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Learning to Bridge the Divide: Integrating Teacher and Organizational Development in Translator Education

Abstract
Translation pedagogy has evolved into a new sub-discipline of translation studies, but the focus has been almost exclusively on student competences and their development rather than on those actually doing the teaching. The multiple challenges presented by technology, digitalization and socio-ethical concerns have been lending increased impetus to diversifying the roles and working contexts in which translators pursue their vocation, calling for a review of translators' roles and competences and a re-orientation of translator education. Yet, the concomitant need to model the competences and development of those educating the future professionals has received far less attention. After considering current and future challenges in translation practice and teaching, the present paper focuses on a use case from the author's institution to propose an integrated approach to teacher competence development, framed by influential approaches to organizational learning and operationalized in a situated, localized directive which set out to make efficient and effective use of available resources as key affordances in teacher development. These include participatory action research and experiential learning measures designed to promote and incentivize reflective practice, innovation and thus bridge the much-cited divide between professional vocational training and the academic objectives of translation theory and research.

Keywords
translator education, translator competence, translation teacher competence, translation teacher profiles, organizational learning

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1. Introduction

Over a number of decades, translation pedagogy has evolved into a "new sub-discipline" (Piotrowska and Tyupa 2014) of translation studies and has been a constant feature of its applied branch since the inception of the discipline (Holmes 1972/2004: 180-192). According to Colina (2003: 3-6), it is even embraced by its pure theoretical and descriptive branches.

However, it is fair to say that the focus of translation pedagogy has been almost exclusively on student competences and their development rather than on those who actually teach (Kelly 2005, 2008; Way 2020). More than a decade ago, Kelly (2008: 99) asserted that, although there had been a substantial body of work on teaching translation per se, "little has been said about students [and] even less has been said about teachers or trainers". Recent research conducted in the *Translation Studies Bibliography* (TSB) database reveals that, in the case of the teachers, little appears to have changed in the intervening decade (Massey 2019c). It is a situation that contrasts starkly, for example, with the strong tradition of published research in language teacher competence and education (e.g. Esteve 2019). The clear deficit in applied research into the performance, training, education and development of translation teachers has been identified by a small number of scholars such as Way (2020: 191), who sees such work as a "vital avenue for the future". The fact that a recent special issue of *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer* (Ehrensberger-Dow, Massey and Kiraly 2019) was devoted to training the translator trainers stresses the growing feeling that the subject deserves far more attention than it has so far received.

Handbooks and other resources for translation teaching and learning aimed at students, practitioners, teachers, and/or curriculum designers have long existed, and the many research publications on translator competence development and pedagogy may occasionally also consider the implications for teacher training. But few publications engage teachers in sustained reflection on their own development and there are even fewer that present practices, models or research concerning the nature of translation teacher competences themselves and how these might develop (Massey 2019).

This is certainly not to say that translation teachers do not receive any training in didactics or in the specialised domains in which they teach, nor that they have no exposure to the professional contexts for which they educate their students. Many translation teachers are or have been working

actively as professional translators on the market, and, of course, there can be no doubt that translation teacher training does take place in either generic or specialized teacher education courses. However, next to no research exists on what is taught to, and learned by, translation teachers in the course of their careers in higher education, where this is done, and how. Nor is it at all clear if and how models of translation teacher competence and its development are guiding the training that is being done. What the little research and few reports that are available demonstrate is that the availability and compulsoriness of training courses and programmes are closely related to institutional, local or national regulations and contexts, and that such offerings are not necessarily systematic or explicitly oriented on models of competence and its development in the way that we have come to expect of translator education programmes (Massey 2019c).

This can be illustrated by a brief consideration of published accounts of translation teacher training initiatives over the last twenty years. The first can be traced back to reports from the early 2000s, when Pym (2001) describes the implementation of three translation teacher training programmes in 2001 (at the University of Rennes, the Universitat Rovira i Virgili in Tarragona and the Monterey Institute of International Studies). The initiatives covered two principal areas of what would feature in later translation trainer competence models, namely professional practice and teaching skills. Translation studies itself was not a focal point of the above programmes, which suggests that there was an implicit assumption that teachers in tertiary institutions already possessed the necessary academic knowledge and research skills. This, however, was not universally the case. Local conditions and needs could vary. At around the same time in Stockholm, for instance, a teaching training course was developed and offered which focussed on translation theory (Englund Dimitrova 2002) to cater for the university language teachers and professional translators who were teaching translation there and who had little or no notion of translation studies.

Moving on from the initiatives and offerings mentioned by Pym (2001), Kelly (2005: 150-156) lists the EST and IATIS training committees, the then recently established Certificate in Collaborative Translation Teaching (CCTT) and other translation teacher training events, consortia and resources. Almost without exception, these are now obsolete. It is therefore not at all unjustified for her (Kelly 2008: 115) to bemoan the almost total lack of systematic training for translation teachers just three years later.

In the intervening decade or more, very little has changed, though there are promising signs that the issue is slowly being taken up again. Poor enrolments ensured that the Postgraduate Diploma in Translation and Interpreting Pedagogy launched by Macquarie University in Sydney in 2011 was short-lived, but a postgraduate course in the pedagogy of translating and interpreting is still currently being offered at RMIT University in Melbourne. There are also a number of local events that have been sporadically organized by the CIUTI training committee and, most recently, the EMT, whose regional #TranslatingEurope workshops in member institutions are aimed in large part at translation teachers. The biennial seminars for translator trainers organized by the Kraków- based Consortium for Translation Education Research (CTER) are another laudable attempt to provide training for teachers in new approaches to translation pedagogy. All in all, however, teacher education and development in the specific area of translation pedagogy has been, and continues to be, a rather neglected field.

