want to link this to the concept of deeper learning, as proposed, for example, by the U. S. National Research Council (2012), which suggests that the learning individual should develop transferable knowledge through a high level of authenticity in their academic work, we have to find a more flexible approach to existing teaching techniques.

We can try to achieve this by bringing the focussed, adrenaline-driving and here-and-now urgency of real-life projects into the classroom by designing a simulation tool: the Translation Agency Simulator (TAS). The TAS aims at a full-scale simulation of the translation process as performed in the industry every day, inspired by the 'business translation process' described by Hofmann (2012) and investigated throughout the MEDAX project we read about in the second section of this chapter. Our approach focuses on problem solving, which is undoubtedly one of the very important aspects of Schön's (1987) concept of the reflective practitioner. We hope to integrate the often forgotten problem-setting process and lead the students towards a consolidation of their personal problem-solving strategies. They will be empowered to use new strategies they have not used before.[11] This "process by which we define the decision to be made, the ends to be achieved, the means which may be chosen" (Schön 1987: 40) will be at the focus of attention of this tool for translational problem setting, with which we can situate the problem-setting and problem-solving process in the safe environment of an educational institution. The simulator will be just as powerful as an authentic project but will offer a laboratory environment for immediate problem solving which,

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[11]   The concept of problem solving is also a key concept in translation-process research, especially in the field of think-aloud protocols; see Tirkkonen-Condit and Jääskelainen (2000) or Shreve and Angelone (2010).

unlike a truly authentic, real-time project, can be paused at any time. With reference once again to Schön's concept of problem setting (1987: 40), in which the things that we will attend to will be named and the context will be framed, the advantage is that we can influence the things that are framed, or at least be sure that these things are framed at all. In Schön's (1987: 40) terms: "in real world practice, problems do not present themselves to the practitioner as givens. They must be constructed from the materials of problem situations which are puzzling, troubling, and uncertain". In this way, we are able to get a handle on the 'chaos' that an authentic project has to offer. As a result, we can get our students to reflect in action and on their action, which again represent cornerstones of the reflective practitioner perspective.

Another positive effect in using a tool like the simulator is the possibility of bringing simulation expertise to translator education as a sub-field of translation studies. Bakken, Gould and Kim (1992), who investigated the use of a flight simulator for management training, determined that by giving direct feedback in a protected environment, a simulator makes use of a shortened period of time between the arising of a problem and its resolution, which enhances the learning effect. This concept, which is linked to the work of Kolb (1984) and his concept of experiential learning, suggests that simulating activity can actually intensify the cycle of learning because the challenging situations that are evoked through it can lead to cognitive conflicts, resulting in more rapid changes in the decision-making process (Kolb/Boyatzis/Mainemelis 2001).

In the context of in-class practical work, the major advantage of the simulator concept is the possibility for the facilitator to manipulate the often almost mechanically regular translation process at any time. We no longer have to wait for authentic problems to occur; we can generate them within the process and in accordance with the level of competence of the group or even a single student. By adding the spirit of real-life authenticity but remaining within a protected environment, we can bring the complexity of an authentic project into the classroom and still be independent of market issues like time pressure, cost effectiveness and entrepreneurial success. The TAS can be run much like an airplane simulator, where problems can be initiated while using the device. We are able to pinpoint

problems that can either be linked to missing knowledge that should have been picked up by student by that point of the educational process, or to procedural knowledge that has not yet been learned.

With problem setting and problem solving as key features of the simulator, we must elaborate a set of translation-task-related problems by observing authentic project scenarios. A student in the TAS will be exposed to all sorts of problems from the world of professional translation. We not only have to know which parts of the process work very well, we also have to know which part of the process causes the problems, because we need precisely these problems in order to provoke errors during the translation task. This will then form the basis for manipulating the process within the simulator. Here, the research done, for example, by Ehrensberger-Dow and Massey (2014) and by Massey and Jud (2015) have yielded initial results. But qualitative research work in the community of practice through our industry contacts to MEDAX or the language department of SAP will also enlarge the problem base. Furthermore, we are able to analyze a considerable volume of Moodle-course data and discussions on Slack.[12] If we see the 'problem' as a core concept behind the simulator, we can also extend the search to the heart of translation process research. From the process perspective, it is quite thrilling to imagine that we may be able to manipulate the amount of cognitive load as described by Tansgaard-Hvelplund (2011), or that we could allow the students to subject themselves to certain priming effects that were recently reported on by Bangalore et al. (2016), both with the effect of provoking errors during translation. This possibility of immediately identifying a lack of translation competence is probably one of the most promising advantages the simulator will introduce to the classroom, together with the bringing together of theory and practice.

