

***BALANCING EDUCATION, TRAINING AND THE MARKET:
A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF CURRENT CURRICULA
FOR MASTER'S PROGRAMMES IN TRANSLATION
BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CHINESE IN CHINA AND THE UK***

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Thesis submitted to the University of Nottingham

for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

November 2015

Abstract

The global market forces have had a strong influence on Higher Education. Universities worldwide have been largely commercialised. Despite a number of work that has been published on the relationship between universities and the market, limited research has been done in examining and comparing the impact of market forces on the degree courses in different countries, especially in the case of Translation Studies.

The broad aim of this comparative research is to study the differences in curricula and translating programme design between China and the UK within different national traditions in teaching and learning, as well as different global, social and economic contexts. More specifically, it seeks to investigate the impact of the neo-liberal economic globalisation on the HE sectors in both countries, and how their degree courses (including translation programmes) have responded to these market forces driven by the neoliberalism. This study also investigates the design and delivery of translation courses in these two countries from the perspectives of course aims and module content, placing a clear focus on the tensions between education (academia) and training (profession), and intends to establish how the educational content and professional needs are balanced in the curricula of translation programmes.

A major contribution of this thesis is that it is the first study in English to analyse the impact of neoliberalism on the degree courses in Translation Studies, and to employ the tension between educational content and professional needs in the analysis of the current curricula in two different national contexts. It also contributes to the quality assurance of translation programmes, in particular with the integration of standards and benchmarks in the translation profession.

The author's analysis shows that the market forces have placed pressures on the translation programmes in both countries that they need to develop courses to address the needs of employers and students. This finding is further tested by comparing the three selected case programmes in each country and the two collective case studies (the UK and China), and shows that translation programmes in the UK are generally struggling with the balance between theoretical units and professional issues. In China, the MTI programmes have adopted different strategies to design professionally-oriented translation courses due to economic, geographical, and personnel factors. But in both countries, it is common for translation programmes with more resources to have a higher degree of professional issues, whereas other under-funded universities do the opposite.

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, great thanks to my supervisor Associate Professor Maike Oergel who has spent numerous hours reading, reviewing and making suggestions for the improvement of my thesis. I am deeply grateful to her for sensitive, intelligent and above all genuinely guiding me to become an academic. She has been a great supervisor and a role model over the past four years. I am also heartily thankful to Dr Yvonne Lee for her supervision, advice, and constant encouragement throughout this research project.

I would like to acknowledge the studentship provided by the School of Cultures, Languages and Area Studies. It would not be possible for me to finish my PhD without this generous funding. I am deeply indebted to my six interviewees who have provided me with invaluable details for the analysis of the case studies in this thesis.

My sincere thanks go to the staff and fellow students in the Centre for Translation and Comparative Cultural Studies and in the School of Cultures, Languages, and Area Studies, for their constant help, for the feedback on many research papers, and for their friendships. I am also deeply grateful to Dr Yannan Guo, Dr Xiaohui Yuan and Dr Julie King for their supervisions in the early years of my MA and PhD study. It would be remiss of me if I didn't thank Mr David Bowen, Mr Klaus Mundt and Mr Gareth Shaw. Many thanks for their constructive discussions about the thesis, and for their guidance on language issues.

Last but not least, I should like to thank my parents, my fiancé and my friends for their love, understanding and support.

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List of Abbreviations

A (language)	Native Language
ATS	Applied Translation Studies
B (language)	Foreign Language
CAT	Computer-assisted Translation
CATTI	China Accreditation Test for Translators and Interpreters
CBT	Competence-based training
CCNU	Central China Normal University
DGT	European Commission's Directorate General for Translation
DipTrans	Diploma in Translation
EMT	The European Master's in Translation
EU	The European Union
GDUFS	Guangdong University of Foreign Studies
HE	Higher Education
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
IO	International Organisations
KTPs	Knowledge Transfer Partnerships
MA T&I (MATI)	MA Translation and Interpreting (Newcastle)
MATIS	MA Translation and Interpreting Studies (Manchester)
MATS	MA Translation Studies (Leicester)
MTI	Master of Translation and Interpreting
PACTE	Process of Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation
PKU	Peking University
REF	Research Excellence Framework

T&I	Translation and Interpreting
TAC	Translators Association of China
TOT	Training of Trainers
TS	Translation Studies
UN	The United Nations

Introduction

Setting the Scene

The process of globalisation and the intensified international exchanges in the political, economic, and cultural sectors have facilitated the growth of the translation industry worldwide (Tang and Gentzler, 2009). This indicates that far more qualified professional translators are needed to ensure the quality of translations and to help the translation profession to meet the challenges posed by the expanding multilingual environment (EMT Strategy, 2010). Over the last decades, we have also seen an enormous increase in translation programmes around the globe in response to the expansion of the translation industry, including in the UK and China. “Such programmes are largely delivered by universities, and increasingly at postgraduate level” (Shäffner, 2012, p. 37). In this context, questions such as what constitutes reasonable curriculum design, appropriate teaching methods and techniques, and realistic criteria for assessment are taken into consideration by the course designers, with the purpose of designing a well-thought-out system to educate high calibre translators.

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

The global climate of economic neo-liberalism demands that education is economically, professionally, and socially useful beyond developing an individual’s personal knowledge and growth. This, however, brings a tension between education and training, and between its different facets: theory and practice, and research and product. By education, it means academic/liberal arts/whole person/criticality education, which is idea-based. Training refers

to professional training, which is mainly achieved through hands-on skills/competence, as opposed to abstract knowledge. Secondly, theory is an abstraction of reality, and refers to ‘universal’ systems which formulate particulars or disparate data. Practice is the practical activity of translation, and also helps with easier description of the ‘object’ of translation. Research investigates data to formulate theory, and theory results from research. Product here refers to the outputs or impacts which are generated by research. This is a thematic thread running through the whole thesis. Potentially the ‘tension’ is a general question facing higher education institutions (HEIs), and influences the way they teach, and the purpose of research. In our own field, the delivery of pertinent translation programmes has also faced the tensions from both academia and the professional world.

Research Aims and Questions

This thesis is located in the ‘Applied’ branch of Translation Studies, with a particular focus on the analysis of the current curricula for Master’s programmes in Translation (English and Chinese) in China and the UK. The analysis uses case studies to examine how the translation programmes have responded to the tension between academic and profession, and how theoretical units and practical units are balanced in their curriculum content. This project also has some ramifications with the Studies in Higher Education (e.g. education policy), whilst translation constitutes the object of the study.

My key questions are: how has the market impact affected the translation programmes in both countries, and how have the six programmes investigated in this study responded to the tension between education and training, or between theory and practice in the context of neo-liberal economic globalisation? More specifically, what is the relation between educational content (e.g. translation competence, abstract knowledge, criticality, language administration) and market needs (e.g. effective and competent translators, inter-cultural communicators,

competent users of translation technologies, competent language administrators) in curriculum design? How are they calibrated in curriculum design? Answering the questions will provide policy makers and course designers with illuminating examples and guidelines for the curriculum development for translation programmes, and this is the major contribution the study intends to make.

Structure of the Thesis and Content

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

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

international industry needs. These standards, in turn, can become guidelines for the curriculum development for translation programmes worldwide.

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

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

Finally, the concluding remarks review the main research findings in this thesis, clarify the original contribution of the study to the literature, reveal influence and impact of this research to the academic world and beyond, and suggest possible directions for future research.

Chapter 1 Translation Studies in the Higher Education Systems: the UK and China

1.1 Introduction

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

In today's world, however, "modern information technology is spreading information more widely than ever before in history" (Nye, 2004, p. 1). The connections among nations and among industries have been largely increased. The commercialisation of higher education is pushed ahead by governments worldwide (Bok, 2004). As a result, purposes of universities have changed in accordance with the increasingly knowledge-driven economies, indicating that knowledge is required to make its contribution to society. This demands that degree courses need to be developed with the market needs in mind that that they need to ensure a good match between graduates' competences and employers' requirements (Schäffner, 2012). This has also been the case for the translation programmes in both the UK and China.

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

1.2 Abstract and Situation: the Relationship between Academia and Profession

1.2.1 The Roles of Universities in History

In history, academia was rooted in the “liberal arts of the historical trivium and quadrivium of Middle Ages”. The trivium included grammar, logic and rhetoric; whilst the quadrivium consisted of arithmetic, geometry, astronomy and music. This scheme was then developed by the process of Renaissance humanism in the 19th century, leading to a greater emphasis on research than teaching alone (Kearns, 2008, p. 187). The German educationist Wilhelm von Humboldt is a typical representative. University education was thought to foster research-typed talent according to Humboldt (1809; 1990). He also advocated the ideal of combining instruction and research. In short, the ideals of Humboldt formed the basis of our system of higher education. In the 20th century, both teaching and research were emphasised as mass education and innovation are equally important. Humboldt’s idea is crucial to both Western and Eastern modern university education, and he at least suggests that there should be a link between theory and practice. Many other scholars have also expressed opinions on the “roles” of universities. Newman, for example, proposed that the rationale for a university was the provision of a liberal education to contribute to the cultivation of the mind as education is the application of philosophical rationality (Newman, 1927). In other words, the perceived role of

universities in society is as educators in the humanistic tradition (Anderman and Rogers, 2012, p. 65). The essence of their activities, as Duderstadt (2002, p. 5) argues, can be summarised as “critical thinking, moral reasoning and judgement”. This represents education as related to personal achievement, growth and fulfilment and the promotion of education for the social good (Lambert, Parker, and Neary, 2007, p. 526). In short, the university traditionally has focused on the development of individuals. It tended to produce knowledge, to educate the young generations and to spread culture and values, to name but a few goals.

1.2.2 The Changing Roles of Universities under Neoliberalism

The Introduction of Neoliberalism

In the last two decades of the 20th century, however, there have been dramatic changes in the nature of higher education since the arrival of neoliberalism, which first emerged in the 1970s as a new form of managerialism and governmentality¹ (Davies and Bansel, 2007; Manteaw, 2008), and was built on the belief that “market forces will bring prosperity, liberty, democracy and peace to the whole of humankind” (Scholte, 2000, p. 34). As defined by Harvey (2005, p. 2), neoliberalism is “a theory of political economic practices that proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedom and skills within an institutional framework, characterised by strong property rights, free markets and free trade”. This specifies that the key principles of neoliberalism are “market deregulation, state decentralisation, and reduced state intervention into economic affairs in general” (Campbell and Pedersen, 2001, p. 1). Despite criticism, it is acknowledged that neoliberalism has been regarded as the reigning policy framework in contemporary globalisation (Scholte, 2000, p. 35) and still influences today’s political, economic and cultural systems.

¹ According to Manteaw (2008, p. 121), neoliberalism refers to “a blend of corporate managerial styles and government technologies of institutional management”.

Major Changes in the HE Sector Caused by Neoliberalism

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

The application of neoliberalism to the HE sector has three main aspects. Firstly, the traditional view of the HE sector as primarily a public good is transferred to the new view that the HE sector is principally a private good (Jiang, 2005). In particular, the HE sector was largely funded by the state or public authorities, but the neoliberal market-driven strategy has resulted in cuts to public spending on the HE sector by many governments (e.g. the UK; New Zealand; Australia; China). So universities are mainly funded by their direct beneficiaries (students themselves and their future employers) (ibid, 2009), and they need to diversify their revenues by building up partnerships with the business sector, which gives rise to burgeoning relationships between universities and private industry (Lambert, Parker, and Neary, 2007).

Secondly, education is now defined as a tradeable service worldwide. For example, according to a UNESCO estimate, education was a \$2 trillion global ‘industry’ in 2000 (Kathleen, 2006, p. 6). In this sense, the HE sector has become a tradeable commodity in the new borderless HE market in which the student is now the ‘consumer’ or ‘client’, and higher education is the

‘supplier’ or ‘provider’ (Frake, 2008; Jiang, 2009; Jameson *et al.*, 2012). HE, on this account, has become commercialised and commodified. Therefore, higher education nowadays has been metaphorically described as the ‘Tesco’ model of education “where learning is packaged and sold to suit economic need and consumer demand” (Foster, 2002, cited in Jameson *et al.*, 2012, p. 25), and it is more about the development of human resources and economic prosperity (Lambert, Parker, and Neary, 2007, 526).

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

According to Lambert, Parker and Neary (2007, p. 526), the commercialisation and marketization of education is a ‘global’ phenomenon, albeit the effects may display in different ways due to different national educational systems. The HE sectors in both the UK and China², the two subjects of this study, have also been affected by this global economic development in recent years.

The period since the introduction of neoliberal values has witnessed numerous changes to UK universities, including the expansion of higher education as well as the strengthening of the

² This chapter only introduces the effects of neoliberalism on universities in general, and uses the UK and China as examples. Chapter 5 recaps the influences of the neoliberal principles, with a particular focus on the British and Chinese settings.

higher education market in a global context (Krause, 2009). These changes are from many directions. Firstly, “an opening up of the student recruitment market is spiced by a sense of consumerism amongst those who will pay higher fees (or strictly, higher graduate contributions)” (Greenaway and Rudd, 2014, p. 1). Secondly, students request that greater employability skills be taught in academic classroom hours (Atkins, 1999; Boden and Nedeva, 2010; Jameson *et al.*, 2012), which poses tensions between academia and profession, and between theory and practice in many degree programmes. Thirdly and most importantly, in order to maintain the UK HE sector as a byword for excellence in the global market, the HE-Business engagement³ is much enhanced nowadays. This engagement can be explained as a bilateral relationship between the HE sector and the private sector including business and industry. Within this partnership, the HE providers serve as sources of graduate talent, academic expertise, international reach and technology, while companies have the capacity to absorb innovation, to support business growth, trade and inward investment (Rudd, 2013; Greenaway and Rudd, 2014). This HE-Business interface belongs to the wider method of ‘knowledge transfer partnerships (KTPs)’, which refers to a range of activities usually directed at producing practical outcomes, often stemming from research (Schofield, 2011, p. 5). In the UK, knowledge transfer is a growing tendency with regard to the research and impact mission among most universities. This process could mutually benefit both the universities and the business sectors in many ways⁴, but the notion is still controversial among some academics,

³ Some of the information and examples provided for the UK HE-business partnerships (in this chapter and Chapter 5) are summarised from a public lecture on ‘University of Nottingham and China Business Links’ (Rudd, 2013) delivered by the Pro-Vice Chancellor Professor Chris Rudd to the Chevening Young Leaders Programme in July 2013, in which the author worked as the programme assistant. This public lecture describes sustainable partnerships between the HE sector and the private sector in general, and also provides listeners with striking examples of good practice taken by the University of Nottingham. As the University of Nottingham is one of the prestigious Russell Group universities and has been the pioneer in delivering bilateral relationships between the HE and business/industry, the information generated from this lecture merits careful consideration.

⁴ For example, according to Greenaway and Rudd (2014, p. 2), through the HE-Business partnerships, higher education institutions “benefit from brand association which boosts recruitment and can be a useful lever in drawing down competitive public funding. Smaller companies, especially those in the sci-tech domain, have

and it may be too naïve to expect academics fully and suddenly to accept business engagement and innovation due to the longer established research-intensive system, and it could be more difficult for academics working in the Arts and Humanities to build up partnerships with industry and to generate enough impacts on the wider society than for their colleagues in the faculty of science and engineering. In view of all these changes, universities in the UK are becoming practical in terms of knowledge and technology transfer, and economic development and global forces. They are increasingly considered as an instrument to boost economic growth via creating and applying new knowledge.