The state of affairs is all the more surprising as, fuelled in large part by the technological challenges of neural machine translation and other innovations, there are growing calls to re-position the (human) translation profession, re-evaluate self-concepts, review competence profiles and re-conceive the education that is being offered to translation students (e.g. Katan 2016; Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow 2017; Massey and Wieder 2019). Yet, the concomitant need, expressed by Kelly (2008: 118) and others (e.g. Massey 2019c), to model the competences and development of those actually educating the future professionals seems to have attracted virtually no attention at all – with the notable, but now largely invisible, exceptions of Kelly's own (2005: 150-151, 2008: 105-106) heuristic multi-component profile and the later EMT translator trainer profile (European Commission Directorate-General for Translation 2013).

It is with this in mind that the present article considers the fragmented attempts that have been made to define and model translation teacher competence and its development, and the way in which the current and future challenges facing translation graduates – and by extension their teachers – could and should provide the catalyst for a systematic, organizationally embedded approach to the issue. On the basis of a use case from the author's institution, it will then outline an integrated approach to teacher competence development. This is centred on a scalable or fractal emergentist model of expertise development, framed by influential approaches to organizational

learning and operationalized by learning measures, including action research initiatives, designed to incentivize reflective practice, theoretical knowledge-building and familiarity with the demands and directions of professional translation in the real world.

2. Addressing the challenges for translators and their teachers

The plethora of domains, modes and media in which translators have been working for more than two decades (cf. Gouadec 2010) indicate the continuous and broadening intraprofessional diversification that characterizes the translation profession. Salient examples are presented by two handbooks published at the end of last year, the *Bloomsbury Companion to Language Industry Studies* (Angelone, Ehrensberger-Dow and Massey 2020) and the *Routledge Handbook of Translation and Technology* (O'Hagan 2020), which reflect the expanding diversity of activities, roles and responsibilities of modern translators. Localization, transcreation, multimodal and audiovisual translation, user-centred translation, accessible barrier-free communication, revision, pre-editing, post-editing, terminological services, linguistic intercultural mediation, public service translation as well as language and communication consultancy are just some of the areas covered by the volumes.

The multiple challenges presented by technology and digitalization, on the one hand, and by socio-ethical concerns surrounding migration, inclusion and accessibility, on the other, have been lending increased impetus to diversifying the roles and working contexts in which translators (and interpreters) pursue their vocation. To keep in step, translator (and interpreter) education has to remain relevant and produce graduates able to develop the adaptive expertise and role flexibility to meet real-world needs in diverse contexts of work.

It was against this background that a survey was carried out in spring 2018 on behalf of the *Conférence internationale permanente d'instituts universitaires de traducteurs et interprètes* (CIUTI)[1]. Its general objective was to address key factors likely to affect graduate employment and working conditions in order to establish concrete strategic orientation points to help guide CIUTI members forward in developing curricula and the competences of their students and teaching staff. The overall response rate to the survey

was 56% (twenty-seven of the forty-eight institutions requested to participate). CIUTI is an organization spread across the globe, but there was a clear concentration on Europe and West Asia amongst respondents to the survey. The latter region was by and far the best represented, with twenty-one of thirty-nine institutions from the region taking part (a 54% response rate), followed by East Asia and Australia (four of seven institutions, a 57% regional response rate) and North America (with a 100% response rate from its two CIUTI institutions). The survey results are reported in greater detail in Massey (forthcoming).

Respondents were asked to indicate on a four-point Likert scale the degree (high, medium, low, none) to which the following items posed a challenge to their graduates currently (i.e. in 2018) and in future: pricing and income pressures, competition from abroad, under-qualified competition, technological developments, diversity of work contexts, diversity of roles, range of competences, quality demands, productivity demands, availability demands and other items. Response were coded and aggregated to generate quantitative results for each question and item.

In the case of both current and future challenges, price and income, followed by productivity, ranked first and second respectively. The results also showed that the greatest comparative increases in perceived current and future challenges were recorded for technological developments, range of competences, diversity of work context and diversity of roles.

Participants were encouraged to make optional comments to provide more information on their responses. These indicated that perceived technological challenges were clustered around neural machine translation (NMT), post-editing and machine translation (MT) literacy. Regarding the range of competences required, the respondents foregrounded evaluative competence, adaptivity, creativity, consultancy skills and management competence. On work-context diversity, participants highlighted the broader portfolios of larger language service providers (LSPs) demanding more competences of their translators, as well as the need to work in more diverse paraprofessional and interprofessional contexts. Lastly, the role-diversity descriptors spanned data scientist, computer linguist, MT evaluator, premium translator,

1 The questionnaire and full survey results can be accessed by CIUTI members at <https:// www.ciuti.org/education-training/questionnaire2018/>.

intercultural mediator, interprofessional collaborator and language consultant or adviser.