This form of reflective translation-process problem solving is only possible because we are able to pause the simulator at any point in the translation process chain. When we do pause it, we will be able to identify the specific problem at hand and to reflect on it in an appropriate manner, unlike the situation for existing projects, whether they be authentic or not, which usually do not intentionally take

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[12] Slack is a team communication device that is based on the instant messaging principle. See www.slack.com.

a step back from the process to recover missed learning goals during the performance of the translation task. As a final consequence, this approach could even lead to a return to more basic instruction if a set problem is solved in an inadequate way by a large number of participants.

It is quite obvious that such a complex tool will also require a high level of competence on the part of the teacher, who will need an overt understanding not only of the learning process but also of the process of teaching in a simulated environment. The TAS will require experts in the community of theory and practice to run the tool in an adequate manner. This highly skilled teaching personnel will have to know the entire translation process from top to bottom, have deep insight into the potential problems that can actually arise during the translation process and possess a high level of proficiency in initiating these problems at the right time and with the right emphasis. To achieve this, the interaction between teachers, researchers and practitioners, as Massey and Kiraly have both highlighted in their sections of this chapter, is one of the key requirements for a successful simulator. Only if we can expose our teaching staff to the realities of the professional world of translation will any kind of simulated authentic or authentic project be a feasible teaching technique for translator education. Yet we may also assume that the role of the facilitator will surely be transformed. Until now, the teacher has usually taken on the role of a project manager (Kiraly 2016) or perhaps the customer. With the TAS, this will change as the teacher adopts the role of an operator. The teacher will run the simulator and set problems in certain frames in order for the students to achieve an appropriate level of problem-solving capability.

4.2   The Design of the Translation Agency Simulator

Now that the motivation for designing and implementing the TAS has been outlined, this part will provide some insight into the main design principles of the simulator, focusing on the concept of 'roles' as a core element of the translation process. Evolving from attempts in translator education to distribute different tasks in the process to different groups of students, the simulator was conceptualized on the grounds of a basic organizational understanding of the translation pro-

cess derived from Göpferich's (2008: 1) definition. She divides translation-process research into two main categories. In her view, it can involve either the examination of the translator's mental processes or the analysis of processes and workflows related to translation products. We draw on the concept of the "translation process as a business process" (Hofmann 2012) as the main framework within which the roles of the simulator are set. I will not, at this point, go into too much detail about business processes, which represent an organizational and management approach that emerged originally from the fields of business and economics (cf. Davenport 1993; Hammer/Champy 1993; Becker/Kugeler/Rosemann 2005). Business-process management is a very effective method with many tools for organizing processes. Invented already in the early 1930s, those tools became widely known and commonly used throughout the 1990s as a means of achieving better performance by reorganizing work into processes (Hammer/Champy 1993)[13] rather than single tasks. The business-process approach is probably one of the most common management and organizational concepts in all parts of today's economy and is a basic principle of the ISO 9000 family of quality standards. It also had a major influence on the ISO 15038 and the ISO 17100 standards, in which the organization of the translation task as a service in a process chain is a central issue. The language industry has made extensive use of this organizational concept. Medax, our above-mentioned partner, is one good example, but also companies like Daimler (Mertin 2006) or SAP, whose main product is software for managing businesses in a process organization[14], use business-process-based translation processes. This connection to the community of practice makes it possible for us to use a realistic design for the individual steps that lead to the production of a translation.