Since its integration into the world economy, the Chinese government was also emphasised the importance of knowledge in enhancing its economic development and ability to compete in the global economy. Despite the fact that each country might adopt different national policies, similar developments and challenges can be found in China in that the HE sector has also experienced pressures from neo-liberal globalisation. In this sense, policy arrangements should be implemented along market lines, and educational reforms are required to be in line with those in economic sectors to establish close links between education and the market. This has been the most prominent orientation (Yang, 2012). The social and economic impacts of universities are also reinforced by the government, specifying that the optimised higher education structure needs to meet national and regional socioeconomic development needs. These themes have formed the milieu for the reform of China's higher education sector since the 1980s (Jiang, 2005; Mok, 2009; Yang, 2012). As such, a series of reforms and strategies have been adopted in its HE system in response to market forces. First, in order to create more opportunities for access to universities, China has witnessed the expansion of higher education in both student numbers and in the number of Chinese universities since the late 1990s. This

arguably greater need of the facilities and services but fewer resources available to invest in developing relationships and long term projects”.

indicates that a massification of the HE sector in China has been implemented. Another change in Chinese society is the introduction and adoption of a decentralisation policy, which replaces the former ‘centralised’ and ‘state-dominated model’⁵ and gives more authority to local governments in terms of allocating resources, financing higher education, and managing personnel and salaries in universities (Mok, 2001; Mok, 2009; Mok and Ngok, 2001); while the MoE acts as coordinator and mediator. In addition, Chinese HE has also been affected by the “strong tide of marketization and privatisation” (Mok, 2009, p. 290), such as the promotion of private universities run by enterprises, individuals, public organisations, or even Sino-foreign partnerships (Jiang, 2005; Hou, Montgomery, and McDowell, 2010). Furthermore, professional degree courses have also been established and developed in China since the 1990s in order to meet professional requirements in pertinent industries, and then to nurture more application-oriented talents so as to compete with other countries in the global competitive market.

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

⁵ Under the former governing model, the Ministry of Education (MoE) was responsibility for every single step in the process of designing and delivering degree programmes, including curriculum design, student admission, graduate job assignment, budget management, salary scales control, and personnel issues (Mok, 1996).

1.2.3 Balancing Academic and Professional Pedagogies

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

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

In order to bridge this gap and to link degree programmes to employability, one solution could be to establish degree programmes with a professional (vocational) orientation (van der Merwe, McChlery, and Visser, 2013) or work-based-learning programmes (Atkins, 1999; Hills *et al.*, 2003). In this case, course aims, module content and teaching methods may have a clear focus

that fits employers' needs (Boden and Nedeva, 2010), such as the professional degrees (including the MTI Programme) established in China. Moreover, if such professional-oriented courses were accredited or recognised by business and industry (e.g. Accountancy; Banking and Finance), professional associations may have impacts on the design and delivery of relevant programmes in that professional bodies' requirements may be integrated into the curricula to gain accreditation (van der Merwe, McChlery, and Visser, 2014). Work placements may also be provided in such courses with the aim of providing students with useful career insights and workplace awareness by learning of skills which might be useful in the workplace.

Another method is associated with teaching content, which is now required to meet the demands from the market and employers as well as to satisfy students' needs. This could be understood as the 'employability' of graduates, which has become a common aim among governments around the world and has been imposed on national higher education systems (Yorke, 2006, p. 3). Thus, employability-related skills are advocated to be embedded into university curricula. These skills in the context of the HE sector, in this case, include two facets: transferrable or generic skills, and disciplinary knowledge and understanding or subject-related skills. Generic skills, such as communication skills, IT skills, problem-solving skills, interpersonal skills and teamwork, can allow people to succeed in a wide range of different careers, tasks and jobs (Training Agency, 1990; Atkins, 1999). In some domains, employers tend to value generic skills more highly than disciplinary-based understanding and skills (e.g. social work) (Harvey et al., 1997); while in others, disciplinary knowledge and understanding are vital (e.g. computer science) (Yorke, 2006). The ideal case is that the combination of both generic skills and subject-related knowledge could be found in one person, who can "have relevant disciplinary understanding and skills and the 'soft' or generic skills that enable the disciplinary base to be deployed to optimal effect" (ibid, 2006, p. 5). Here it is also important to highlight that due to differences in disciplinary ethos and available resources, policy makers

may adopt different methods to adjust and develop their degree courses. The following discusses how the above discussed skills (both subject-related and transferrable) be applied in the translation subject.

1.2.4 Balancing Academic and Professional Pedagogies in Translation Programmes

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

What the Translation Profession Has to Say⁶

As most translation training programmes claim that the overall objective is to cultivate professional translators, it is rational to acknowledge what the professional standards and demands are. Before taking into consideration market standards in different areas (see Chapter 2), the following three examples of demands expressed by the market may shed some light on the trade-off between academic and professional curriculum content in TS programmes. Firstly, a UK-based company describes the attributes of a perfect translator as follows⁷:

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

⁶ Chapter 2 will discuss more detailed information on market standards for qualified translators and their implications for teaching translation in university-based programmes, from the perspective of the EU, the UK and China.

⁷ This information was acquired from a public lecture delivered by Andrew Schlich, the managing director of AST Language Services Ltd to the taught master students in translation at the University of Nottingham (Schlich, 2013).

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

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

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

It is not easy to include all the professional aspects presented above in a university-based curriculum; however, these three examples still make us aware of the requirements for a range of positions in the translation industry. The above attributes and requirements show that disciplinary knowledge (skills) and transferrable skills are equally important in our field. Firstly, translators (trainee translators) need to know both native and foreign languages at word, grammatical, structural and pragmatic levels, and also have to have transferrable skills between these two languages. Secondly, in addition to language competence, permanent skills such as

how to deal with a translation task, and new skills for a changing market such as post-editing, technical writing or multimedia translation techniques are also vital for a qualified translator. Thirdly, translators and language experts not only deal with translating words, sentences and speeches accurately, but also need to translate underlying cultures. In fact, the lack of cultural awareness and proper ways to address cultural differences will result in unrealistic expectations, frustrations, conflicts and failure in deepening cooperation on trade or bilateral investment, or in establishing a positive diplomatic relationship. Therefore, it is of paramount significance for translators to understand and accept cultural differences, and to have high calibre communication skills when they perform translation or interpreting tasks. Last but not least, interpersonal skills, belonging to the group of generic skills and including how to work in a team and how to build up negotiating and communicating skills between a translator and the client, are also indispensable elements for becoming a competent translator. If translators (trainee translators) can acquire all these skills and competences in advance, they may at least be more confident when they enter into the real job market.

A New Trend in China: Competence of Language Administration

The term ‘language services’ is not new but aroused little public attention before 2008. There was also limited research on this field in past decades. For example, Hinkkanen (2006, p. 8), the former president of the International Federation of Translators (FIT), only mentioned ‘language services’ and ‘language service providers (LSP)’⁸ twice in her journal article entitled *The Global Translator Sector: Past and Present*.

⁸ According to Common Sense Advisory (2013), language service provider is defined as “an organisation or business with two or more employees that supplies language services, such as translation, localisation, or interpretation. Commonly abbreviated LSP”. More information can be accessed via its official website: <http://www.commonsenseadvisory.com>

However, from the year 2008 onwards, there have been gradual changes and development of the language services industry in China. More specifically, ‘Language services’ and relevant terms were frequently mentioned in the formal speeches in the “FIT 18th World Congress” which was held on the eve of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. Before and during the Games, a department entitled Language Services was established to provide translation, interpreting and language services for athletes, officials, and journalists. Four companies successfully bid to become language services providers of the Olympic Games offering translation, interpreting, language training and language technology services. Since then, the term ‘language services’ has been frequently reported in newspapers. Therefore, there is no doubt that the important occasion of the Beijing Olympic Games accelerated the development of the language services industry in China (Yuan, 2012, p. 80-81).

But it was not until the ‘2010 China International Language Industry Conference’ that the term ‘language services’ was officially introduced for the first time in China. The term ‘language service industry’ was then defined as a newly emerged industry consisting of translation and localization services, language technology and tools, language teaching and training and language-related consultancies. The language services industry, like most other service industries, is horizontal; it crosses all vertical industries, has a wider scope than the traditional translation industry and offers a range of globalization services (e.g. business services; consulting). Since then, the terms ‘language service industry’ or ‘language industry’ have been used more and more frequently in China to replace the more traditional term ‘translation industry’⁹. This marked the formal establishment of the language services industry in China.

⁹ More information and reports can be accessed via the official website of the Translators Association of China (TAC) at:

The following 5 years have witnessed a great expansion of the language services industry in China. According to the *2014 Report on China's Translation Industry*¹⁰, there were 37197 companies entitled 'language services' or similar at the end of 2011; but in 2013, the number rose to 55975, which means that another 18778 language services companies were established in the course of two years, with an annual growth rate of 25%. These figures indicate that the growth of the language services industry in China is associated with China's rapid economic growth. Moreover, according to the statistics from TAC, "China's foreign trade in 2012, which rose 6.2 percent year-on-year to \$3.867 trillion, saw the best performance among major global economies. The growth of cultural trade is especially notable with China's effort to reduce the long-standing cultural trade deficit in recent years. This means more demand for language services and more opportunities for the language industry" (TAC, 2013).

The burgeoning of the language services industry in China has had a profound influence on the training focus of professional translators at universities in China. As a result, Peking University, the first established modern national university of China as well as the major Chinese research university located in Beijing, decided to focus its MTI programme on language administration in September 2013. It is stated in its postgraduate prospectus that students are expected to master high-level language transferrable and language technical skills and to obtain experience in managing language services after two years' intensive and comprehensive training. Moreover, in addition to becoming qualified translators accredited according to the national regulations, students may also have managing skills for language services to pursue a career in

http://www.tac-online.org.cn/ch/tran/2010-09/28/content_3746340.htm (News report on the first language industry conference in China)

http://www.tac-online.org.cn/en/tran/2014-10/20/content_7308132.htm (Annotated article on the role of multilinguality in global activity)

¹⁰ In 2013, TAC published 2012 China Language Services Industry Report, the first report of its kind to provide authoritative data and analysis regarding the language service market. In 2015, TAC published the 2014 China Language Services Industry Report to provide a more comprehensive and vivid picture of the development of language services in recent years.

the language services industry. In other words, translation graduates of the language administration pathway may become bilingual or multilingual administrators or human resource specialists of the language services industry dealing with more communicative tasks, like mediating between clients and current translators, providing language consultancy to specific customers, working within the language customer services including account management or other daily logistics. The changing course aims have also brought about an update of curriculum content in order to meet the new market demands. Apart from the essential skills and competences discussed in the previous section, language administration related skills and pertinent modules have also appeared in the curriculum of the translation programme at Peking University (also see Chapters 4 and 5). Peking University offers an example of how the changing market provides inspiration for the design and development of the curriculum in the universities. However, it is still important to point out that although language services have been expanding greatly in China, and various parties (government departments, companies in service industry, LSPs, education institutions) have realised the critical role of language services in promoting service trade and cultural trade between China and the rest of the world, the influence of language services on broad translator education and training is not overwhelming at the moment. This is still at an exploration stage for all the parties.

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

1.3.1 Translation Studies¹¹ Recognised in the Academic Field in the West and China

As world trade has grown, so has the importance of translation (Munday, 2012, p. 10). As a long established practical activity, translation has been playing an increasingly important role in mediating and facilitating understanding and communication between different cultures in

¹¹ Thanks to James S. Holmes, in the English-speaking world, the discipline of translation is now generally recognised as 'Translation Studies' (Munday, 2012, p. 10).

the world. Despite the fact that the activity of translating has been in existence for millennia (Bassnett, 2008), the study of translation as an established academic discipline was only initiated in the second half of the twentieth century (Munday, 2008; 2012), which makes it a relatively young academic discipline (Baker, 2011, p. 4).

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

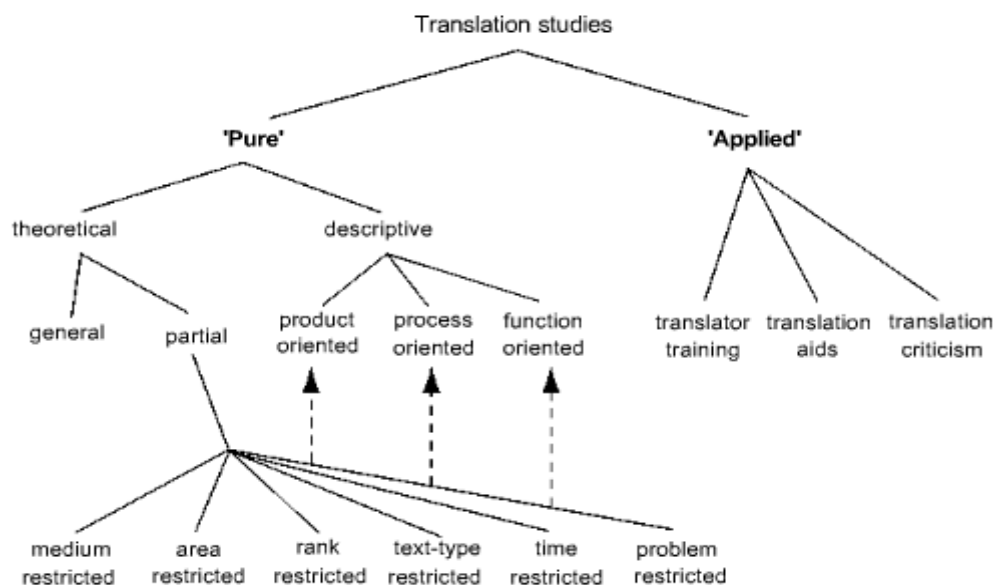


Figure 1.1 Holmes's 'map' of Translation Studies (from Toury 1995, p. 10)

This map portrays what Translation Studies is, what 'pure' Translation Studies covers, and how it is related to practical applications of research. The former ('pure') focuses on descriptive

studies of existing translations and relevant theories, while the latter ('applied') covers areas such as translator training, translation aids, and translation criticism (Munday, 2008; 2012).

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

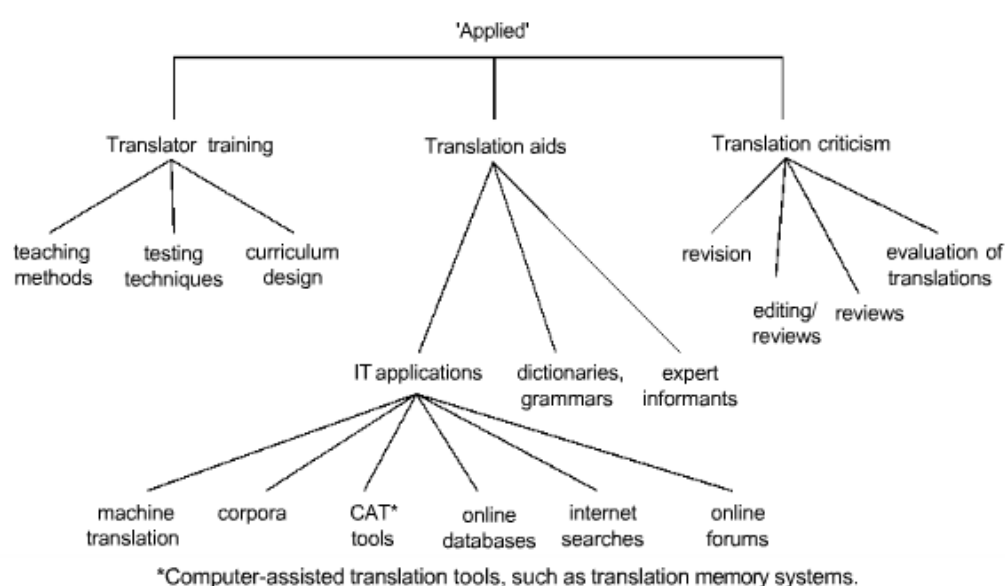


Figure 1.2 Holmes's branch of 'Applied Translation Studies' expanded by Munday (2012, p. 19)

Translation Studies, as an independent discipline, expanded hugely in the following years (Bassnett, 2008; Munday, 2012). The late 1970s and the 1980s saw the rise of the polysystem

theory. This was mainly proposed by Even-Zohar (1978; 1990; 2004) and was regarded as a prominent move in the field. Polysystem theory regard translation as the evolution of a literary system operating in the wider social, literary and historical systems of the target culture (Shuttleworth and Cowie, 2004). At the same time, functionalist theories advanced in Germany also developed quickly. These placed more emphasis on the translator's purposes (commissions) and the target reader than on the notion of sameness between languages, which signalled a move away from a mainly linguistic phenomenon towards a consideration of intercultural communication (Bassnett, 2008; Munday, 2012). The 1990s were an exciting time for Translation Studies as the study of translation-based topics was receiving increasingly high attention around the world (Shuttleworth and Cowie, 2004). For example, TS underwent 'cultural and ideological turns' at that time, and the object of interest shifted again. Research areas in this period of time, for example, include 1) the analysis of translation from the perspective of cultural studies (Bassnett and Lefevere, 1990); 2) gender and translation, which focuses on the feminists' translation project and gay identities and cultural transfer (Harvey, 2004); and 3) the roles of translation in the colonization process (Bassnett and Trivedi, 1999). More recently, both research and the practice of translation have been influenced by globalisation, new technologies and media. In this regard, new research directions have been adopted, including translator training and process-oriented research (Kelly, 2005; Kearns, 2008; O'Brien, 2011); audiovisual translation, which is primarily the subtitling and dubbing of films and is becoming very popular for applied descriptive studies (D'Áz Cintas and Remael, 2007); localisation and globalisation, which is "a new translation practice and environment that alters notions of equivalence and of power" (Munday, 2012, p. 267); and corpus-based translation studies, which mainly investigate translated language "held in machine-readable form and capable of being analysed automatically or semi-automatically in a variety of ways" (Baker, 1999, p. 225). Last but not least, despite debate, Translation Studies is now often considered

as an interdisciplinary, which has primary and secondary relationships to other disciplines, such as linguistics, modern languages, cultural studies, or other specialised subject areas (e.g. law; politics; medicine) (Munday, 2012, p. 22-26; see also Chapter 5, section 5.4.3).