The many tasks and activities undertaken by translators have been recognized in more recent frameworks and profiles for translation competence. The latest competence framework the European Master's in Translation (EMT) network (EMT Board 2017) has, for instance, integrated some of the added value services listed separately in the informative annex F to International Standard ISO 17100:2015 (2015: 18), such as transcreation and post-editing MT output. Post-editing, in fact, is a prime example of how the process of intraprofessional diversification takes root. Evolving from an added value service, it has now received its own dedicated international standard setting out the tasks, competences, qualifications and requirements of post editors, ISO 18587:2017 (2017: 6-8). Building on this, Nitzke, Hansen-Schirra and Canfora (2019) have developed a dedicated competence model for post- editors.

The growing diversity of intraprofessional and interprofessional roles and competences strongly suggests that those who are teaching translation must necessarily also possess a congruent practical and didactic skill-sets to adequately educate students in a way that prepares them for the work translators do. The dynamic quality of the roles, demands and needs of the translation profession means that the teachers' competences must constantly evolve to keep pace. This is made all the more necessary by the socio-cognitive complexity of translation in the socio-technical environments where it takes place.

2.1 Evolving concepts and models of translator competence

That complexity was first recognized in the multi-componential models of translation or translator competence that began to emerge at the start of this century. They were based largely on the cognitive research into the way translators work initiated by Krings's (1986) ground-breaking study of what goes on in the minds of translators. Leading research-oriented models that resulted were those of the PACTE group (Hurtado Albir 2017; PACTE 2003) and Göpferich (2008: 155-157; 2009), supplemented by heuristic profiles based on the professional experience and intuitions of scholars, teachers and practitioners (e.g. EMT Expert Group 2009; EN 15038:2006; Kelly 2007).

It was on these foundations that insights from second- generation cognitive science and complexity theory fed into an emerging cognitive

translatology paradigm (cf. Muñoz Martín 2010a, 2010b, 2016) that extended the scope of translator competence to the complex interactions taking place within the socio-technical environment in which translation is performed. The inspiration behind cognitive translatology are models that postulate human cognition as extending to individuals' physical and social situation (Clark and Chalmers 1998) and that present cognition as embodied, embedded, extended and enacted (4E cognition), such as in Hutchins' (2010) cognitive ecology theory, or, like Wheeler (2005), explicitly add an affective dimension (4EA cognition). From such a perspective, translation can be regarded as a complex situated activity "done not solely by the mind, but by complex systems. These systems include people, their specific social and physical environments and all their cultural artefacts" (Risku 2010: 103; see also Risku 2002: 529). Translators reconfigure their cognitive space by shifting parts of the cognitive process to bodily movements, to interaction with artefacts, such as the technologies they use (O'Brien 2012; Pym 2011), and to the actual spatial organization of the workplace (Risku 2014: 349).

Inevitably, the widening perception of what constitutes cognition in translation has had an impact on evolving translator competence models. A case in point is the newest EMT competence framework (EMT Board 2017). Of the thirty-five competence descriptors it contains, the fifteen are given over to personal, interpersonal and service provision competence and six to technological competence, while there are (only) fourteen for translation per se. Thus, the framework is explicitly acknowledging the importance of the socio-technical, socio-cognitive environment in which translators work. This contrasts quite markedly with PACTE's (2003) earlier cognitive model. The research group's modelling of translation competence as "the underlying system of knowledge needed to translate" and consisting of "the ability to carry out the transfer process from the comprehension of the source text to the re-expression of the target text, taking into account the purpose of the translation and the characteristics of the target text readers", comprised five sub-competencies (bilingual, extra- linguistic, knowledge about translation, instrumental and strategic) underlain by the activation of a series of psycho-physiological mechanisms (PACTE 2003: 58). It was a conceptualization of translator competence narrowly focused on translation as a cognitive act largely detached from the environment in which it takes place, which has now been broadly superseded by current situated 4E(A) approaches.

2.2 *Researching and modelling translation teacher competence*

The fundamental apprehension that translators' cognition is essentially situated is based on a considerable and growing body of disciplinary and interdisciplinary empirical research. That research, in turn, has informed the evolution of translator competence models. However, no such evolution has taken place in profiling translation teacher competence. Almost exclusively, empirical research on translation didactics has concentrated on developing student competences. As Massey (2019c) points out, translation teachers' roles and development as reflective practitioners and learners have not been systematically subject to empirical research. There are exceptions, however. Some studies have explored teachers' beliefs about specific aspects of teaching and student competence development. Pinto and Sales (2008) survey translation trainers in Spain about the state of students' information literacy skills and how important they felt it was to develop them. Haro-Soler (2017) presents a qualitative focus-group study of Spanish translation teachers' perceptions of how to enhance student self- efficacy, which she compares and contrasts with results from a previous study of student perceptions. Haro-Soler and Kiraly (2019) have undertaken a qualitative research project into students' self- efficacy beliefs, with students and teacher-researchers involved collaboratively to produce the research. In a Chinese study, Li (2018) reveals a mismatch between teachers' constructivist educational beliefs and students' behaviourist alignment.

Adopting an action-research approach, Hubscher-Davidson (2008) uses questionnaires and classroom video recordings to reveal both students' and teachers' perspectives on group work, and concludes that the action research is itself a viable tool for the development of reflective praxis amongst both students and teachers. Similarly, Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow (2013) and Massey and Brändli (2019) highlight the potential of action research for self-reflection and self-development when reporting on case studies investigating the learning effects of process-oriented translation teaching and authentic collaborative experiential learning. Their results indicate that the factors inhibiting the performance of teachers include epistemologies and role conceptions, which, they suggest, could be overcome by teachers engaging in the reflective practice that action research can engender. They also signal the need for a more holistic approach to modelling, structuring

and implementing competence development that encompasses students, teachers and the institutions in which they learn and teach.