Against this theoretical background, we began the design of the Translation Agency Simulator in a seminar attended by MA students at FTSK. We assigned the role of business consultant to the students, whose main task was to analyze

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[13] For further reading on process management, see also Becker, Kugeler and Rosemann (2012).

[14] See www.sap.com.

and design a complete translation process. A starting point for visualizing the process was a value-stream map of the Medax workflow, in which the complete process was recorded from the perspective of the project manager. The value-stream mapping method (cf. Hines/Rich 1997; Rother/Shook 1999) is a very effective tool used in quality management systems, including, for example Lean Management or Six Sigma (Pfeifer et al. 2007), that allows a step-by-step visualization of all the procedures and workflows that have to be implemented in a process in order to produce a product. The result is that the product can take a path through the process, as in a production line[15], which is affected by the many roles involved in the process. In addition to this value-stream map, the students were given the chance to observe a course offered by Kiraly from the consultant's perspective, where the Slack data I mentioned before became a valuable resource. Indeed, the Slack data can in some ways be compared to dialogue think-aloud protocols, with our initial analysis showing that the students exchanged views on process problems having seemingly forgotten about their comments not being private. The discussions yield some rather detailed insights into the process and into many of the problems that can arise in an authentic project. It is too early at this point to publish this data because the final evaluation has not been completed yet, but initial results suggest that they are trustworthy[16] and will deliver considerable qualitative information about the translation process. We have also been able to look at several semesters' worth of Moodle data on authentic projects (mainly run by Kiraly), which have added to our corpus of qualitative process data.

Our initial findings indicate that Medax's value stream and the authentic projects both operated with a role concept that assigned different tasks and workflows to different roles in the translation process. This was not really a surprise because we know from translation research and business-process theory that roles are a key function in every process. As we wanted to use value-stream mapping, it became obvious that a single value-stream map had to be designed for every role

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[15] Here I am referring to the production-line approach for services in business and economics (see Haller 2015: 119).

[16] See Guba and Lincoln (1989).

involved in the translation process. Medax operates with the roles of project manager, translator, translation technologist (CAT), desktop publisher (DTP), proofreader and customer. As this is industry data from only one translation company, we decided to further investigate the roles involved in the translation process. One starting point here was Gouadec (2007), who in his model of translation service provision produced one of the first overviews of the different roles of a translator in a translation process. Although he primarily described the role of the translator, he identified the different "players", as he called them (2007: 55–57), who are involved in the process of translation. A more precise specification of roles appears in chapters 4 and 5 of ISO 17100[17], with project management, translation and revision needed to produce standard-equivalent translations. To those can be added the technologist's role indicated as a service in Appendix E of ISO 17100, though it is not explicitly specified as a role. If we consider the market for language technology tools and their use during translator education and research (cf. Kenny/O'Brien 2006; Christensen/Schjoldager 2010; Ehrensberger-Dow/Massey 2011, 2014), it is quite obvious that the role of technology specialist must also be part of the set needed for a successful translation process. DTP tasks are also described as a value-added service in ISO 17100[18]. Likewise, therefore, the strong bonds between technology and DTP were a reason for us to integrate the DTP tasks in the technologist's role, together with the fact that many DTP features are included in contemporary CAT tools.[19] A similar decision was taken for terminology management, which is also usually embedded in translation technology (cf. Bowker 2002; Hartley 2009; Chan 2015) and requires a high level of technological competence. The importance of terminology for translations in general led to the decision to name the role 'technology and terminology specialist' in the simulator.

Motivated by the business-process perspective on the translation process, we discussed introducing the role of customer to the simulator, which Medax had also

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[17] See ISO 17100, Translation Services – Requirements for translation services (Deutsches Institut für Normung 2015c).

[18] See Deutsches Institut für Normung 2015c: 25.