Translation Studies was introduced from Europe into Chinese scholarship in the late 1980s (Zou, 2014). China has seen an unprecedented boom in Translation Studies due to its intercultural interaction with the outside world, brought about by massive translation practice. This has also generated a rising interest in relevant pedagogy and research among Chinese translation scholars, who are eager to learn from the West and are also playing an active role in promoting the development of the discipline (Wang and Mu, 2009, p. 268; Sun, 2012, p. 32).

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

Despite debates and disagreements, there is an overall consensus in Chinese scholarship that translation is an independent discipline, rather than being a branch of, or dependent on, literature or linguistics. China has now widely recruited students to study translation at undergraduate and postgraduate level (MA/MTI/PhD). The past decades have also seen a proliferation of conferences, books, journals, and translation associations in China. All these

developments and demands have marked the recognition of Translation Studies as an independent discipline in China. In short, an independent academic discipline could provide scholars with more available research resources (Luo and Mu, 2010). Research achievements will in turn enrich teaching and continuous development in this subject area.

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

Table 1.1 The Categorisation of Translation Studies in China¹² (Luo and Mu, 2010, p. 14)

Translation Studies in China	
General Translation Studies	Philosophy; Ontology; Epistemology; Methodology; Aesthetics; Ethics; Sociology; Linguistics; Anthropology; Psychology.....
Applied Translation Studies	Translator Education; Translator Training; Translation Criticism; Translation Assessment.....
Comparative Translation Studies	English-Chinese Translation; French-Chinese Translation; Russian-Chinese Translation; Japanese-Chinese Translation; German-Chinese Translation; Spanish-Chinese Translation
Literary Translation	Novel Translation; Poetry Translation; Drama Translation; Prose Translation

¹² This categorisation was originally written in Chinese. The author has translated the content into English.

Specialised Translation	Technical Translation; Commercial Translation; Legal Translation; Tourism Translation; Medical Translation.....
Interpreting	Consecutive Interpreting; Simultaneous Interpreting; Liaison Interpreting; Sign Language; Community Interpreting.....
Translation Technology	Corpus-based Translation; Terminology; Computer-aided Translation; Machine Translation; Multimedia Translation.....
Translation Management	Translation Policy; Translation Industry; Translation Project Management; Translation Conferences; Translation Process; Translation Evaluation.....
Medio-Translatology ¹³	Medio-Translatology in Literature; Medio-Translatology Methods; Medio-Translatology Pathways.....
History of Translation	History of Translation Theory; History of Translation Practice; History of Classification in Translation Studies.....

Luo and Mu divide Translation Studies into ten sub-categories, shown in the left-hand column in table 1.1, and each category incorporates its own facets which are shown in the right-hand column. We see from this table that the applied and practical aspects account for a relatively large proportion, such as specialised translation, interpreting and translation management. The

¹³ Medio-translatology here refers to the introduction of translation, which means that the process of translation is in fact to introduce certain issues from one language to another language, and from one culture to another culture.

history of translation, which is not mentioned in Holmes' map, is also included in Luo and Mu's map. Moreover, as Luo and Mu (2012, p. 14) explain, these different facets under each subcategory influence each other and could overlap, and there are spaces in this map for future research.

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

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

(Luo, 2004, p. 28)

1.3.2 Translation Programmes in the UK and China

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

According to Kelly (2005, p. 9), there are different types of translation teaching and training. These include university based degree courses, short-term vocational training, or training provided by professional associations. The major difference between these three types is that the former is integrated into a university system which also conducts research, so this type tends to include more theoretical content; however, the latter two types, established to teach vocational skills, are more practice-oriented. This thesis only covers the first type, namely translation programmes based in universities but in different national contexts (the UK and China).

An Overview of Translation Programmes in the UK¹⁴

Translation Studies in the UK is a small, but fast growing subject area (Bassnett, 2008). As noted by Munday (2012, p. 11), there were at least twenty postgraduate translation programmes in the UK in 2001, but as of the year 2011, the number has soared to 143 MA programmes containing the key word ‘translation’. The recent global trend of the rapid development of translation studies could be one possible explanation of this vast expansion. Moreover, the decision of the government to make languages non-compulsory at GCSE level in 2004 had an impact on language training in secondary and higher education. Thus, the decline of modern languages at school may have led to difficulty in recruiting students at undergraduate level, which has eventually led to shifts to training translators and interpreters at postgraduate level (Krouglov, 2012; Lee, 2009).

The HE sector in the UK allows universities relative independence in what programmes are offered, and perceived market and employment needs may decide the focus of a particular programme (Zou, 2014, p. 63-64). Therefore, we see that unlike the rather ‘fixed’ continental

¹⁴ Appendix 3 contains an excerpted list of UK universities that offer translation programmes.

traditions of translation programmes, translation courses in the UK are more autonomous; as a result, the organisation and emphasis of course aims and curriculum content varies greatly between different universities (Bassnett, 2008; Niska, 2010; Munday, 2012). Such courses in the UK are mainly at postgraduate level and are generally short: one year's full-time study or two-year's part-time study (Niska, 2010).

The different features of translation programmes can be summarised as follows. Programmes entitled 'Translation Studies' or translation with interdisciplinary subjects such as literature, linguistics, and/or cultural studies are associated with the arts and cultural context, and are more theory-based. Representatives of this kind include the MA in Translation Studies at University of Leicester, the MA in Translation Studies at Durham University, and the MA in Translation and Transcultural Studies at the University of Warwick. Some other programmes, entitled translation/translating and/or interpreting, focus on professional translator and interpreter training and are more practice-oriented in their curricula. Examples are the MA in Interpreting and Translating at University of Bath, the MA in Translating and Interpreting at Newcastle University, and the MA in Translation and Interpreting at the University of Westminster. Some provide translation courses relating to other disciplines: the MA in Business Interpreting in Chinese and English at the University of Surrey and the MSc in Scientific, Technical and Medical Translation with Translation Technology at Imperial College London (now at University College London) are two examples of specialist and multi-disciplinary orientations, respectively. Also, several universities have responded to the new directions of research areas in the field of Translation Studies, offering translation courses in media, such as MA Screen Translation at the University of Sheffield, MA in Audiovisual Translation Studies at the University of Leeds, MA in Translation, Interpreting and Subtitling at Essex University.

The language combinations also vary from one university to another. English with other European languages was the dominant trend in the translation programmes in the UK. But in the past two decades, the emergence of China as a global economic superpower means that there is now a demand for graduate students in and outside China who have the necessary knowledge to mediate and facilitate communications and cultures between China and the rest of the world. Concomitantly, many translation programmes have added English-Chinese Translation as another language combination. Some courses even specialise in English-Chinese translation (e.g. Newcastle University; University of Nottingham; Essex University; University of Salford; University of Surrey). Furthermore, the UK is one of the most popular places for Chinese students to study overseas. For Chinese students' studying interests, business related courses are the most popular programmes (48%) followed by logistics and engineering (17%). The third most popular subject is media and mass communication (13%). It is also worth mentioning that students choosing to study English and translation courses account for 6%, ranking fourth among all the subjects¹⁵. This growing tendency for Chinese students to study translation in the UK also boosts the development of English-Chinese translation courses in the UK.

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

¹⁵ These statistics are acquired from Li (2013), who worked at New Oriental Vision Overseas Consulting Co. Ltd. in Beijing, China. This company provides students with detailed information about every step of studying overseas. The statistics are only used for research purposes.

Translator Education and Training in the Chinese Context

Translation teaching and training has a long history in China, but it was not until the last two to three decades that this expanded massively. Historically, Tong Wen Guan (Tongwen Foreign Language School), which was established in 1862, can be regarded as the first modern school to train translators to work for the government in China. Later on, Tong Wen Guan merged with the Translation Department at Jing Shi Da Xue Tang (The Capital University, which was the predecessor of Peking University) in 1902. This newly merged department offered five foreign languages (English, Russian, French, German and Japanese), showing that the foreign languages had become a specialty in Chinese universities. Translation was one of the teaching goals at that time, but was also used as a teaching method to help students learn foreign languages in order to read and translate foreign books and official documents (Xu, 2005, p. 233).

With the intention of training military translators and diplomatic staff needed in the Anti-Japanese War (1937-1945), the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China and its Military Commission established Yan'an Foreign Language School in 1941. Both oral and written translations were major subjects at the school. Translation, at that time, was learned through practice without teaching theories and translation methods/techniques. Textbooks were not provided, either. Between 1949 and 1978, although some foreign language institutes and departments incorporated courses related to translation, the timetables specify that translation was used mainly as an exercise to practice a foreign language (ibid, p. 233-235).

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

training and political affiliations. Translators were generally required to serve the nation's political and diplomatic strategies.

After the 'Reform and Opening-up Policy' of the late 1970s, translator training witnessed a huge expansion in China, marking a new era. The plan issued by the Ministry of Education in 1979 made translation a required module of degree courses in foreign languages. Translation training in China then entered a formal phase. Beijing Foreign Studies University, on behalf of the Chinese government and the United Nations (UN), launched the UN Translator Training Centre (now Graduate School of Translation and Interpreting) in 1979, which turned out 98 interpreters out of a total of 217 graduates (Wang and Mu, 2009, p. 273). Despite these moves, for the next 30 years, translation was still taught as a language skill in most of the universities in China.

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

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

The situation changed dramatically in 2006. The Ministry of Education authorised three universities¹⁶ to launch the BA/BTI degree, namely Bachelor of Translation and Interpreting. Masters of Translation and Interpreting (MTI) were approved by the Commission of Academic Degrees of the State Council of China in 2007. This shows that Chinese professional translator and interpreter training has gradually separated from foreign language teaching (Zhong, 2007).

15 institutions were initially approved to offer MTI courses and recruit students in 2008 (Feng, 2010, p. 47). The following three years after establishment saw the proliferation of MTI programmes all over the country. By 2011, there were in total 159 MTI programmes in universities. As of 2014, there are altogether 152 universities that offer BTI degrees, and 206 universities that offer MTI degrees¹⁷.

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

¹⁶ The first three universities to offer BTI courses were: Fundan University, Hebei Normal University and Guangdong University of Foreign Studies.

¹⁷ The numbers and universities that offer BTI and MTI courses are obtained from the Translators Association of China (TAC, 2014), which can be accessed at: http://www.tac-online.org.cn/ch/tran/2010-10/12/content_3765916.htm (BTI); http://www.tac-online.org.cn/ch/tran/2010-10/12/content_3765889.htm (MTI). A full list of universities that offer both BTI and MTI courses can be found in Appendix 4.

of the university-based Chinese-English translation courses, which will be discussed in the following chapters.

1.4 Research Methodology

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

1.4.1 Research Method of the Thesis: Case Study

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

Stake (2000) has categorised three different types of case study: the intrinsic case study, the instrumental case study and the collective case study. In the intrinsic case study, no attempt is

made to generalise beyond the single case or even to build theories. The instrumental case study is examined mainly to provide insight into an issue or to revise a generalisation. Despite the fact that the selected case is examined in depth, the main focus is on something else. The collective case study is used to investigate specific phenomena by studying a number of cases (Stake 2000, cited in Silverman, 2013, p. 142 – 143). In this research, collective case studies are used in order to investigate common phenomena faced by translation programmes in the UK and China through detailed analysis of a number of cases in both countries (see figure 1.3).

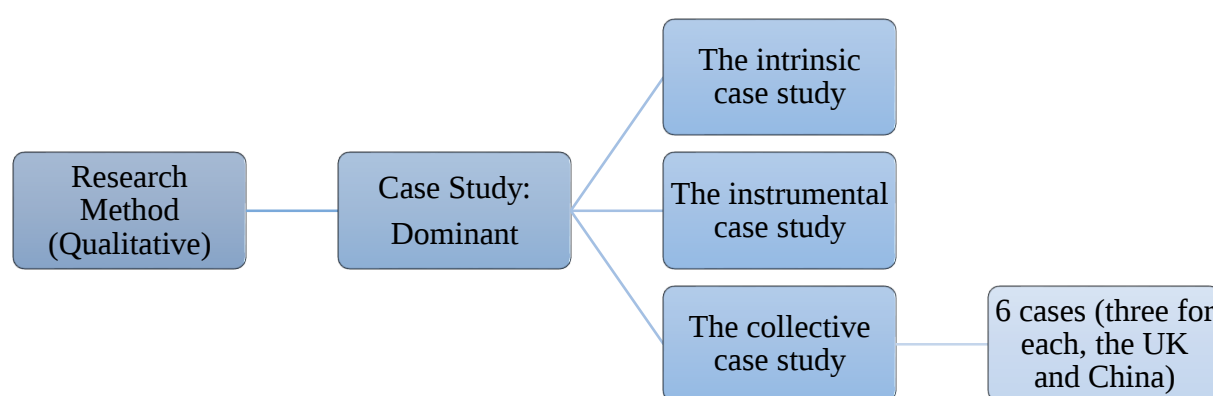


Figure 1.3 Research Design and Method of the Thesis

These six university-based translation programmes (three each in the UK and China) are representatives. The thesis will explain and discuss their current status and also provide an in-depth analysis of their current curricula in terms of the relationship between abstract theory and market standards. The three case studies in the UK are: MA Translating and Interpreting at Newcastle University (MATI at Newcastle), MA Translation and Interpreting Studies at the University of Manchester (MATIS at Manchester) and MA in Translation Studies at the University of Leicester (MATS at Leicester).

The Advantages and Disadvantages of a Case Study

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

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

The case study is also criticised for its lack of representativeness. One of the major scepticisms is whether the results of case study can be generalised (Preece, 1994; Bryman, 1988; Patton and Appelbaum, 2003), which is "doubted not only because they are derived from only a few cases, but also because even where a large number is studied these are generally selected

without observing the rigorous criteria of statistical sampling theory” (Gobo, 2007, p. 193).

Yin (2014, p. 21) points out, however, that

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

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

A Complementary Tool: In-depth Interviews¹⁸

¹⁸ In-depth interview is not the dominant method in this thesis. Rather, interviews with the six course directors are only tools to help further identify the cases. In addition, considering confidentiality, the six interview transcripts are not attached in the appendices, but a list of interviewees is provided, instead. Please contact the author directly if detailed information is needed.

As Yin proposes (2014, p. 110), conducting interview is one of the most important sources of case study evidence, and interviews are commonly found in case study research. In this research, because the primary findings (e.g. the course information published online) are not sufficiently detailed, in-depth interviews were used as a complementary method. More specifically, after researching the curriculum content published on the official website of each translation programme or written in journal articles by staff members (which intended to elicit how the curriculum of each translation programme was designed), in-depth interviews were then carried out to extract detailed evidence, arguments and observations from the interviewees in order to explain the relationship between theory and practice within the course aims and the core and optional modules in each translation programme.

Taking into consideration respondents' roles and responsibilities, interviews on a one-to-one basis with each translation programme's course director were conducted in this research so as to further explore the features of each programme from the perspective of policy makers on the basis of the initial findings. These interviewees who took part in this research were not considered to be private individuals, but rather public role holders (programme director). His or her role may need to be mentioned briefly, but he or she would not be divulging any personal information. It must also be noted that students of each programme were not considered as interviewees owing to the possible uncontrolled bias of personal views.

Before the interviews, the researcher briefly explained the purpose of the research to the potential interviewees and asked for their consent in advance via email exchanges or personal contacts. Each interview was semi-structured and took place at the course director's office at each university. To ensure retention of knowledge, the six interviews were recorded and then transcribed by the researcher for further analysis. All of the information was provided for academic research only. The information provided by the interviews was kept confidential and

secure. Transcripts and audio files were also kept on a password-protected computer and to which only the researcher herself, her supervisor and her examiners were able to access.