Kelly (2008: 115-119) presents the results of a local needs analysis among translation teachers in Spain. She concludes that her online questionnaire could and should also be used in other local and national contexts, given that "one size does not fit all, and tailor-made staff development courses and actions with specific intended outcomes will be required in each individual training context" (Kelly 2008: 118). Situatedness is thus central to her judgement that "research into teacher training in general has suggested that the closer the training is to the trainer's actual context, the better" (Kelly 2008: 117).

Li and Zhang's (2011) research does just that. Analysing data from interviews with PhD students and doctoral programmes in Hong Kong, they identify an excessive emphasis on research and translation studies to the detriment of professional translation knowledge, practical translation skills and teacher training among these prospective translation teachers. In a similarly localized context, Pavlović and Antunović's (2019) questionnaire study compares professional and educational perspectives on teacher competence in the Croatian translation market. Despite results revealing deep contrasts between the professional translator's higher rating of translation-related skills and the stress the teachers place on teaching skills and course design, both groups do agree on how relevant the core competences are in the translator trainer profile developed by the EMT (European Commission Directorate- General for Translation 2013).

That profile is only one of two that have been published to reach a wider audience. The other is what appears to be its direct predecessor, Kelly's (2005: 150-151) "tentative description" (2005: 155) of a competence profile for translation trainers, re-iterated in almost identical form in a later publication (Kelly 2008: 105-106). There are clear connections between Kelly's profile and the later one, to which she contributed and in which her work is directly cited. Kelly's original multi-componential profile covers three principal areas of expertise: professional translation practice, the academic discipline of translation studies and teaching skills. She considers the first two to be essential prerequisites for teachers, but gives most prominence to the third, which she breaks down into five sub- competences. The first is the organizational, which comprises the design, application, and management of courses, activities and assessment. The second is the interpersonal, which

involves the ability to work collaboratively with students and other teachers and to act as a mentor. The third is the instructional, covering on the role of the teacher as a communicator and negotiator (the ability to present and explain content clearly, to stimulate discussion and reflection and to motivate). The fourth sub-competence is the contextual or professional, which requires understanding the local, national and international educational context in which training occurs as well as the teaching profession as a whole. The fifth is the instrumental sub-competence, made up of knowledge of teaching resources and the ability to apply them "appropriately and usefully" (Kelly 2005: 151) to the teaching process. Kelly (2008) later re-emphasizes the centrality of teaching skills, and that both professional translation practice and knowledge of the academic discipline of translation studies "are a little like the language competence one expects of a professional translator, in that they constitute prerequisites rather than the central competence we are interested in" (Kelly 2008: 105).

But this does not necessarily apply in all situations. For example, Gouadec (2010: 366), another contributor to the 2013 EMT profile, points to the urgent need of "staff whose teaching and practice is based on both their ability to reflect on their subject and on their own professional competence in the field". Teachers need to "have all the necessary academic accomplishments as well as a perfect knowledge of . . . the translation industry. Each trainer must therefore be perfectly at home on both sides of the fence". The divide between vocational training and the academic objectives of theory and research remains a fundamental "dichotomy" in translator education (Orlando 2016: 48, 39-54), with numerous translator education institutes still predominantly staffed by a mixture of academics, on the one hand, and practitioners, on the other.

Notwithstanding Kelly's groundwork, it is the EMT trainer profile (European Commission Directorate-General for Translation 2013) that has been the more widely disseminated model of translation teacher competence. Having said that, the fact that is no longer available on the EMT website speaks volumes about the lack of due weight given to translation teacher competence and development in the current climate.

The profile adopts three of Kelly's principal pedagogic sub-competences, the organizational, the interpersonal and the instructional. The other two, the contextual or professional and the instrumental, are subsumed loosely under the instructional competence, which also comprises the

incorporation of relevant translation studies scholarship and research into lesson design and delivery. It upgrades assessment competence (partly covered by Kelly's organizational sub-competence), which it re-defines as the ability both to assess students and to evaluate (and adapt) a curriculum, syllabus or lesson "as a self-reflective practitioner" (European Commission Directorate-General for Translation 2013: 4). It also adds field competence, which requires teachers to be able to "perform any task assigned to the students to the quality standards required in professional practice", to have detailed knowledge of the professional field and to possess full translation service provision competence (European Commission Directorate- General for Translation 2013: 2-3). This is an evident response to the divide identified by Gouadec (2010) and, subsequently, by Orlando (2016).

The EMT model and its precursor reflect the multiple roles of translation teachers as reflective practitioners with a stake in the professional translation, academic research and higher-education teaching communities. This nexus of skill-sets is concisely conveyed in Orlando's (2016: 81-87) concept of "practisearcher" translator and interpreter trainers. Ideally, these are able to bridge the gap between the vocation and academia by combining experiential translation praxis with theoretical knowledge, professionally oriented research and teaching competence. It is a demanding profile that requires not only a systematic modelling of translation teaching competence, but also the targeted provision of organizational resources to attain its goals.