[19] See www.sdl.com or www.across.net.

defined as part of its processes. We realized that in authentic projects, this role is filtered out by the facilitator, who has direct contact with the customer (see Kiraly's project description in the second section of this chapter), and that direct exposure to the problems that any customer may cause is rarely integrated into in-class simulated projects. Another strong argument for exposing the students to direct customer contact in a simulator setting is that the customer is not only part of ISO 17100 but also, and to a much stronger degree, a key element of the ISO 9000 family of quality standards. In ISO 9001, which defines the minimum requirements of a quality-management system, the customer, and the communication with the customer, are decisive factors for high-quality processes.[20] If we strive for high translation quality, we cannot therefore ignore this role in the simulator. The corollary is obviously that, while we thus relieve the facilitator of this time-consuming work, we also provide students with a basic set of customer-relations competencies to equip them for the authentic project that would follow our simulated TAS courses.

Finally, let us return to the business and economics side of the translation process. Every translation agency, translation service provider and freelance translator needs leadership and management, whether from the head of an agency, the company CEO or simply in the form of freelance entrepreneurship skills. In discussions with the CEO of Medax, we found out that this leadership component is an essential role within the process. In every company, the CEO is responsible for the management, and within this management component, decisions have to be taken that directly affect any employee and can also affect customer relations. From a functional perspective, leadership, planning, organizing, staffing and controlling are the main functions performed by every person who is responsible for processes.[21] These are therefore key functions we need for the simulator. As the

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[20]   Customer satisfaction is key to good quality according to ISO 9001. A whole chapter (7.2.3.) of the standard is dedicated to customer communication (Deutches Institut für Normung 2015a).

[21]   These components can be found in general management theory. See e g. Koch and Schreyögg (2007) or Geiger and Schreyögg (2015).

organizational framework, business-process theory also requires a strategic dimension within every process, in which the planning, organization and steering of the process are managed (cf. Becker/Kugeler/Rosemann 2012). Of course, a lot of these activities are completed as part of the project-manager role, but the strategic aspect of all these functions is at best only partly covered by the facilitator.

As a result of this role definition process, we have been able to define five roles within the TAS that are both of practical relevance and well established in real-life translation processes. These are the:

- project manager
- translator
- terminology/technology specialist
- revisor/quality manager
- CEO and
- customer

These roles serve as the basic foundation of the TAS and will enable us to design adequate value-stream maps, which at the time of writing is the next stage of the project that is being run at FTSK. With the completion of the final process map, we will be able to define a cluster of problems that can be set at each of the separate process steps, as I have already indicated. Future work on the TAS will consist of a detailed categorization of problems into process-relevant error categories to perfect the simulator. On the basis of this theoretical framework, with a role concept that is documented in value-stream maps and a detailed process-oriented problem catalogue, we will then be able to fully launch the TAS and begin to use it in classes.

5 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have attempted to integrate three ostensibly disparate but on a deeper level, thoroughly compatible perspectives on identifying roles for 'emergence' in translator education in the 21st century. From the theoretical framework

for an emergentist view of learning in general and in translator education developed by Kiraly in Section 2, we moved on to Massey's depiction of institutional development as a dynamic, synergistic, holistic (and perhaps even holonic) process involving all of the stakeholders including educational staff, learners, program administrators and the entire community of practice. And in Hofmann's section, we found out about an innovative didactic application of emergence principles that both draws on and contributes to Kiraly's and Massey's contributions. By 'translating' and 'interpreting' our respective methods and theoretical underpinnings, the three of us have found solid common ground that we believe has set the stage for a programme of perpetual innovation in both the theory and praxis of translation. We hope that the abductive approach to hypothesis finding outlined in the second section of the chapter will remain an emblematic feature of synergistic efforts in the future.

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Translation in die B-Sprache: Zur Rolle von Studierenden und Dozierenden