During the interviews, the author led with a list of open-ended questions, but also spontaneously devised several follow-up questions during the conversations in order to draw out more in-depth responses. The questions were asked primarily from two perspectives¹⁹. The first part contains general issues in curriculum design, such as factors (environmental, needs, markets) that determine the process of curriculum design and skills and capacities that the designers want the students to develop. Since the key questions of this research were how market forces exert impact on degree programmes in Translation and how these translation programmes balanced the contributions of theory and practice in the curriculum content in responsive to the market forces, questions regarding how the translation programme engage with the professional world (invited public speech or internship) were also posed.

The second part of the question set included detailed information of core or optional modules, especially practical translation related modules. To be more precise, questions regarding the subject areas taught in translation related modules, dissertation models, teaching methods, and assessment formats were put forward during the interviews. In addition, as each university may have its own specific missions and visions towards its translation and interpreting course, questions targeting specific modules offered by each university were also raised. For example, the translation and interpreting programme at Newcastle University offers a module regarding professional issues in translating and interpreting and arranges a team of staff (both professionals and academic staff members) to teach this module, which is not offered in parallel in other case programmes. In this vein, the researcher asked several specific questions targeting

¹⁹ Please refer to Appendix 2 for a sample list of interview questions.

on this module. The findings would be more pertinent in explaining the ways in which the professional elements contribute to the whole curriculum content.

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

There were four criteria when selecting cases in the UK. Since this research only focuses on the Chinese and English languages, the first criterion was the number of Chinese students. The second was whether ‘training professional translators’ is one of the programme’s training objectives. The third criterion for mature programmes was research reputation, staff research interests, taught modules as well as graduate destinations; for new programmes, a criterion was whether they include the most recent research and professional needs in the field of translation. Since translation and interpreting require different sets of skills, it is important that the discussion about translation is kept relatively separate from that of interpreting. Therefore, interpreting-oriented programmes were not selected.

Cases in the UK

According to its programme website, the Chinese Translation and Interpreting Programme at Newcastle University enables students to acquire a starter professional level of translating and interpreting skills so they may enter the interpreting profession when they leave the programme, especially in marketable fields such as technology, commerce, international relations and journalism.

This programme consists of two stages of study over 24 months. In Stage 1 all students take the same compulsory modules, such as translating, simultaneous interpreting, consecutive interpreting, sight translation, information technology for translators and interpreters, and translation studies. Upon successful completion of this stage, they will take one of the four Stage II pathways (i.e., MA in Translating, MA in Interpreting, MA in Translating and

Interpreting, and MA in Translation Studies), according to their academic results and their personal preferences. In Stage 2 the students specialise in interpreting or translation. Stage 2 modules include: consecutive interpreting; simultaneous interpreting; bi-lateral interpreting; translation studies; research methods in translating and interpreting; professional issues in translating and interpreting. Direct entry to this stage is possible if applicants meet the Stage 2 entry requirements.

The Translation and Interpreting Programme at Newcastle University was established in 1997, which is one of the earliest translator education and training institutions in the UK. As Newcastle University has a well-established programme and also because of its unique attractions for Chinese students, its MA Translating and Interpreting pathway was chosen as one of the three cases in the UK.

The University of Manchester has one of the leading research groups in translation and interpreting studies in the UK. Its publications constitute standard references in the field. To discover how a research renowned programme can turn out professional translators and in what ways was a main reason for its selection. In addition, unlike the translating and interpreting programme at Newcastle University, in which English-Chinese is an independent strand, in Manchester, students of different language pairs belong to the same mixed group. Specific language tutors will provide guidance in terms of language specific tasks and practice. This also aroused the analyst's attention.

The third case in the UK, MA in Translation Studies at the University of Leicester, is a brand new programme starting in the year of 2010. It is interesting to find out whether this newly established programme includes many recent research trends and professional needs in the field of translation. Moreover, the University of Leicester is an old and well-established university in the UK, but not a Russell Group member. Russell Group universities are research-intensive,

and are supposed to be more theory and research-based in terms of curriculum content. However, the fact is that the translation programme at the University of Leicester contains a large amount of theoretical content, and less professional and practical content than the other two. The deep reasons for designing its translation programme in this way may be the lack of money and resources (see also Chapter 5). It is relatively easier to teach theories across languages than to establish professional engagements outside academia in that the latter requires money, reputation and resources to secure the process. Thus, it is worth exploring more detailed information on how the translation programme has developed and why.

Cases in China

For the three case programmes in China, one comprehensive university, one foreign languages university and a teachers' university were selected. One rationale for choosing the three cases was geographical and economic factors. To be more precise, eastern and southern coastal cities in China have a higher level of economic development, while the inland western cities are less economically developed. The different levels of economic development in China have a profound influence on the allocation of education resources, which will then influence the design and development of pertinent degree courses. The MTI courses in this study are no exception (see Chapter 5). Therefore, we choose Peking University from the north and the capital, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies from the south and Central China Normal University from the inland.

Peking University (PKU), located in the Chinese capital Beijing, is one of the most renowned universities in China. The MTI programme at Peking University is one of the first 15 institutions approved by the official body. The development of the MTI programme at Peking University may also reflect social, economic and regional needs in the northern part of China. Furthermore, the MTI programme at Peking University has been the pioneer in adjusting its

course aims to the cultivation of language administrators instead of pure translators. It is then important to establish how the degree programme fits the changing market demands.

Similarly to Peking University, the MTI programme at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies also belongs to the first batch of the whole system. Situated in Guangzhou, the capital of Guangdong province in South China which is the most developed economic area, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies is a university famous for its foreign languages, international business and translation studies. In addition, the secretariat of the national committee for MTI education, the executive body, has been established in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. In other words, the curriculum development of this programme may be regarded as an indication of future trends/directions in some sense.

Central China Normal University is a typical teachers' university in China. The MTI programme at this university belongs to the second batch of MTI programmes, which was approved in 2008. Choosing this programme as a third case in China may be beneficial to the researcher to find out more divergent features of different MTI programmes. As Central China Normal University is located in Hubei province, central China, and because Hubei province is famous for its large number of universities, the MTI programme at Central China Normal University could be regarded as an example of the orientation and social needs in central areas.

1.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter initially discussed the traditional and current roles of universities worldwide, with a particular focus on the influences of neoliberalism. It then dealt with how Translation Studies is recognised as an academic subject in the West and China, and how its applied branch - translator education – has developed in both countries. Moreover, the author described the

research method used in this study to set the scene for the detailed analysis in the following chapters.

Chapter 2 Teaching Translation in the UK and China

2.1 Introduction

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

2.2 The Foundations and Principles of Curriculum Design

Despite a number of books and articles having been published on curriculum design in general (Beauchamp, 1975; Nunan, 1988; 2011, Richards and Rogers, 2001; Ornstein and Hunkins, 2009) and on curriculum and pedagogical issues for translation programmes (Kiraly, 1995; Hatim and Mason, 1997; Kiraly, 2000; González Davies, 2004; Kelly, 2005; Kearns, 2008; Sawyer, 2011; Orlando, 2011; Li, 2012), there is still ample space for further exploration in these areas. This section begins with a review of the general definitions of curriculum, and will then discuss several factors that influence the curriculum design as a whole, and specifically in the subject of translation. Furthermore, two general curriculum models and Kelly's comprehensive model of translation course design will be examined. Finally, this section

comments on an outcome-based curriculum model in Translation Studies which focuses on what competences students could acquire from a translation degree course.

2.2.1 Definitions of Curriculum

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

Moreover, Ornstein and Hunkins (2009, p. 10-11) identify five fundamental definitions of curriculum. Firstly, curriculum can be defined as a plan for achieving goals. This plan involves four steps, including defining purposes, designing materials, implementing the curriculum content, and assessing the effectiveness of the curriculum. Secondly, curriculum can be defined very broadly, as coping with the learner’s experiences. In line with this point, “almost anything planned in or outside of school is part of the curriculum” (ibid, p. 10). Thirdly, curriculum is a system for dealing with people, and a large number of managerial and systems curricularists adopt this definition. Fourthly, curriculum can be defined as a field of study with its own foundations, knowledge domains, research theory, principles, and specialists. This definition usually discusses curriculum from a theoretical perspective rather than practical terms. Lastly, curriculum also relates to subject matter (e.g. math, science, English, history, translation) or content (the way we organise and integrate relevant information).

In addition, Nation and Macalister (2010) depict the curriculum design as the writing process, which includes the sub-processes such as gathering ideas, ordering ideas, ideas to text, reviewing and editing (p. 1). Furthermore, Cannon and Newble (1989, p. 70-71) claim that “the key to curriculum planning is to forge educationally sound and logical links between planned intentions (expressed as objectives), course content, teaching and learning methods, and the assessment of student learning while taking account of student characteristics”. However, many courses fail to design clear intentions, for example “teaching which has a tenuous relationship to these intentions and employs methods of assessment which bear little or no relationship to either” (1989, p. 71). This method might be risky in some cases, which puts students’ academic future in an unstable situation. In order to improve this scenario, an approach aligning the intended learning outcome with module content and assessment tasks (Biggs and Tang, 2011; Kelly, 2005) might be considered.

2.2.2 Factors Influencing Curriculum Design

As Nation and Macalister (2010) suggest, the full cycle of designing a curriculum comprises seven factors, including environment analysis, needs analysis, principles, goals, content and sequencing, format and presentation, monitoring and assessment, and evaluation. To be more specific, *environment analysis* covers profiles of learners and teachers, as well as the teaching and learning situation which could have a strong influences on the course. *Needs analysis* incorporates what needs to be learned and what the students want to learn. *Principles* are related to the motivational strategies in the classroom. *Goals, content and sequencing* mainly refer to “a list of the items to teach in the order in which they will be taught” (ibid, p. 70). *Format and presentation* deals with the teaching methods and the design of the lesson plans. *Monitor and assessment* provides teachers with the guidelines for testing. *Evaluation* is the quality assurance of learning. This research primarily discusses *environment analysis, needs analysis, and aims*

and goals out of these seven aspects, in that they are the most relevant factors under consideration when we are analysing the curricula in translation programmes in the following chapters of this thesis.

Environment Analysis

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

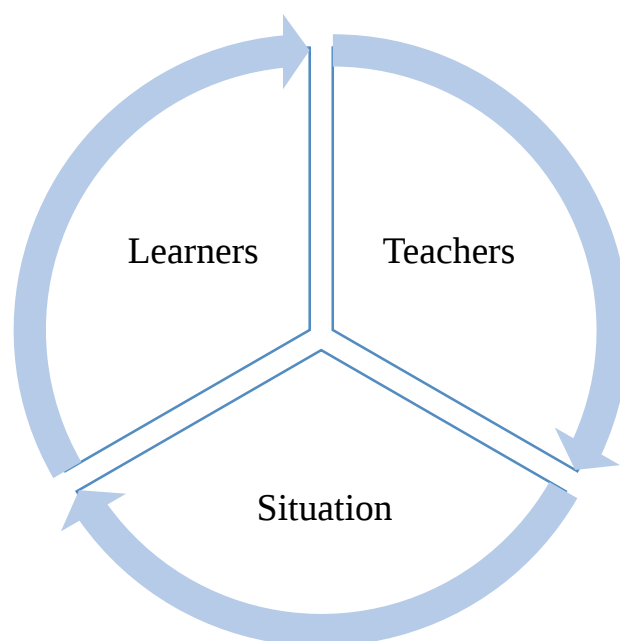


Figure 2.1 Factors included in Environment Analysis (Nation and Macalister, 2010, p.14)

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

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

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

When it comes to the factor of situation, the following four questions are to be addressed: 1) is there a suitable classroom? 2) is there enough time? 3) Are there enough resources? 4) is it worth developing the course? To contextualise this within the field of translation, computers equipped with up-to-date computer assisted translation (CAT) tools for translation courses and a qualified dubbing booth for interpreting courses are essential for learners to learn translation

or interpreting in a real world environment. In addition, considering the question related to resources, it should be noted that teachers may need to prepare and use both teacher-focused material and supplementary self-study materials. To provide individualised material is also important as the students' levels and interests can vary widely.

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

Needs Analysis

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

“Needs analysis is directed mainly at the goals and content of a course. It examines what the learners know already and what they need to know. Needs analysis makes sure that the course will contain relevant and useful things to learn. Good needs analysis involves asking the right questions and finding the answers in the most effective way” (Nation and Macalister, 2010, p. 24). As Nunan (2011) points out, at the beginning of the curriculum planning process, course designers might design a needs assessment instrument for collecting data (p. 139). Burnaby also clearly states that “the curriculum content and learning experience to take place in class should be negotiated between learners, teacher, and coordinator at the beginning of the project and renegotiated regularly during the project” (1989, p. 20).

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

order to improve the programme.

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

Aims, Goals and Teaching Objectives

Aims are starting points that suggest an ideal or inspirational vision of the good. According to Ornstein and Hunkins's understanding, "aims are general statements that provide both shape and direction to the more specific actions designed to achieve some future product or behaviours. They reflect value judgments and value-laden statements, and they furnish educators with guides for the educational process" (1998, p. 269). The aims of instruction will be affected by diverse educational philosophies. Philosophy, as the beginning point in curriculum decision-making (Goodlad, 1979), provides curriculum workers with guidelines for organising schools and classrooms. For example, which subjects have value, what schools are for, how students learn, or even which textbooks to use, and how to use them (Ornstein and

Hunkins, 2009, p. 32).

According to Sawyer (2011, p. 55-56), goals are often situated at programme level and are equivalent to the outcomes of the curriculum. Ornstein and Hunkins identify goals as the “desired outcomes for students as a result of experiencing the curriculum” (1998, p. 272). Per se, goals can be identified as guidelines for the design and implementation of the programme. With application to translation programme, goals can be defined as the activities, competences, attitudes, knowledge and abilities which can enable graduates to accomplish complicated translation tasks independently and responsibly through the initial process of problem solving, and then through analysing their own approach to task solutions (Sawyer, 2011).

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

More specifically, the social role is often closely linked to the local or regional economy. For example, after China entered the WTO in 2001, the need for English-Chinese business negotiation translators or other documentary translators became prevalent. Expanding the scale of translation-related courses for foreign language learners has been appraised by a considerable number of higher educational institutions. One example of professional standards is *the National Occupational Standards in Translation* in the UK. In terms of industry’s needs and views, the requirements of a more marketing based company and versus those of a more

technically based company might differ as regards translators' work. Technical translation emphasises accuracy, while marketing-related translation stresses creative or culturally bounded translation work. Regarding institutional constraints, for example, universities in a system with a strongly academic tradition might not formulate their overall aims to be the training of professional translators.

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

2.2.3 Approaches to Curriculum Design

In this section, three models of curriculum design will be discussed. The Murdoch's model proposed in 1989 and Graves' model in 2000 mainly deal with language curriculum design, but these models still provides readers with foundations and principles. In the field of Translation Studies, although many scholars have analysed translation course design from the perspective of aims, module content, teaching methods, teaching materials, and assessing tools (González Davies, 2004; Sawyer, 2011; Gile, 2010; Kiraly, 2000; Li, 2012; Sonia, 2003), Kelly (2005) proposes a well-thought-out system for designing a curriculum in translation programmes. This will also be reviewed in this section.

Table 2.1 Murdoch's Model (1989) of Curriculum Design (cited in Nation and Macalister, 2010, p. 138)

Left Hand Column	Right Hand Column
1. Learners' present level of competence	
2. Course objectives	
3. Reasons for studying English and long-term learning aims	A. Language and procedures to be covered by the course
4. Resource limitations that affect classroom activity	B. Emphasis on particular skills
5. Sociocultural factors and learning habits of relevance to English teaching	C. Methodology to be used: type and sequencing of activities
6. Learners' age group, present lifestyle and interests	D. Themes for course materials
7. Aspects of target culture that will interest learners and can be exploited in materials	

Murdoch's model presents the contents in two columns. The left hand column covers the main factors to be considered in curriculum design. The four aspects shown in the right hand column relate to the practical elements of curriculum design. However, there are some flaws in Murdoch's model. His model does not include principles, monitoring, assessment and evaluation. Assessment and evaluation are useful tools to test the feasibility of the curriculum;

therefore it is better to incorporate assessment and evaluation into the current curriculum.

In contrast, Graves' model (see Figure 2.2) is relatively more comprehensive.