2.3 Teaching as a situated activity: The importance of resourcing local institutional contexts

In her study of translation teacher needs in Spain, Kelly (2008: 117) emphasizes the need to recognize the situatedness of teacher competence development in local contexts of need. The results of a survey conducted a decade later among university institutes and programmes in the EMT and CIUTI networks (see Massey 2019c: 392–393) suggest the same.

The survey, carried out by the present author in July 2018 in order to find out more about current and planned continuing professional development requirements, measures and needs, reveals that translator education institutions inside and outside Europe have not yet managed to close the divide between professional practice and the theoretical, research-oriented

concerns of academic staff. Forty-one of the ninety-two EMT and CIUTI institutions responded to the call to take part in the survey and answer the questions devoted to translation teacher training, which represents a response rate of 45%. 76% of these institutions reported offering optional courses to their teachers, but only 32% require their permanent translation teaching staff and 24% their non-permanent staff to attend mandatory training courses. The twenty-two institutions that responded to the question about how much time teachers were expected to devote to continuing professional development each year yield an average result of approximately twenty-eight hours per year. If we assume that the remaining nineteen institutions that did not complete this question have no expectations or requirements in this regard, this figure falls to just fifteen hours per year. In either case, these averages do not suggest an especially large investment of time or financial resources in staff training.

When it comes to the actual courses staff are able to attend, 59% of the responding institutions offer courses in general pedagogy and 56% in education technology, but only 33% do so in translation pedagogy per se. Like Kelly (2005), most institutions seem to assume that their teachers are sufficiently familiar with the theoretical aspects of translation and the basic skills needed to translate, because only 20% offer training in translation theory, 12% in linguistics, language theory or communication theory, 17% in domain-specific translation, 12% in general translation and 12% in medium-specific translation such as audio-visual translation. Comparatively more, however, want to keep their teachers in touch with technological developments (63%) and professional developments in the industry (41%). But the institutions that responded to the survey do not appear to be especially satisfied that they are actually covering the needs of their teaching staff. Asked to indicate the degree of need for additional translation teacher training in specific areas on a four-point Likert scale ("high," medium," "low" or "none"), the institutions produced combined responses in the high and medium categories that show 76% expressing a need for translation technology training, 61% for specific translation pedagogy training, 59% for training in education technology, 51% for translation profession or industry training and a rounded 51% for domain-specific language skills.

There is an interesting and somewhat contradictory pattern to these results. While the participating institutions clearly seem to attach considerable importance to practical aspects of professional translation, educational

technologies and approaches specific to developing translation competence, only few of them appear to have a mandatory requirement for continuing professional development and comparatively little staff working time seems to be allocated to it. The necessary organizational frameworks, tools and measures, therefore, do not always seem to be in place to allow the institutional needs to be met. The current broad consensus in translator education is that it must take full account of translation as a situated activity in order that students are able to learn. When it comes to the situated activity of translation teaching, however, the institutions offering it appear to have a fairly large blind spot. They, too, must learn how to develop their teaching staff, and thus themselves as learning organizations.

Like the professional practice of translation, translator education is itself a situated, embedded activity, recognized as such by the near universal emphasis it currently places on authentic experiential learning (e.g. Kiraly and Massey 2019). It follows that teachers must themselves learn in and with their institutional contexts in the same way that students do. This is convincingly demonstrated by the example of Stuart and Hubert Dreyfus's (Dreyfus and Dreyfus 1980; Dreyfus 2004) celebrated heuristic five-stage model of adult skills acquisition, which Berliner (2004: 205-208) is able to map directly to the development of expert teachers through the five incremental stages of novice, advanced beginner, competence, proficiency and expertise. Berliner (2004: 210) concludes on the basis of the research and models he draws on that "propositions about expert teachers [are] similar to propositions about expertise in the general literature on expertise […] there is no basis to believe that there are differences in the sophistication of the cognitive processes used by teachers and experts in other fields".

Chess, medical diagnosis and physics problem solving serve as Berliner's (2004: 210) points of reference for such fields of expertise. To these brief examples we can legitimately add the expert activity of translation. In short, translation teachers require a similar sort of fostering, facilitation and incentivization to develop their competences to that with which they, and the translator education institutions they work for, furnish their students. And as the teachers learn, so, too, does the organization. This is the guiding principle behind the model sketched out in the next section, and behind the use case described after that.

3. The institutional context: Learning in, with and as an organization

In order to illustrate the essential connections between individual and organizational learning, it is necessary to turn to the most fundamental of individual learning cycles, that of experiential learning. Experience has long been recognized as the key to learning and the development of expertise. When introducing their five-stage model, for instance, Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1980: 5) assert that "concrete experience plays a paramount role" in skills acquisition: "skill in its minimal form is produced by following abstract rules, but […] only experience with concrete cases can account for higher levels of performance".

The present author (see also Massey 2017, 2019a, 2019b, 2019c) emphatically shares Kelly's (2005: 48-49) view that it is the experiential learning cycle, first systematically described by Kolb (1984, 2015), that underlies all deep approaches to competence- based learning aimed at the development of expertise. Kolb's model comprises a straightforward four-stage learning cycle in which concrete experience feeds into reflective observation of that experience, the abstract conceptualization learned from the experience and active experimentation in applying what has been learned. As such, it most obviously guides the many authentic experiential learning events that characterize key elements of today's translator education programmes the world over.