Susanne Hagemann

1 Einleitung

Ausgangspunkt der Überlegungen, die ich hier vorstellen möchte, ist eine Frage, die mich seit einigen Jahren beschäftigt, ohne dass ich bis jetzt eine befriedigende Antwort darauf gefunden hätte: Warum arbeiten Translationsdozierende in Deutschland vorzugsweise in ihre A-Sprache, während Studierende nicht nur aus der B-Sprache in die A-Sprache übersetzen bzw. translatieren[1], sondern auch umgekehrt? Das Spektrum der scheinbar offensichtlichen Antworten reicht von „das haben wir schon immer so gemacht" bis zu „weil sie so am besten die Translate der Studierenden beurteilen können". Aber ein Appell an die Tradition genügt nicht, um eine Praxis zu rechtfertigen; und dass es beim Lehren und Lernen von Translation immer oder auch nur hauptsächlich um eine Beurteilung der Endprodukte aus vorwiegend zielsprachlicher Perspektive gehen sollte, wird keineswegs allgemein akzeptiert. Nun gibt es zwar eine recht umfangreiche Diskussion darüber, was die Translationslehre leisten soll; aber die Translationsrichtung der Dozierenden spielt dabei in der Regel keine Rolle.

Diese Forschungslücke ist umso seltsamer, als Translation in die B-Sprache seit den Neunzigerjahren des 20. Jahrhunderts einige Beachtung findet. Beispielsweise wurde schon sehr früh eine einschlägige Dissertation verfasst (Rydning 1991); um die Jahrhundertwende gab es internationale Konferenzen mit anschließender Veröffentlichung (Grosman et al. 2000, Kelly et al. 2003a), und es wurden

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[1] Zum Terminus *translatieren* s. Vermeer (2006: 19–20, 2008: 1).

Monografien (Beeby 1996, Campbell 1998, Pokorn 2005) und zahlreiche Aufsätze publiziert. Das Thema hat zudem Eingang in translationswissenschaftliche Handbücher gefunden (Shuttleworth/Cowie 1997: 42, Beeby ²2009, Pokorn 2011). Im März 2018 ergab eine Suche nach dem Schlagwort *inversa* bzw. *Hinübersetzung* in der translationswissenschaftlichen Bibliografie *BITRA* 330 Treffer (Franco 2001–18); die *Translation Studies Bibliography* lieferte für das Schlagwort *directionality* 87 Treffer und für das – etwas seltsam formulierte – Schlagwort *other tongue translator/other tongue translation* 33 Treffer (Gambier/van Doorslaer 2004–18). Häufig wird in diesen Publikationen das Dolmetschen behandelt, aber auch das Übersetzen kommt nicht zu kurz: Beispielsweise gibt es sprachenpaarbezogene Lehrbücher, Untersuchungen zur Berufspraxis, theoretische und terminologische Überlegungen und auch etliche Auseinandersetzungen mit didaktischen Aspekten. Bis jetzt habe ich jedoch nur sehr wenige Publikationen gefunden, die mit Bezug auf das Übersetzen – den Bereich Dolmetschen habe ich nicht gesichtet – die traditionelle Richtungswahl der Dozierenden mit einer einigermaßen detaillierten Argumentation infrage stellen, nämlich Kelly (2005: 142–143), Stewart (2008) und Pokorn (2009, 2016: 36–39); die Richtungswahl wurde zudem vor Kurzem bei einem EU-Workshop thematisiert (Groethuysen 2016: 49).

Im Folgenden möchte ich mich mit einer Frage beschäftigen, die meiner ursprünglichen Frage nach dem Warum logisch vorgeordnet ist: Welcher Zusammenhang besteht zwischen pädagogisch-didaktischen Konzepten und der Translationsrichtung der Dozierenden? Mit „pädagogisch-didaktischen Konzepten" meine ich zum einen unser allgemeines Verständnis von Lehr- und Lernprozessen und zum anderen die fachspezifischen, also translationsbezogenen Lernergebnisse sowie die zugehörigen Inhalte, Lehr-/Lernaktivitäten und Prüfungsformen. Anders ausgedrückt, frage ich danach, unter welchen Umständen es sinnvoll ist, dass Dozierende in ihre A-Sprache arbeiten, unter welchen die Translationsrichtung der Dozierenden keine Rolle spielt und unter welchen vielleicht die Richtung in die B-Sprache günstig sein könnte. Bei der Analyse kommt es mir nicht nur auf die Perspektive der Dozierenden an, sondern vor allem auch auf die der Studierenden – also darauf, welche Vor- und Nachteile die Richtungswahl der Dozierenden für sie hat.