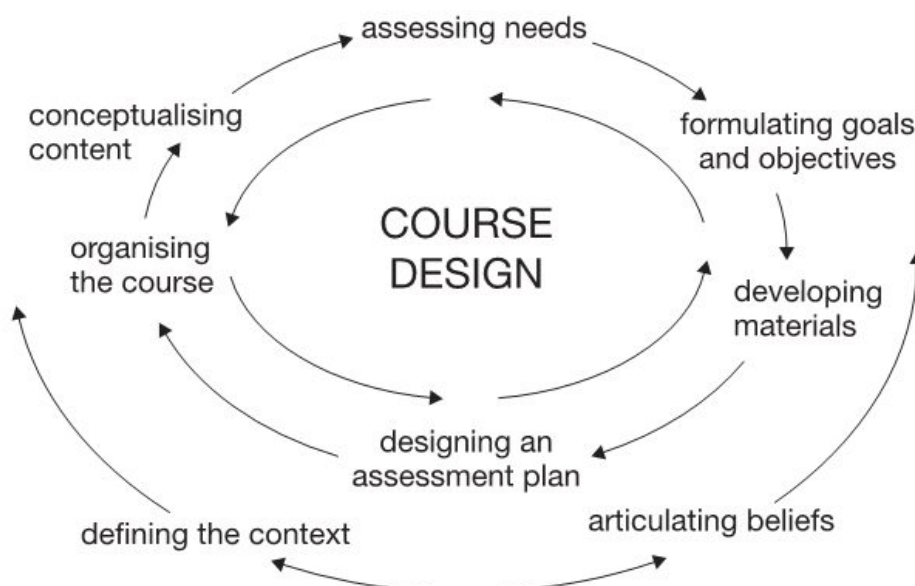


Figure 2.2 Graves' Model of Curriculum Design (Grave, 2000; Cited in Nation and Macalister, 2010, p. 136)

This model covers environment analysis (defining the context), needs analysis (assessing needs), principles (articulating beliefs), goals (formulating goals and objectives), content and sequencing (organising the course; conceptualising content), format and presentation (developing materials), monitoring and assessment (designing an assessment plan), and evaluation (designing an assessment plan). Her model can also be adapted into formulating a translation-related curriculum because of its completeness as well as its integration of all the sub-factors in this model. Nevertheless, distinguishing assessment from evaluation may be an important element when developing this model.

With regard to curriculum design in Translation Studies, Kelly (2005) has summarised ten

essential steps, all of which interlink (see figure 2.3). The first four steps will be critically reviewed as they are most relevant to this research.

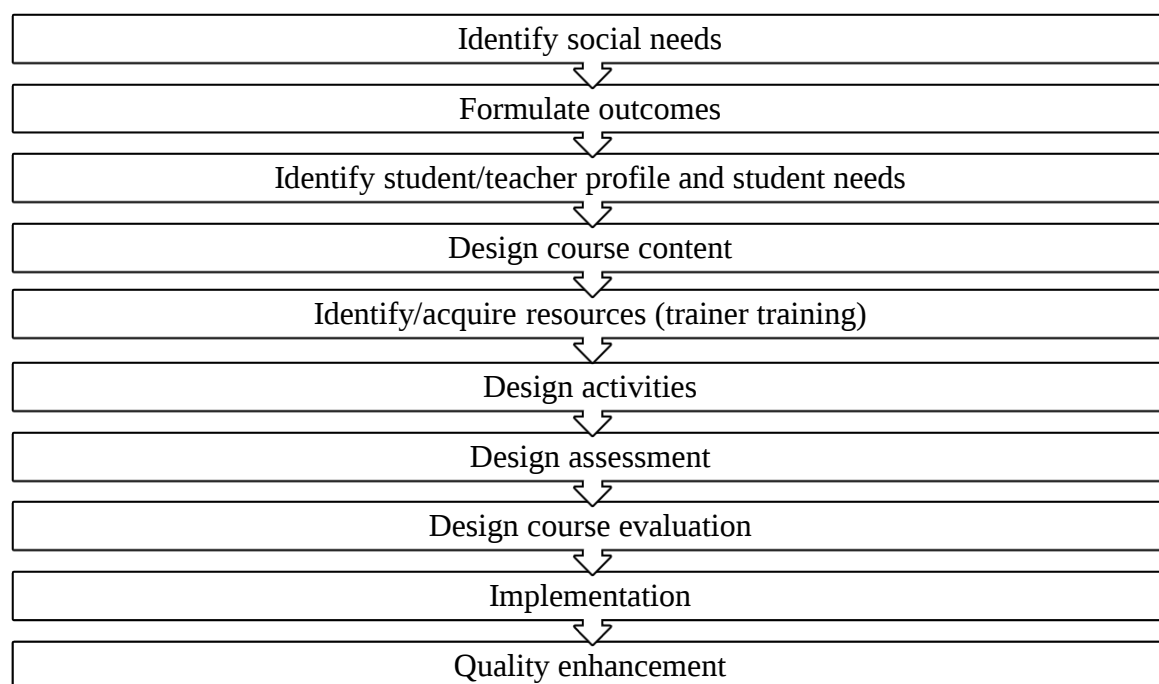


Figure 2.3 Kelly's Model of Curriculum Design in Translation (Kelly, 2005)

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

for translators' etc.). This is a rather thorny issue, but it is a fact that many programmes cannot offer such modules simply because they cannot staff them. As regards course content design, both disciplinary content and market demands are recommended to be considered (Kelly, 2005).

2.2.4 Outcome based Curriculum: Developing Translation Competences

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

According to Lasnier, “a competence is a complex *know how to act* resulting from integration, mobilisation and organisation of a combination of capabilities and skills (which can be cognitive, affective, psycho-motor or social) and knowledge (declarative knowledge) used efficiently in situations with common characteristics” (2000, p. 32). Here, *know how to act* indicates that this is not only applying know-how but also applying it in an efficient way. Developed by Hurtado Albir (2007, p. 167), competences encompass *know* (a combination of specific discipline knowledge), *know how* (skills to solve practical problems), and *know how to be* (skills of an effective or social nature).

There can be divided into general competences and specific competences. The former are those which can be applied to all disciplines, whilst the latter focus on each specific discipline, such as Maths, History or Translation. The general competences include: instrumental competences, which serve as the mediators to achieve certain goals; interpersonal competences, referring to the ability to interact well with other people; and systemic competences, which means the ability to ‘understand a whole system and to plan changes to make improvement in whole

systems and to design new systems' (ibid, p. 167).

The term 'translation competence' came into being in the mid-eighties and developed since the 1990s. Many scholars have discussed and evaluated the concept of translation competences, for instance, Nord (1988/1991), Gile (1995), Hurtado (1996), Hatim and Mason (1997), Anderman and Rogers (2000/2010), among others. However, one of the most recent models is the PACTE group's model proposed and modified from 2000 to 2008. Furthermore, Kelly (2005, p. 73-78) developed a full cycle of translator training in terms of translation competences (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2 Two Models of 'Translation Competence'

PACTE (2000-2008)	Kelly (2005)
Bilingual sub competence	Communicative and textual competence
Extra-linguistic sub competence	Subject area competence
Extra-linguistic sub competence	Cultural and intercultural competence
Knowledge-about-translation sub competence; Instrumental sub competence	Professional and instrumental competence
Strategic sub competence	Strategic competence
Psycho-physiological components	Psycho-physiological and attitudinal competence

N/A	Interpersonal competence
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The PACTE group (Process of Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation) at the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona in Spain has designed a well thought-out model of translation competence and undertaken minor revisions to it on a regular basis. In PACTE's model, translation competence consists of six competences (see table 2.2). In brief, the six competences are bilingual, extra-linguistic, knowledge about translation, instrumental, strategic and psycho-physiological competences. Bilingual competence, for example, includes “predominantly procedural knowledge required to communicate in two languages, which comprises pragmatic, socio-linguistic, textual, grammatical and lexical knowledge” (PACTE, 2011, p. 4). Extra-linguistic competence refers to general world knowledge, subject area knowledge, bicultural and encyclopaedic knowledge (2003; 2011).

Kelly (2005, p. 72-78), on the basis of all the previous research, has proposed a more detailed cycle of translation competences. These are language competence, cultural competence, instrumental competence, professionalization, interpersonal competence, subject area competence, attitudinal competence and unitization/networking. Of these eight elements, interpersonal competence has received limited attention in the past. To be more precise, language competence in Kelly's model means that language skills that particularly relate to a translator — like textual knowledge — may be centred on. Additionally, it may be constructive if policy makers consider students' language combinations, especially for those cohorts who have students with a range of different language pairs. Interpersonal competence, on its surface, may involve communications among people. In modern society, communication and exchanges between enterprises and powers are more frequent than ever before because of the rapid process

of globalisation. This is also true with reference to the translation industry, or more precisely, the translation and localisation industry. According to Esselink (2000, p. 74), a translation project team involves project manager, localisation engineer, language managers, translators and others. That is to say, everyone involved in this process needs to interact and collaborate with each other, as tasks are team based rather than individual work. As Kelly points out, “introducing teamwork and collective responsibility will help recent graduates in translation to the world of work” (2005, p. 76).

If applying the above translation competences to formulate an open and integrated curriculum, the learning or teaching objective here can be defined as the “involvement of teachers and students when it comes to taking decisions, to include the different axes of the educational process and to plan objectives and contents so that they are coherent with the decisions taken concerning methodology and assessment” (Hurtado Albir, 2007, p. 174). There are four categories of teaching/learning objectives which are specifically related to translation: methodological, contrastive, professional-instrumental, and textual (Hurtado Albir, 1996, 1999). Each of these objectives is associated with different translation competences, but they are still interrelated as a whole. From a detailed viewpoint, methodological objectives are linked with translation processes and translation strategies. Contrastive objectives are related to the interaction between the two languages. In other words, these objectives are explored to find the fundamental differences between the source language and the target language and how to switch between them in a translation process. Professional-instrumental objectives cover the acquisition of professionalism, understanding of the job market, knowing how to make use of documentary sources and more. Lastly, textual objectives are related to solving specific translation problems on the basis of different text types. The objectives also incorporate the ability to find solutions to the texts with various different users in each specialised area

(Hurtado Albir, 2007, p. 174).

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

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

2.3 Content-based Curriculum: Major Approaches to Teaching Translation

Many scholars have suggested approaches to teaching translation (translator training), including Jean Delisle's (1980) teaching objectives approach, Christiane Nord's (1991) professional-based learner-centred approach, Daniel Gile's (1995) process-centred approach, Don Kiraly's (1995) cognitive approach, and Kiraly's (2000) socio-constructivist approach on the basis of his own previous research. This section will discuss these five approaches in detail.

According to Kelly (2005, p. 11), "for quite a long time in the history of translator training, trainers have assumed that students or apprentices learn to translate simply by translating".

This approach was extremely frustrating for students. Despite risks and criticism, this early type of traditional translation training model still sheds some light on translation courses today.

Teaching translation has also been related to educational approaches in general: student-centred paradigms or teacher-centred transmissionist tradition (ibid, p. 11). The Canadian scholar Jean Delisle first applied the basic educational factor — writing clear teaching/learning objectives for any learning process — to the process of translator training. He advocated 23 teaching objectives and puts forward a systematic proposal for a practical introductory course in English-French translation in 1980. He then distinguished between general and specific objectives in another publication *La traduction raisonnée* in 1993. In Delisle's opinion, writing clear objectives in planning a course has at least the following four advantages:

- It facilitates communication between teachers and students
- It facilitates the choice of teaching tools
- It suggests different learning activities
- It provides a basis from which to assess learning

(Delisle, 1980, p. 21-2, cited in Kelly, 2005, p. 12)

His vital contribution to translator training is that he reminds translator trainers of the necessity to establish clear and achievable objectives for their translation classes.

It is important to highlight here that Christiane Nord and Daniel Gile, in the process of training translators, formulate the theory. Christiane Nord, one of the representatives of the functionalist theory, has put forward a complete model for translator training, which focuses on the simulation of professional practice in translator training. Nord's publications (1988; 1991;

2008), propose detailed considerations and very practical advice on curricular design, selecting teaching materials, text progression, class activities, student motivation and assessment, among others. It is necessary to point out that Nord's approach "emphasises the gradual nature of the acquisition of translator competence, and the need for considerable teacher intervention, particularly at the early stages, to ensure that tasks are not only realistic, but also feasible and hence not de-motivating" (Kelly, 2005, p. 13).

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

The cognitive theory regarding general tendency to trainees starts from the 1970s. An empirical approach was applied to the study of translation on the basis of cognitive science begins in the mid-eighties and became prevalent in the nineties. Don Kiraly, one of its major authors, advocates "a systematic elaboration of the issues underlying a descriptive translation pedagogy, a pedagogy based on the accurate theoretical description of translation practice" (1995, p. 3). He also realises that 'it cannot be expected that language instructors without professional translation experience will have a professional translator self-concept themselves or that they will be able to help their translation students develop one' (ibid, p. 3). This means the awareness

of the need for fostering professional expertise in translator training. By understanding his definition of 'self-concept', it can be assumed that the development of this attentiveness to the translator's role becomes a core part of training. The professional translators' 'self-concept' is in fact based on theoretical concept. More specifically, in the translating process, translators may consciously think how to produce specific words, expressions or sentence structures in the target language. They have, in fact, formulated their own theoretical systems in mind when translating texts.

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

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

translation quality at levels beyond that of mere semantic and syntactic correctness.

6. Translator education programmes should recognise around a theoretical framework that the identification of the cognitive resources that translation students should acquire the pedagogical tools for teaching and testing the acquisition of those skills and knowledge.

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

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

In view of the above approaches, this study believes that Nord’s approach and Kiraly’s new model are the most suitable approaches in combining translation teaching and the professional needs. Nord stresses the importance of embedding professional issues into the translation classroom. Kiraly (2000, p. 148) also believes that it is important to incorporate the market standards of translators into university curricula and assessment policies with the aim of

developing the credibility of programmes. Students, teaching staff and even administrators in the real industry may participate in the process of continuing and optimising the appropriate standards.

2.4 A Review of Research on Translation Teaching in China

In the Chinese context, research on translation teaching has been gaining momentum in recent years, and there is a significant increase in the number of articles and books published on this topic (Li and Hu, 2006; Xu and Mu, 2009; Ji, 2010). Although there are different foci and emphases of each article or book, in summary, the research content of translation teaching primarily includes the following three sub-topics: translator education and teaching methods; curriculum design for translation courses, especially for the MTI programmes; and developing translators' competences (Mu and Lan, 2010).

Firstly, there are many articles discussing translator education and teaching methods. For example, Wu (2013) suggests that translation teachers' personal theories are deemed to be a key factor that affects classroom practice. She argues that "only when the teachers acquire a due understanding of educational objectives, learning theory, curriculum design, the nature of a translator's task, translational competence, pedagogy, and object of study can they develop into an initiative-rich, independent instructor in translation courses, and facilitate effective learning on the part of the students (p. 36-43). Moreover, some scholars discuss teaching translation in specialised areas, for example, Mo (2013) designed an exploratory study to design a Masters programme in business translation. Others have commented on translation teaching in other countries (e.g. in the UK) and propose suggestions to the Chinese context. For instance, Liao (2001) comments on contemporary translation teaching in the UK. Chen and Chai (2008) undertook a survey via the internet to outline the general picture and current trend of specialties in translation and interpreting education in the British contexts, and then drew

the conclusion that British translation programmes have various aims and emphasises, which could be regarded as a good example to diversify Chinese translation programmes.

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

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

Based on the above review, we see different emphases of research pieces on translation teaching in the Chinese context, however, there are still voices of criticism. As Zheng and Mu (2007) points out, there are numerous research articles discussing translation teaching, but few of them provide in-depth analysis in writing. Moreover, there are many articles discussing the relationship between translation teaching and linguistics, literature and cultural studies, but not many scholars conduct cross-disciplinary research on translation and business, education, or psychology (ibid, p. 61). In addition, the profiles of teachers may act as constraints towards developing a translation programme, however, topics such as training of translation teachers

are still under researched in China.

2.5 Market Standards for Translator Training

As fostering professional translators is at least one of the core aims of the translation programmes within higher education institutions, relevant staff included in translation programmes should have an awareness of real market standards and an understanding of how these standards could be incorporated in the curricula. In this section, a combined model of market standards will first be introduced from the perspective of European Master's in Translation (EMT) quality standards²⁰, national occupational standards in translation²¹, and Specification for Translation Service²². Second, two accreditation tests (DipTrans and CATTI) for translators will be analysed in order to find out whether the principles, contents and assessment criteria can be borrowed for university-based training, and how can these two assessments can be used to test the validity and reliability of current translation programmes' curricula among universities in the future.