When presenting the epistemological origins of his model, Kolb explicitly acknowledges the shaping influence of Lewin's (1946: 38) action-research cycle or spiral: "Today, [Lewin's action- research] methodology forms the cornerstone of most organization development efforts" (Kolb 2015: 9). This is also the inspiration of early organizational learning models (cf. Adelman 1993: 21). Argyris and Schön's (1978) seminal work, *Organizational Learning*, stands firmly in the Lewin social research tradition and is still one of the most frequently cited in the field (Göhlich 2016). It has had a broad impact on organizational learning theory and practice.

Argyris and Schön (1978: 29) place the individual who learns by experience at the centre of organizational learning. They distinguish between "single-loop learning" (O-I), where "individuals respond to error by modifying strategies and assumptions within constant organizational norms", and "double-loop learning" ("O-II"), whereby the individuals undertake

joint inquiry into organizational norms "so as to resolve their inconsistency and make the new norms more effectively realizable". Organizations can only really learn by achieving double-loop learning together with the capacity to self-regulate their learning ("deutero-learning"). Argyris and Schön (1978: 140-141) depict the ultimate goal of double- loop learning as a series of individual learning cycles realized by members of the organizations within a larger cycle representing learning at the organization level. Each cycle, at both the individual and the organizational level, comprises the four stages of discovery, invention, production and generalization. The discovery stage identifies a problem, invention designates the development of a solution, production represents its implementation in action and generalization occurs when conclusions are drawn from reflections about its effects.

Argyris and Schön's O-II model depicts organizational learning through a process of experience and reflection in virtually the same way that individual learning is modelled in the experiential learning cycle. In other words, both models can be viewed not only as mutually interchangeable, but, more importantly, as scalable, capable of moving up and down from the individual to the organizational level and vice versa.

The fractal interconnectedness of organizational and individual experiential learning has also been demonstrated more recently by Smith (2016: 7). For him, "experiential learning forms the basis of knowledge creation and OL [organizational learning] concerns itself with the transformation of this knowledge into an organisational asset. […] Experiential learning is [...] a crucial element of the socially embedded nature of the knowledge asset". Applying metaphors derived from cultivation, Smith (2016: 169-254) proceeds to develop a model (SPADES: Sustainable Pedagogy for Applying and Designing Experiential learning cycles) for planting, nurturing and growing experiential learning communities within organizations. His self-sustaining, self-learning spiral model frames an organizational learning programme based around collaboration and equal participation of all those engaged in the learning processes, teachers and learners alike. It is centred on the social nature of the experiential learning environment, reflected in group dynamics and how individuals relate to one another, build teams and learn collaboratively, and the need for organizations to provide the right support and encouragement to help foster a collaborative experiential learning community. The organization grows those parts that have proved

to be most beneficial, developing the relationship between the individual and the organization through a cyclical process of mentorship between key individuals that act as both mentors and mentees. The experiential learning cycle enters full maturity when the value of knowledge sharing is appreciated and realized by all the individuals and groups across an organization.

Thus, there seems to be almost total congruence between the way individuals learn on the basis of experience and the way that the organizations for and with which they work do the same.

The underlying scalability of the learning process is strongly reminiscent of Kiraly's (e.g. 2013; 2019; Kiraly, Massey and Hofmann 2018; Kiraly and Hofmann 2019) fractal emergentist model of competence development in translator education. The validity of the model, in which a vortex-like spiral of learning is supported by environmental features or "affordances" (Gibson 1979) that facilitate and incentivize the process, has been supported by a number of studies (e.g. Canfora 2019; Kiraly 2012a, 2012b, 2013; Kiraly, Massey and Hofmann 2018; Massey and Brändli 2019).

The implications are patent. Institutional contexts can offer the ideal environment for integrating student, teacher and organizational development if the right conditions are met and if the necessary affordances are properly targeted. As an illustration, this article now turns to a current use case at the author's home institution.

3.1 Operationalizing teacher development: An institutional use case

As noted above, every institution operates in its own situated environment. It has its specific resources, structures, conditions and needs. But the theory and practice of organizational learning do offer guidance on how an organization and its members can learn and develop.

Garvin, Edmondson and Gino's (2008) toolkit is a familiar example, which we shall briefly outline here. Designed to identify, assess and promote organizational learning, it focuses on three mutually reinforcing building blocks, scalable to any level of an organization. This makes the toolkit particularly adaptable to the matrix structures that predominate in higher education institutions. The first block is a supportive learning environment that encourages members to openly express their opinions, appreciate their

differences, be open to new ideas and reserve enough time for reflection. The second block comprises concrete learning processes and practices that should offer opportunities to experiment, to collect, transfer and share information, and to analyse and discuss issues. There should be systematic opportunities for education and training as well as regular debriefings and post-audits. The third block is a leadership prepared to reinforce learning.

The toolkit serves as a blueprint for how an organization can shape and foster its own capacity to learn. Pre-requisites are a culture, structures and processes that provide a supportive learning environment, that place value on idea sharing, discussion and inclusive participation, and that are led by managers committed to achieving and sustaining those goals.

These elements are key to the organizational and staff development concept at the Zurich University of Applied Science's IUED Institute of Translation and Interpreting, which provides concrete operational means and measures to foster reflective practice, self-development and innovation at all levels of the organization, from the individual to the various instantiations of collective collaboration (working and project groups, teaching sections, various organizational units and committees right up to the overall institute itself). That concept was developed with the full participation of teaching staff via representatives from their organizational units, and implemented at the end of 2019 as a teacher development directive to be applied within the framework of the university's existing cyclical competence-oriented MBO system of annual retrospective assessment and prospective target-setting agreements. A separate, equally participatory project addressed the specific needs of administrative personnel. The implementation of the teaching staff directive was preceded by workshops involving teachers' line managers, who were given the opportunity to test and provide feedback on various drafts of the directive and how it was to be applied within their own organizational units.

The first cycle is being thoroughly evaluated in separate stages. A survey of all teaching staff and a series of individual interviews with all line managers were conducted at the beginning of 2020 to review the weaknesses and strengths of the initial round of target-setting meetings, the result of which will be scrutinized and discussed in a mid-year assembly of all the institute's members. After the assessments and follow-up target setting at the end of 2020, a second survey and interview cycle will take place, combined with focus groups and an institute-wide review.

The centrepiece of the IUED directive is a localized competence profile, loosely modelled on the 2013 EMT trainer profile, that fully recognizes the institutional context in which it is applied and takes as much account as possible of the individual variations in background, experience, skills and competences shown by each member of the teaching staff. It is visualized in Figure 1.

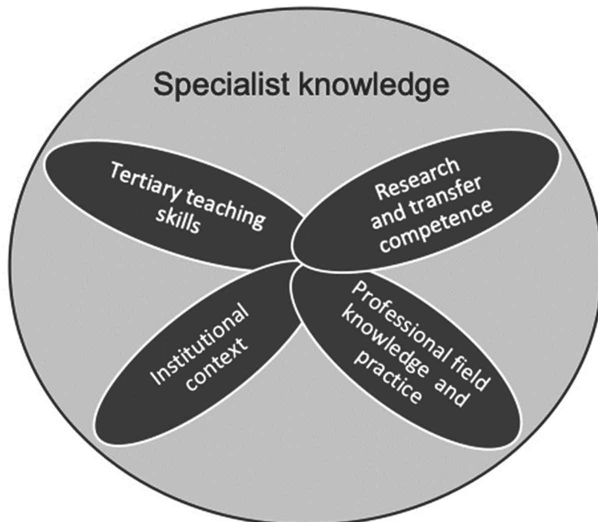

Fig. 1: The IUED teacher competence profile

The visualization is analogous to the petals of a flower seen from above, which attempts to reflect the organic nature of competence growth that we are seeking to achieve. The background, the metaphorical soil in which competence is nurtured, is formed by the specialist knowledge for which each member of the teaching staff was recruited in the first place. Holding that knowledge is naturally considered a pre-requisite, though one that will require continuous updating in the course of the teacher's career. The four petals represent the core elements of teachers' professional development from the IUED's perspective: tertiary teaching skills; knowledge and awareness of the institutional context, including the strategies and policies of the organization, the Canton of Zurich, the Swiss Confederation and, where appropriate and necessary, international arenas such as the European Higher Education Area; knowledge of the professional field in and

for which the students are being taught, and familiarity with its practices; and competence in research, including knowledge of its theoretical tenets, together with the skills to transfer and apply research outcomes both to the professional field and to teaching.

The process of implementation is based on agreement and self-commitment. The teacher and the line manager together first draw up a specification of the former's strengths and needs. On this basis, the two then agree on the developmental targets to be set for the coming year. The attainment of those targets will be discussed and evaluated retrospectively twelve months later, when the cycle is repeated for the following year.

The directive contains an indicative list of possible measures that are aligned with the core elements of the IUED competence profile in order to guide the teacher and line manager in deciding on what developmental targets should be set. These include attendance of courses offered inside and outside the institute to hone teaching or research skills, to update theoretical field knowledge, or to deepen and extend applied practical knowledge in language technologies, language mediation and intercultural communication; active or passive participation in conferences staged by academic and professional associations; job shadowing, team teaching and mentoring in teaching and/or language service provision by more experienced colleagues or external professionals; and practical translation, text-production and revision activities requested by our internal translation service or external clients.

3.2 The added value of action research

One of the main intentions driving the concept and its implementing directive has been to efficiently and effectively use available resources as key affordances for teacher development. One such resource is the curriculum, which offers teachers opportunities to gain experience and knowledge as attendees, mentees and team teachers. The directive therefore embraces a number of measures that tap into this resource (see above).

Another key resource is the student body. Nearly a quarter of a century ago, Davis and Sumara (1997: 110) famously asserted that "The boundaries that currently define […] universities [should] be blurred so that the relations between that which we call 'teaching' and that which we call 'learning' might be better understood as mutually specifying, co-emergent, pervasive

and evolving practices". Since then, the notion of student-staff teaching and learning partnerships (e.g. Bovill, Cook-Sather and Felten 2011; Healey, Bovill, and Jenkins 2015) in which students become co- creators in teaching approaches and curriculum design has been steadily pioneered in multiple disciplines outside translation studies and translator education. In a recent volume (Tong, Standen and Sotiriou 2018) documenting outputs from such a project, the cross- disciplinary R = T (Research equals Teaching) initiative launched at University College London (UCL) as part of the its Connected Curriculum programme, Tong (2018) freely acknowledges that:

> Students have certainly given us, the academics, a wide range of inspiring ideas and views on research-based education through student-staff partnership in the book. Perhaps more importantly, the students have given us an approach to pedagogy: working with them closely as an important part of our development as teachers in a *learning community*. […] Working with students closely in these learning communities for our own development as teachers – asking students to help 'teach' us as a group how to teach […] – can be radical. This involves challenging the very core of the roles of teachers and students, and pushing the frontier of student-staff partnership. (11-12)

Key contributions to that volume focus on the development of egalitarian learning communities (Mathews, Cook-Sather and Healey 2018) or using staff-student research partnerships to engage staff and students holistically in transformational real-world research, praxis and knowledge transfer to the workplace (Clark 2018; Roulston and McCrindle 2018; Naseem and Fleming 2018).