2.5.1 The European Master's in Translation (EMT)

The Context of the EMT

The rapid development of technology, the increasing expansion of economic exchanges, and the more frequent communication and dialogue at European and global levels stimulate the

²⁰ The EMT, namely The European Master's in Translation. This project was born in a period of important changes for the translator's profession. The main goal of the EMT project is to raise the quality standards of translation programmes around the Europe (EMT Network Annual Report (2009-2010), 2010, p. 1-2).

²¹ 'The National Occupational Standards in Translation set out what individuals need to do, and the knowledge and skills they need, to be competent professional translators. The Standards have been designed by and for the translation industry. They describe translation skills and performance at two levels, professional and advanced, and in a range of contexts. They were approved by the UK Coordinating Group in September 2007' (National Occupational Standards in Translation Handbook, 2007, p. 1).

²² The Specification for Translation Service was issued by the General Administration of Quality Supervision, Inspection and Quarantine of the People's Republic of China (AQSIQ) on November 27, 2003, and was finally implemented on June 01, 2004.

development of the language industry. This transformation means the need for highly skilled translators increased at a rapid pace, while the shortcomings of the labour market for translators and language services is become worrying (EMT Strategy, 2011, p. 1). At the same time, the European Union increased its official languages from 11 to 23 between 2004 and 2007, which underlined the short supply of qualified translators. The EMT project was born against such a background in 2007.

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

The EMT Quality Standards for Professional Translators

The competences applied to professional translation defined by the EMT project consist of six parameters (see figure 2.4): translation service provision competence, language competence, intercultural competence, information mining competence, thematic competence and technological competence.

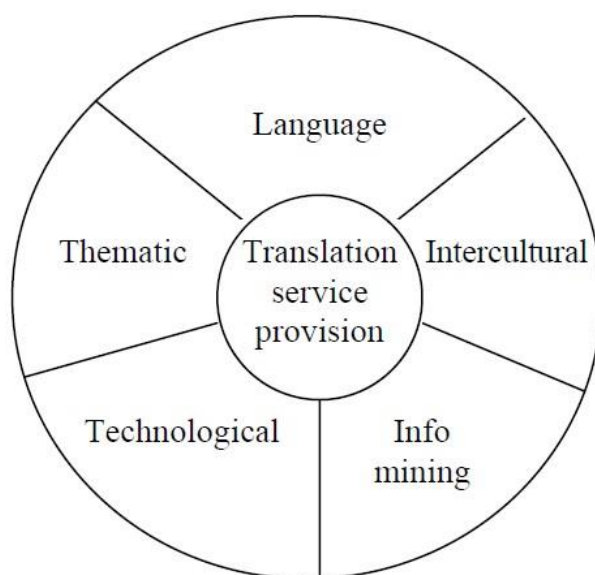


Figure 2.4: Competences for professional translators, experts in multilingual and multimedia communication (EMT Competences, 2009, p. 4)

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

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

‘Intercultural competence’ is defined by the EMT project from a dual perspective: the

sociolinguistic and the textual dimension. The sociolinguistic dimension discusses verbal elements, non-verbal elements and register of a document in terms of cultural factors. The main ideas of textual dimension include a document's overall structure and coherence, the underlying cultural meaning of a certain text, specific translation strategies to solve cultural difficulties, the ability to summarise, the genre, and rhetorical standards of a document.

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

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

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

2.5.2 Two National Occupational Standards for Translators

The National Occupational Standards in Translation

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

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

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

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

- Maintain skills and systems for managing translation tasks. This point deals mainly with translation and the skills necessary for the work of the professional translator,

including a) keeping the language and cultural skills up to date; b) doing research on specific translation topics to get general information and then to build up one's own terminology bank; c) using electronic tools for translators if needed and keeping client documents confidential at the same time; d) communicating effectively with clients and translation companies, and keeping positive relationships with them; e) remembering the role of the professional translator and complying with the principles of professional practice.

- Manage new translation assignments. This unit concerns how to cope with new translation tasks for translators. This includes meeting the requirements of clients and translation companies, knowing how to translate the nature of a text as well as mastering its context when translating, having the right skills to do the translation work and declining assignments that might be beyond translators' real levels, managing to meet the client brief and finishing the work in due time, knowing how to use various information to prepare a certain translation task, and using translation software to generate the translation.
- Translate written texts from one language into another. The third point stresses the importance of ensuring the quality of translation meets professional standards for translators. This involves accurately understanding the source text and making the target text as fluent as possible, being able to meet the client's special requirements and finishing the work to deadlines, seeking help from translator colleagues for the purpose of proofreading and reviewing the translation work, having the ability to check and revise the work before submission to clients and translation companies, and abiding by the codes of conduct in this field.

- Develop your performance as a professional translator. Last but certainly not least, this unit consists of two major parts. The first requirement regards knowing how to monitor a translator's own work, while the second important element is relevant to continuous professional development. It is clearly stated that translators need to 'take their colleagues' comments into account and use these together with their own observations to create a personal development plan'. This plan is designed to develop their knowledge and skills and performance as professional translators.

The Specification for Translation Service²³

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

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

The specification is a departure from EMT quality standards, the national standards in the UK

²³ All the information on the Specification for Translation Service is based on its official handbook.

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

If all the standards illustrated above can be incorporated into the education institution’s curricula, they will be of great use to help policy makers create authentic and fair working conditions enabling students to confront the real settings of the professional world even in their school time (Kiraly, 2000, p. 150).

2.5.3 Market Entry Requirement: Accreditation Tests of Professional Translators

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

Brief Introduction

CATI

In China, CATTI²⁴ (China Accreditation Test for Translators and Interpreters), launched in 2003 by the Ministry of Personnel of the People's Republic of China, is the most authoritative translation and interpretation proficiency qualification accreditation test in China. It aims to assess the proficiency and competence of professional and aspiring professional translators. CATTI includes translation and interpreting (consecutive interpreting and simultaneous interpreting). There are altogether four levels of this test, namely, Senior Translator and Interpreter, Level 1 Translator and Interpreter, Level 2 Translator and Interpreter and Level 3 Translator and Interpreter. The language combinations of this test are English-Chinese, Japanese-Chinese, French-Chinese, Arabic-Chinese, Russian-Chinese, German-Chinese and Spanish-Chinese.

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

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

DipTrans

In the UK, a qualification test of translation comparable to CATTI is called The Diploma in

²⁴ All the information on CATTI is summarised from its official website: www.catti.net.cn

Translation (DipTrans)²⁵. This is a postgraduate level qualification designed for working translators and also for those high level linguists who wish to enter a career in professional translation.

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

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

Exam Content

CATTI

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

²⁵ All the information on DipTrans is summarised from its handbook, which can be downloaded from www.iol.org.uk

The second part is ‘English-Chinese Translation Practice’, which consists of two sections: English into Chinese translation and Chinese into English translation. There are two passages for English into Chinese translation, and the total number is 800-1000 English words. Passage 1 is compulsory, and passage 2 can be chosen from two given passages. Chinese to English translation follows the same pattern, and the length of the passage is 400-650 Chinese words. This is to test the candidates’ bilingual translation skills and abilities.

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

DipTrans

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

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

years, starting from the first year in which examinees obtain their first pass unit.

Exam Formats

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

Discussion

English Language Ability

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

Translating into Foreign Languages

Unlike the DipTrans requirement to only translate into the mother tongue, in the CATTI exam,

translating from Chinese into English is also a compulsory part. The consensus in most European translator-training organisations is that translation into the mother tongue is the ‘normal direction’ (Hatim, 2005, p. 164-168). However, in real settings, translation into the major foreign languages is very much in demand, where native speakers of these languages are a small population (ibid, p. 167). In China, with increasing communications in business, trade, technology and other sectors, the need for much translation into English is especially obvious (Gile, 2011, p. 17). Based on this, the norm of translation into one’s mother tongue might not be enough from the perspective of the Chinese situation. This is also the reason why CATTI incorporates assessment of candidates’ competences in translating into the major foreign language.

The Importance of Translation Theory

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

Subject Area Knowledge

The DipTrans has provided a full list of subjects under each of the six semi-specialised areas required in the exam (see Table 2.3).

Table 2.3 Six Semi-specialised Areas Required in the DipTrans Exam

(DipTrans Handbook, 2011, p. 20)

Unit 02 (A): Technology	Unit 02 (B): Business	Unit 02 (C): Literature
Agriculture	Accounting	Film
Architecture	Banking	Drama
Engineering	Commerce	Film scripts
Environment	Economics	
Information technology	Export and import trade	
Life sciences	Finance	
Medicine	Insurance	
Pharmaceutics/Pharmacology	Marketing	
Plastics and polymers	Management	
Telecommunications		
Textile technology		
Transport		
Unit 03 (D): Science	Unit 03 (E): Social Science	Unit 03 (F): Law
Agriculture	Anthropology	Case Studies

Astronomy	Development studies	Civil law
Biochemistry	Economics	Commercial law
Biological sciences	Education	Criminal law
Chemistry	Environment	Court reports
Earth sciences	History	Family law
Environment	Philosophy	Law reports
Life sciences	Political science	Legal journal articles
Mathematics	Psychology	International Law
Medicine	Public administration	
Pharmaceutics	Religion	
Pharmacology	Sociology	
Physics		

The CATTI does not summarise the entire subject areas that may be included in the exam, but evaluation of past papers shows it can be found out that the subject areas required in the CATTI exam in the past overlap with the lists above. The table shows that special attention should be paid to scientific and technical translation as well as to real knowledge of these two areas, since

these two types of translation account for ‘by far the biggest portion of translation work in the world today’ (Kingscott, 1996, p. 295). In addition, although no programme on translation can offer courses covered all the subject areas above, this full list can still be regarded as the benchmark for curriculum design.

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

2.5.4 A Combined Model of Professional Standards for Translators

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



Figure 2.5: Market Standards for Professional Translators

However, more detailed illustrations of every aspect of the market is shown in table 2.4 as follows:

Table 2.4: Requirements for Being a Qualified Translator

Requirements for being a qualified translator	Sub skills of each requirement
Linguistic Competence	➤ Knowing both languages (native language A and first foreign language B) at word level, above word level, grammatical level, textual level and pragmatic level ➤ Knowing transferrable skills between these two languages

Translation Competence	Permanent Skills ➤ Knowing how to deal with the purpose of a translation task ➤ Knowing how to analyse the source text and uncover difficulties during the translation process ➤ Knowing how to use appropriate strategies to cope with the difficulties ➤ Knowing how to prepare a task before translating ➤ Knowing how to proceed with self-assessment ➤ Knowing how to translate from B to A and from A to B ➤ Knowing how to learn computer-aided translation skills New Skills for a Changing Market ➤ Knowing how to cope with new translation tasks such as post-editing, technical writing, pre-editing and abstract translation ➤ knowing localisation and multimedia translation techniques
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Knowledge of Translation Theory	➤ Knowing how to apply relevant translation theories to specific translation tasks (skopos theory, text typology, relevance theory, register theory and quality assessment in translation) ➤ Knowing how to develop a translator's 'self-concept' with the help of relevant theories
Extra-linguistic Knowledge	➤ Cross Cultural Communication ➤ Subject area knowledge or cross-disciplinary knowledge ➤ Interdisciplinary knowledge ➤ Information research knowledge ➤ World knowledge (common sense)
Professionalism	➤ Work-flow of translation tasks ○ time management, especially submitting tasks to an agreed deadline ○ team work skills ○ translation project management ○ cost and invoice awareness ➤ Professional ethics ➤ Client education

	○ interpersonal skills including how to build up negotiating and communicating skills between a translator and the client and marketing skills especially for free-lance translators ○ social networking skills ➤ Developing professionalism for translators
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To sum up, many university programmes in translation have come into being at this era through the whole world. Nevertheless, there is the serious challenge of ‘too many translation graduates not finding employment and too many employers or companies not finding the right translators’ (Gouadec, 2007, p. 337). The answer to the question “what is an unemployable translator?” may be related to university education. According to the conclusions generated from the Symposium on the Translator Profile organised by DGT on 29 September 2011 (DGT Symposium, 2011), universities have the responsibility to train their students in specialised areas. In addition, revision, quality control, time management, ethics and more should also be included in the study programme. The trainers need to adopt the principle of lifelong learning. In addition to developing a professional standard and incorporating it in the current curricula, teachers and students should also work with it in actual teaching methods, learning styles and assessment procedures. Furthermore, external experts in the professional world may be invited to test the current curricula and put forward their criteria for evaluating the whole programme (DGT Symposium, 2009).

2.6 Chapter Summary

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

Chapter 3 Analysis of Current Curricula in Translation Programmes in the UK

3.1 Introduction

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

Previous chapters have shown that although some thirty universities offer translation/interpreting courses in the UK, primarily at post-graduate level, “the organisations and emphasis of training varies so much between different universities that it is difficult to schematise the British system” (Niska, 2010, p. 39). Professor Susan Bassnett (2008) has also noted that there is a substantial variation in size and emphasis between the programmes on offer, and titles of the degrees and/or diplomas reflect the different emphasis at each institution. It is true of our three case studies as well that each programme has its own focus in delivering the course. From the perspective of the titles, it is apparent that Newcastle offers joint programmes in both translation and interpreting; Manchester has a MA in translation and interpreting studies (MATIS), showing the theoretical emphasis of this programme; and Leicester has its MA in Translation Studies (MATS), with a strong focus on theory and research. Language choice also varies considerably in these translation programmes, with some universities focussing on European languages, others offering a broader range. In our cases, there are mixed language groups in both Manchester (European languages and Chinese

language) and Leicester (European languages, Chinese language and Japanese language), while Newcastle has separate programmes targeting Chinese language only.

The course aims and module content also vary considerably from one to another. To be more specific, the Translating and Interpreting programme (MA T&I) at Newcastle has a clear focus on preparing its students for the diversified and fierce translation and interpreting market, so market demands are the important factors in designing and developing its course. An examination of the details of this course indeed shows that a practice-oriented curriculum for teaching translation and interpreting is embedded in Newcastle's programme.

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

It seems that MATIS at Manchester sits in the middle between theory and practice, but when it comes to each module, theory-based content outweighs practice-based content. Moreover, the vast majority of the assignments are theory-based essays rather than practical translation/interpreting. From both the open-access materials and the interview with the director, it is clear that there are more resources available regarding theory and research in MATIS at Manchester, but considering the employability of the students and the pressure from the market, this programme cannot deny the contribution of practical skills. Therefore, it is acknowledged that the MATIS at Manchester is actually struggling with how much weight should be given to theory-based content and how much to practice-based content in a translation course.

This chapter has five sections. Section 3.2 provides the readers with course aims and objectives of the three case studies and proposes that they have different teaching emphasises. 3.3 describes the diverse course structures of each case programme, introduces orientations of modules offered in these three cases, and explains specific capabilities reflected in the module content. In 3.4, different characteristics of each study are summarised after the analysis carried out in 3.2 and 3.3. As a result, it is found that the key differences between these three cases are associated with different aspects of professionally oriented translation teaching and theoretical oriented translation teaching, which are discussed in 3.4. Finally, 3.5 recaps the main findings of the analyses and discusses the implications for the comparison chapter (Chapter 5).

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

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

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

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

(Biggs and Tang, 2011, p. 113)

In this chapter, the focus of discussion mainly lies on the second level: intended learning outcomes at the programme level. In our own context, based on the facts and figures generated from the interviews with three course directors as well as published materials (e.g. online course structure or programme handbook), the author aims to investigate what capabilities graduates from translation programmes (in particular from those of Manchester, Leicester and Newcastle) should be able to achieve upon finishing one or two years' study.

In its programme handbook, the MATIS programme at University of Manchester explains what abilities graduates from this particular degree course should be able to develop (see table 3.1).

Table 3.1 Aims and Learning Outcomes of the MATIS Manchester

Course Objectives	Details
Aims	1 To equip students with the knowledge and skills for a career in translation and/or interpreting or in other professions which require expertise in cross-cultural communication 2 To equip students for further study and research

	3 To provide specialist training in various types of translation and/or interpreting activities, including the use of technology in translation, interpreting and related activities 4 To provide a gradual transition into the world of work through practical, real-life translation and/or interpreting tasks, according to the chosen pathway
Learning Outcomes	1 Translation and interpreting studies as an academic discipline and familiar with various perspectives from which different scholars have attempted to develop theories of translation and interpreting 2 The role of translation and interpreting in solving interlingual and intercultural communication problems 3 The interdisciplinary nature of translation and interpreting studies and the exchange of empirical and theoretical approaches between translation/interpreting studies and other disciplines 4 Research issues in interpreting and translation, including recent approaches, current problems, and potential future developments 5 The relationship between translation, interpreting and other aspects of language use and communication, including language patterning, textual organisation and the semiotics of verbal and non-verbal communication

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

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

Moreover, as analysed in Chapter 2, the abilities and skills of a competent translator demanded by the market are strong bi-lingual/multi lingual competences, skills and strategies for practical translation, knowledge of translation theory, extra-linguistic knowledge (e.g. subject area knowledge and information mining ability) and professionalism (e.g. professional ethics, interpersonal skills and time management) (see figure 2.5 and table 2.4). However, when we compare these market standards with the learning outcomes shown in table 3.1, it must be acknowledged that language competence or language transferrable skills, extra-linguistic

knowledge such subject area knowledge, and professional characteristics of work in translation and/or interpreting areas are still missing, or not entirely included in the MATIS programme at the University of Manchester. That is to say, even if students achieve all the above learning outcomes, it is not completely guaranteed that they can achieve the intended aims of becoming a competent translator and/or interpreter upon graduation.

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

The MATS programme at University of Leicester, the third case in this study, has four objectives (table 3.2) which show that this programme focuses on theory and research rather than practice.

Table 3.2 Course Objectives of the MATS Leicester

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

From table 3.2, it is clear that the MA in Translation Studies programme focuses much on translation theory and thought-provoking research in the discipline of Translation Studies. Concomitantly, the module content of this programme is mainly research driven (see table 3.5), in which practical content is supplementary to the theory units. Moreover, the interview with

the course director can further explain Leicester programme's course objectives. According to the director, there are two main goals the designers want the students to develop. One is to make the students aware of translation theory. The purpose of teaching theory is to help students think about what they are doing when they practice their translation tasks, not just do something for something's sake. In other words, course designers of Leicester's programme expect its students to learn from reflecting critically upon their experiences or practices, which is similar to the MATIS programme. In fact, learning from experience is seen by many educators as a crucial way of narrowing the gap between theory and practice in their respective disciplines (Bulpitt and Martin, 2005, p. 207). This reflective learning method has also been supported by scholars in the field of Translation Studies. For example, as Kiraly points out (1995, p. 111), "a major objective of translator training should be the fostering of a translator self-concept and a functioning translation monitor". In this case, marrying translation theory and practice is a way of improving the practice of translation simply because "it increases translator's awareness of methodology" (Bartrina, 2010, p. 178). Another important capability the course designers would like students to develop is research skills. For example, they have set up two modules regarding research skills and methods (see table 3.5) in which in many ways they are trying to nurture their graduates to be persons who can conduct research. This is also demonstrated in the intended learning outcomes of the MA in Translation Studies (see figure 3.1). Specifically, 'research skills' is one of the eight transferrable skills that the MA in Translation Studies at University of Leicester is intended to foster, not only applied in the work place but also in the pursuance of further study to PhD level.

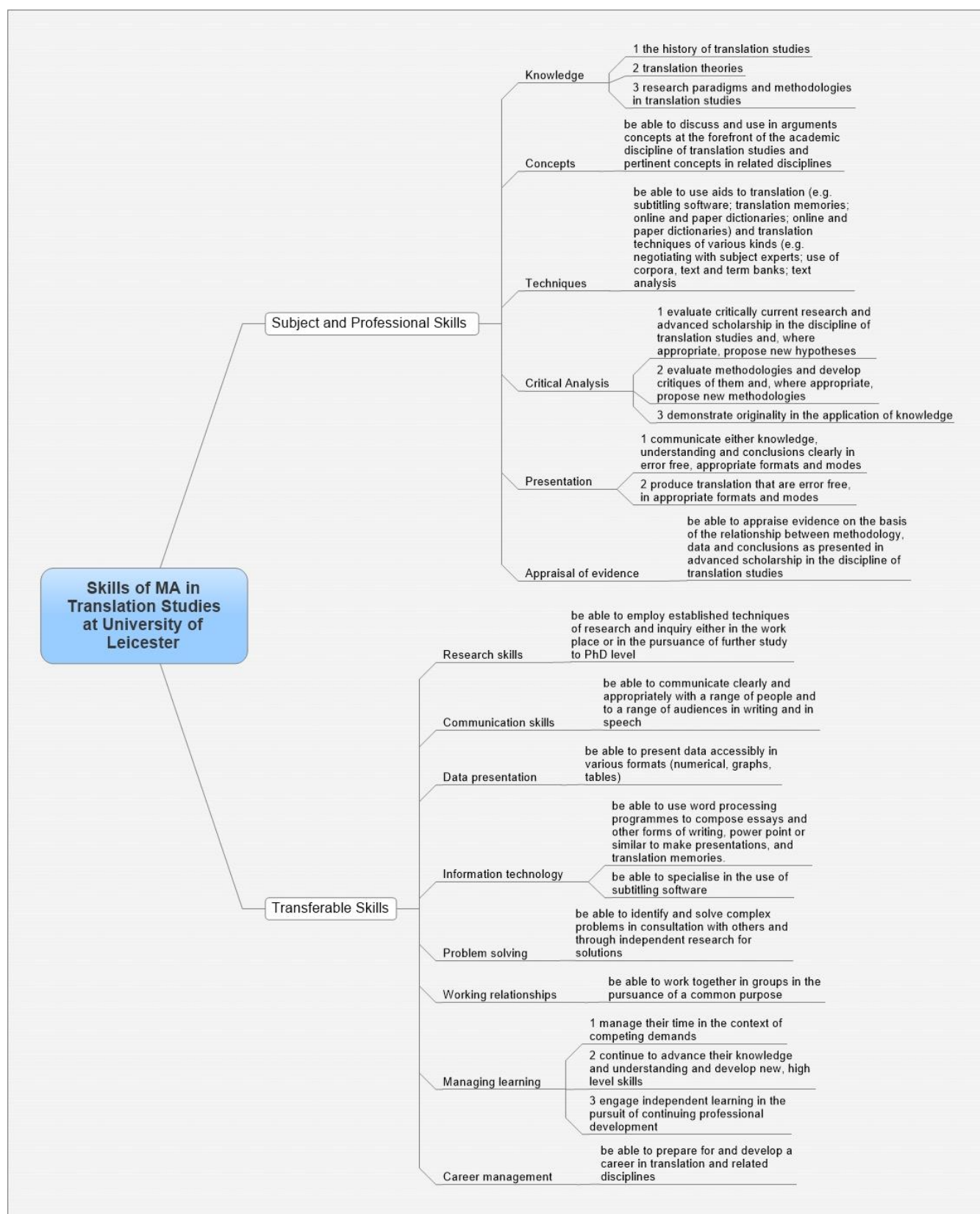


Figure 3.1 Learning Outcomes of the MATS Leicester²⁶

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

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

However, as mentioned in Chapter 1, universities in the UK are now facing the fact that they need to make their courses more responsive to market needs due to neoliberalism and the commercialisation of higher education. Clearly, course designers of the MA in Translation Studies at University of Leicester have also realised the importance of integrating professional standards or demands in their course to help enhance students' employability. As explained by the course director of the MA in Translation Studies at University of Leicester, students'

²⁶ This map has been summarised on the basis of the information provided by the MA in Translation Studies programme specification 2013.

employability is considered at both university level and course level. From the perspective of the university, a five year career plan to enhance student's employability has been issued, aiming to ensure that their graduates "have the extra dimension (e.g. employment related skills) in order to make them the stand out choice for employers" (Johnson, 2012)²⁷. At the course level, course designers apply this plan to their translation programme. Additionally, due to the fact that this course is theory-oriented, and in order to help graduates find professional jobs in the (translation) market, it then aims to integrate transferrable skills into its curriculum. From figure 3.1, it can be seen that transferrable skills suitable for many potential work places are taken into account by this programme. Clearly, this programme is designed to improve students' skills in order to meet the requirements of future employers. In other words, the eight transferrable skills together with the specific learning outcomes provided in figure 3.1 are generic skills or abilities that are to be displayed in all circumstances or as attributes embedded in the content area of a discipline (Biggs and Tang, 2011, p.130).

The Translating and Interpreting programme at Newcastle, being different from the other two programmes, aims very clearly to cultivate qualified translators in professional areas (see table 3.3). This professional ethos is embedded into almost every module, and professional skills of translating and interpreting are demonstrated through module syllabus, teaching and assessment methods.

²⁷ Information on 'Employability at Leicester' can be accessed online via the link:
<http://www.slideshare.net/stujohnson/employability-at-leicester>

Table 3.3 Course Objectives of the MA T&I Newcastle²⁸

Course Objectives	Details
Aims	The Translation and Interpreting MA covers both professional and academic training. Students will acquire high-quality translating and interpreting skills, so they may enter the translating or interpreting profession in fields such as technology, commerce, international relations and journalism ²⁹ .

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

²⁸ The course aims of the T&I programme at Newcastle University can be found on its official website: <http://www.ncl.ac.uk/postgraduate/courses/translating-interpreting-ma.html#profile>

²⁹ Based on the interview with the programme director, these four subject areas are only example, not specialised translating pathways.

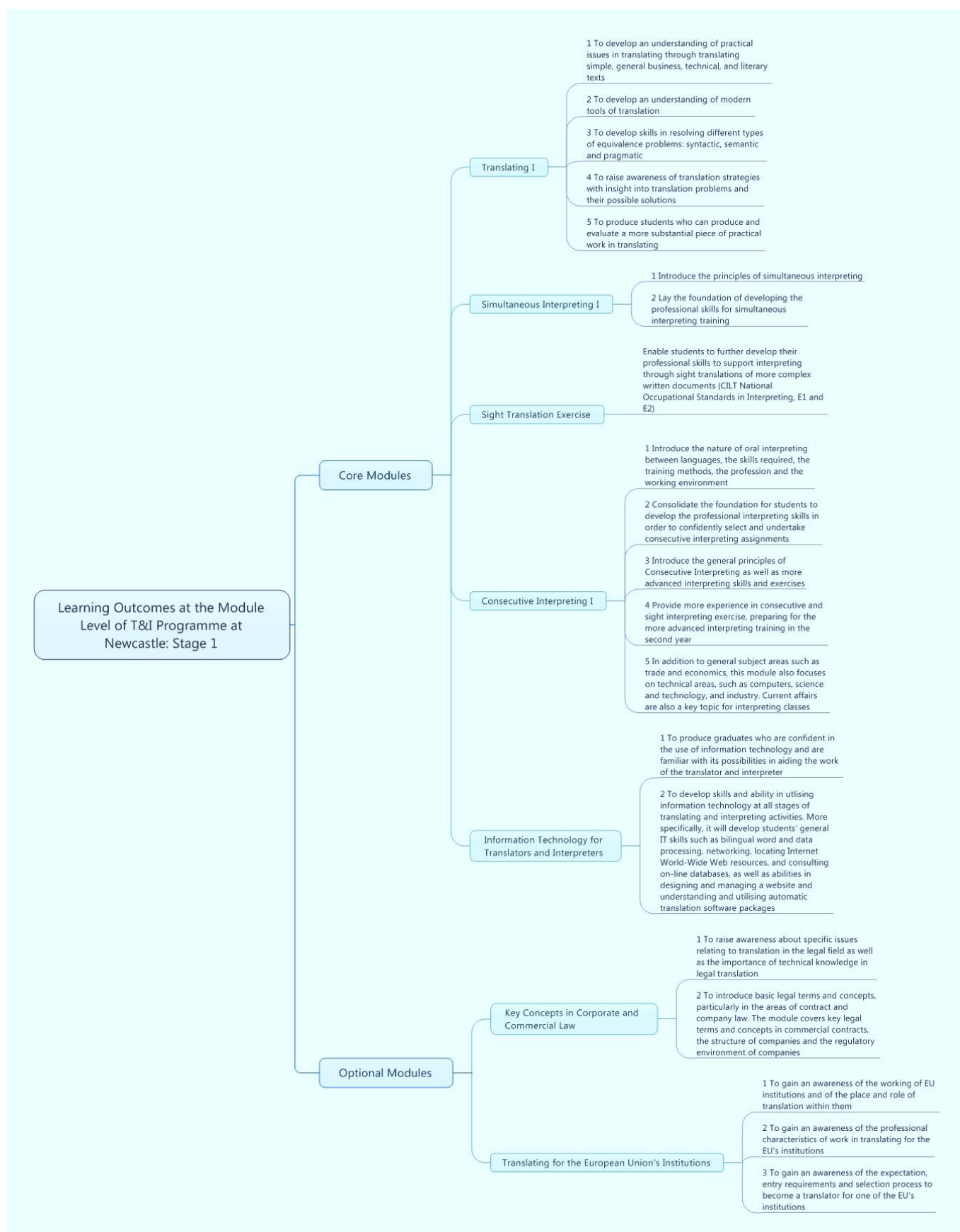


Figure 3.2 Learning Outcomes at the Module Level of the MA T&I Newcastle: Stage I

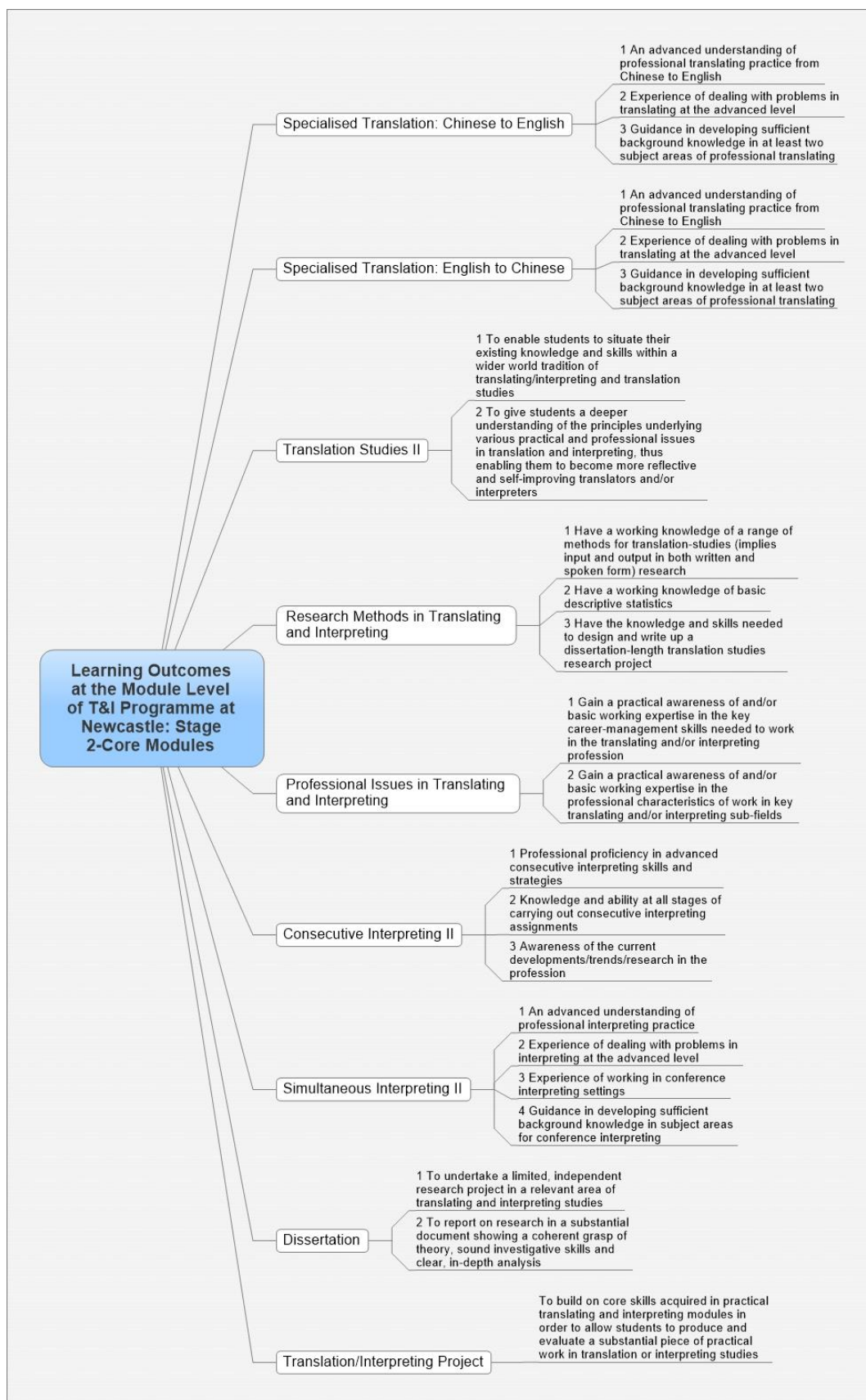


Figure 3.3 Learning Outcomes at the Module Level of the MA T&I Newcastle: Stage 2 Core