Similar student-staff initiatives are also beginning to take shape in translator education. The research design reported by Haro-Soler and Kiraly (2019; see section 2.2 above) is one notable example. A particularly promising avenue in this regard is offered by action research. Massey (2017, 2019a, 2019b, 2019c) and Massey, Jud and Ehrensberger-Dow (2015) have picked up on the sporadic treatment of action research in translation studies and translator education (e.g. Cravo and Neves 2007; Hubscher-Davidson 2008; Kiraly 2000, 2013; Orlando 2016) to argue that the strategic deployment of participatory action research, especially in conjunction with experiential learning events, holds great potential as a realistic, viable, low-threshold opportunity to promote learning among all the stakeholders (students, teachers and practice partners) at every level of the organization. This is an evident – though chiefly overlooked – point, given that the action research

spiral is demonstrably the origin of the experiential learning cycle, which itself lies at the heart of key organizational learning models.

Action research can be successfully used not only to foster learning among students and their teachers, but also to drive organizational development in its own right; it can even reach beyond the organization to professional practice in such cases where clients are directly involved in learning events (Kiraly, Massey and Hofmann 2018). Course design and curriculum development are obvious areas in which teachers, and through them the educational institutions they are employed by, can themselves learn, by deploying action research to investigate the various scenarios they have set up for their students. But as Kolb (2015: 9) pertinently observes, "the consistent theme in all Lewin's work was his concern for the integration of theory and practice". This suggests that translator education institutions can benefit hugely from the added value of using action research to foster informed, reflective practice and thereby set about bridging the divide between practice and academia that still seems to beset them. Through the systematic promotion of action research initiatives, teacher-researchers, students and, potentially, external practitioners can reflect on their practices by exploring how translation competence can be built and sustained.

Resourcing, however, is central. This is precisely why IUED annually earmarks a pool of supplementary working hours for teachers and researchers in its various organizational units as a stimulus to reflection, evaluation and innovation through action research. It is an investment that, in addition to the standard four working weeks allocated to full-time staff for professional development and a financial allowance to cover course attendance, is demonstrably paying off.

4. Conclusion

In an age characterized by disruption and change in many industries, the language professions in general, and translation in particular, are confronted with major challenges. The growing diversity of intraprofessional and interprofessional roles and competences makes it more necessary than ever for teachers to possess the skill- sets to educate students adequately and properly to succeed in the evolving realities of the job market. The dynamic quality of the roles, demands and needs of the translation profession,

and the socio-cognitive complexity of translation in the socio-technical environments where it takes place, mean that teachers' competences must themselves continuously evolve in order to keep up.

But there is a yawning gap between the modelling and research done on translator competence and on the way students can develop it, and the attention given to translation teachers themselves. Indeed, translation teacher development is a badly neglected field. Teachers' roles and development as reflective practitioners and learners have not been widely modelled, nor have they been significantly exposed to empirical research. The fundamental apprehension that translators' cognition is situated has informed the evolution of empirically validated translator competence models, but no such evolution has taken place in profiling translation teacher competence. The profiles that do exist present a demanding profile that requires systematic modelling of translation teaching competence and channelling organizational resources to achieve its goals.

Like the professional practice of translation, translator education is itself a situated, embedded activity, most obviously seen in the emphasis it places on authentic experiential learning. It follows that teachers must themselves learn in and with their institutional contexts in the same way that students do. To adequately resource and frame the situated activity of translation teaching, the institutions offering it have to learn how to develop their teachers and, in doing so, how to develop themselves as learning organizations. But as the 2018 survey of CIUTI and EMT universities reveals, there appears to be a basic disconnect between the importance that the institutions attach to their teachers' professional development, and the organizational frameworks, tools and measures in place to meet those institutional needs.

Yet, given the fundamental congruence between the way individuals and organizations learn through experience, institutional contexts can offer an ideal environment for integrating a scalable system of student, teacher and organizational development by establishing the right conditions and targeting the necessary affordances. The concepts, toolkits, instruments and measures each institution applies will, of course, depend on particular local situations and needs, which may differ substantially from one institution to another.

The IUED directive and its implementation serve specific institutional needs under local conditions, some of which may or may not be shared with

other institutions. They are, however, guided by sound principles and practices of organizational learning that are valid well beyond the Swiss locale. In setting out to make efficient and effective use of available resources as key affordances in teacher development, the objectives are also likely to strike a chord with other institutions in other regions. The deployment of participatory action research and experiential learning measures to promote and incentivize reflective practice, self-evaluation and innovation provides the added value of bridging the much-cited divide between professional vocational training and the academic objectives of translation theory and research.

The use case described here is just one possible example of how teacher and organizational development can be integrated in translator education. But it does serve to demonstrate the potential that can be tapped if translator education institutions are able to coherently frame, structure, resource and implement the way they and their teachers, together with their students, learn and develop.

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