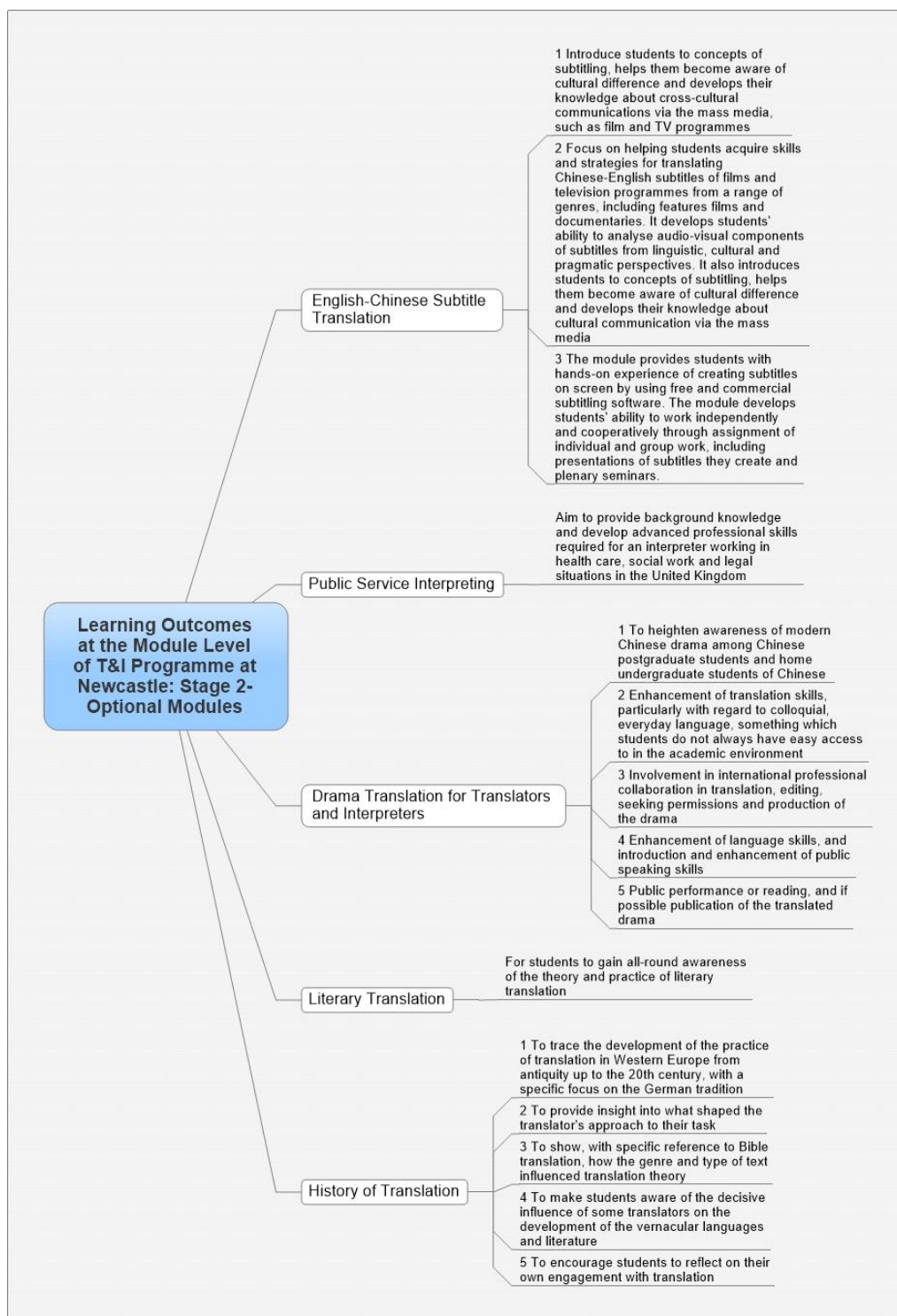


Figure 3.4

Learning Outcomes at the Module Level of the MA T&I Newcastle: Stage 2 Optional³⁰

³⁰ Another two optional modules: 'Key Concepts in Corporate and Commercial Law' and 'Translating for the European Union's Institutions' are also offered in Stage 2. As the learning outcomes of these two modules are already mentioned in Figure 3.2, here we do not repeat mentioning them.

Figures 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4 give a very comprehensive picture of learning outcomes in each module (both core and optional) at both Stage 1 and Stage 2. In contrast to the Manchester and Leicester programmes, which pay more attention to theoretical input in their course aims and learning outcomes, key words of the Translation and Interpreting programme at Newcastle are ‘profession’, ‘skills’ and ‘practice’. From the learning outcomes at the module level in Stage 1 (figure 3.2), we can see that course designers expect students to acquire fundamental translation skills clusters after one year of study. Such skills, are included as Samuelsson-Brown (2010, p.2) suggests, language and literacy, communication, cultural understanding, information technology, making decisions, and project management. Stage 2, as a more advanced level, is more specialised in terms of learning outcomes and module content. In addition to the generic knowledge, concepts and skills learned in Stage 1, students are expected to have an advanced understanding of professional translating practices in specialised areas (economics; finance and business; politics; law; science and technology, depending on the market demand³¹) with different modes (subtitle translation; interpreting; drama translation; literary translation; see figure 3.3 & 3.4).

The three figures also shows that interpreting is an important component for students who choose the translating pathway, and vice versa³². The rationale³³ for designing in this way, according to the programme director, is the market demand. Specifically, as explained by the course director, the real situation in the professional world is that people who have followed the translation pathway may find themselves doing interpreting, and it is certainly the case that

³¹ These examples regarding subject areas can be found on the Outline of Syllabus in modules of Specialised Translation: Chinese to English/English to Chinese. Please consult the official website for more information: <http://www.ncl.ac.uk/postgraduate/modules/module/CHN8030/>; <http://www.ncl.ac.uk/postgraduate/modules/module/CHN8031/>

³² Students who choose the Interpreting pathway also need to take a certain amount of Translating modules.

³³ The rationale of asking students to do both translation and interpreting is summarised from the interview with the programme director.

someone who follows the interpreting pathway will find themselves doing translation. So it is important for students to do both. From the perspective of the course designers, interpreters should do more translation because translation gives them a much deeper and more solid grounding in language skills.

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

Although the Translating and Interpreting programme at Newcastle does not offer an independent English language module to provide students with a receptive and productive mastery of English, practicing English is emphasised either in the modules of specialised translation (translating from and into students' A language) or in students' self-study practices.

The different aims and objectives of these three case studies can be summarised as differences between learning in practice and learning in theory. These different aims and learning outcomes also have impacts on the planning and delivery of course structure and module content. For example, there are more practice-based modules in Newcastle's programme, and within each module, the proportion of practice outweighs the proportion of the theory input. For Manchester and Leicester's programmes, however, all the core modules are theory-based, and the teaching content in each single module focuses more on theories, research methods and

generic knowledge than on practical problem-solving skills. In the following, the author intends to explore the course structure and module content of each case study in more detail.

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

3.3.1 Credit-based Course Structure: An Overview

In the UK, a degree course is normally credit-based. For example, a one-year postgraduate course should have/usually has/tends to have 180 credits in total, of which the dissertation (or targeted translation project in our context) takes up 60 credits. The MA Translation and Interpreting Studies at University of Manchester and MA Translation Studies at University of Leicester follow this. According to the MATIS Programme Handbook 2013-2014/2014-2015³⁴, the taught component of the Manchester programme combines core course units, specialist course units and dissertation. Of these, core modules cover 45 credits over both autumn and spring terms. This programme also provides 10 practice-oriented and research-oriented optional modules, 150 credits altogether (15 credits per unit). Students are asked to choose five optional modules, covering 75 credits. In the summer term, students also need to finish a 60-credit dissertation or translation project. In Leicester, only compulsory modules are offered. In addition to the dissertation section, students are expected to study 120 credits of compulsory modules and are strongly advised to attend a translator's workshop, although this is voluntary.

However, the Translating and Interpreting programme at Newcastle University is slightly different regarding the distribution of credits. As mentioned earlier in this study, Newcastle University offers two stages for its translating and interpreting programme. Students are enrolled either with a progression option (stage 1 to stage 2, which is two years) or directly into

³⁴Please consult the website for detailed information:
<http://documents.manchester.ac.uk/display.aspx?DocID=14088>

Stage 2 (1 year full time). This is subject to students' willingness and levels, which means that students will obtain a diploma upon successful completion of their study if they do not wish to continue to the Stage 2 course in Newcastle. In Stage 2, apart from 60 credits dissertation or translation project, students are able to study 70 credits compulsory modules and to choose 50 other credits of optional modules.

3.3.2 Course Structure at Each Case Study: Allocation of Modules

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

Table 3.4 Module Content of the MATIS Manchester³⁵

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

(MATIS Programme Handbook, 2014-2015)

³⁵ Note: P=Practice-oriented interpreting or translation options (involve language-specific translation or interpreting work); R=Research-oriented options

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

It is also essential to point out that modules might change each year according to the availability of staff (e.g. member staff’s research leave, maternity leave or other possible changes). For example, Cross-Cultural Pragmatics (R) and Audiovisual Translation II (R) were not offered in 2014-15, but offered in previous cohorts. In contrast, another two new modules: Translation Project Management and Professional Ethics (P) and Translation and Media Culture (R) were not offered in previous years, but provided in 2014-15.

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

As regards the MATS programme at the University of Leicester, its modules are shown in table 3.5.

Table 3.5 Module Content of the MATS Leicester

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

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

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

(Postgraduate Handbook MA in Translation Studies, 2013-14, p. 12)

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

Based on the discussions above, it is clear that modules designed for Leicester's programme are fully aligned with its aims, as shown in table 3.2. Theory-based modules are the mainstream, and practice-based units are complementary to theory, and are intended to provide students with some practical skills in order to complement the field of specialisation of translation/interpreting for work performance.

As regards the translation programme at Newcastle University, table 3.6 provides readers with the full list of modules offered in its course.

Table 3.6 Module Content of the MA T& I Newcastle³⁶

Stages	Compulsory Modules	Optional Modules
Stage 1	Translating I Simultaneous Interpreting I Sight Translation Exercise Consecutive Interpreting Information Technology for Translators and Interpreters	Key Concepts in Cooperate and Commercial Law Translating for the European Union's Institutions
Stage 2³⁷ (Translating Pathway)	Specialised Translation: Chinese to English Specialised Translation: English to Chinese Translation Studies II	English-Chinese Subtitle Translation Public Service Interpreting Drama Translation for Translators and Interpreters Literary Translation

³⁶ Modules might change each year according to the availability of staff.

³⁷ According to the previous introduction, students enrolled in Stage 2 mainly come from two channels: 1) upgrading from Stage 1; 2) Direct entry to Stage 2 if they meet the Stage 2 entry requirement. Therefore, there are overlapping modules between Stage 1 and Stage 2. Similarly, although four pathways (Translating; Interpreting; Translating and Interpreting; Translation Studies) are provided at Stage 2, students focusing on different pathways still have several common modules.

	Research Methods in Translating and Interpreting Professional Issues in Translating and Interpreting Consecutive Interpreting II OR Simultaneous Interpreting II Dissertation OR Translation/Interpreting Report	Key Concepts in Cooperate and Commercial Law Translating for the European Union's Institutions tory of Translation
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The course objectives always have an impact on the relevant course components. From table 3.6, it is noted that many modules regarding professional skills for translation and interpreting are offered at Newcastle programme. In Stage 2 for example, 5 out of the 9 core modules are practice-oriented, and 5 out of the 6 optional modules are practice-oriented. However, this does not mean that the Translating and Interpreting programme at Newcastle ignores the importance of theory. As a matter of fact, this programme has a balanced curriculum between theory and practice. In particular, there are overlaps and internal connections between theoretical and practical modules. For example, one of the core modules at Stage 2, Translation Studies II, aims to “enable students to situate their existing knowledge and skills within a wider world tradition of translating/interpreting and translation studies”, and to “give students a deeper understanding of the principles underlying various practical and professional issues in translation and interpreting, thus enabling them to become more reflective and self-improving

translators and/or interpreters (see Figure 3.3). In other words, the purpose of doing this is to link theory to practice and to help consolidate students' competences. In view of the above analysis, it can be summarised that the module content of the translation and interpreting programme at Newcastle is aligned with its course aims which intend cover both professional and academic training (see table 3.3). Those practice-oriented modules, on the one hand, provide students with translation competences, knowledge of specialist areas, and issues, ethics and principles of work in the T&I profession. On the other hand, consistent with Shih's findings from her 2011 study on possible benefits of translation theory, the theory-based modules at Newcastle provide students with opportunities to relate theories to their practice and to consolidate their understanding of translation as a whole.

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

In Chapter 2, an integrated map of market standards from the Europe (excluding the UK), the UK and China has been created (see table 2.4), which can represent the industry needs regionally, nationally or even internationally. These standards, in summary, are linguistic competence³⁸, translation competence, professionalism, knowledge of translation theory, and extra-linguistic knowledge. Taking this integrated map as a benchmark for designing and developing a curriculum for a translation degree, the above five parameters are partially covered in the three programmes, but are presented in different ways. In addition, all the three case studies are university-based postgraduate programmes; yet, vocational training schools, and academic conventions (e.g. research skills and methods) also need to be considered. Therefore, on the basis of table 2.4, the author has designed a composite model (see table 3.7) including requirements from both academia and the profession to calibrate how the three case studies in the UK deliver their courses, and to investigate that how these module content relate

³⁸ The detailed explanations of each competence have been introduced in Chapter 2.

to the course aims and objectives.

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

Table 3.7 Capabilities Required in University-based Translation Programmes

Competences/Abilities	Indicators ³⁹
Linguistic Competence	1 Knowing Chinese language (A language) 2 Knowing English language (B language) 3 Knowing transferrable skills between A and B
Translation Competence	1 Ability to analyse source text effectively 2 Strategies to cope with difficulties 3 Translating from B to A 4 Translating from A to B 5 Using computer-aided translation tools 6 Knowing new skills for a changing market
Professionalism	1 Workflow of translation tasks 2 Professional ethics 3 Client education 4 Developing Professionalism for Translators
Research and Theory	1 Relevant translation/interpreting theories ⁴⁰ 2 Independent research ability 3 Critical thinking ability
Extra-linguistic Knowledge	1 Subject area knowledge or cross-disciplinary knowledge 2 Interdisciplinary knowledge (e.g. linguistics/literatures) 3 Cross-cultural knowledge

³⁹ The detailed contents of each indicator in table 3.7 can be referred back to Chapter 2: market standards.

⁴⁰ Table 2.4 (the market standards) includes knowledge of translation theory; however, translation theory from the perspective of the market mainly concentrates on translation practices and analyses production in light of the theory, which is application-oriented. In table 3.7, the indicator 'Relevant translation/interpreting theories' consists of the broad range of topics covered in Translation Studies, including the history of translation studies, translation philosophy etc., which are academic-oriented.

Table 3.8 Competence-based Curriculum Map of Cases Studies in the UK

Competences	Indicators	Manchester	Leicester	Newcastle
Linguistic Competence	1			
	2			
	3			
Translation Competence	1	•	•	•
	2	•	•	•
	3	•	•	•
	4			•
	5	•	•	•
	6	•		•
Professionalism	1	•		•
	2	•		•
	3	•	•	•
	4	•		•
Research Theory	1	•	•	•
	2	•	•	•
	3	•	•	•
Extra-linguistic Knowledge	1			• ⁴¹
	2			
	3 ⁴²	•		

Two aspects of the competences shown in Table 3.8 stand out. Firstly, none of the three cases include linguistic competences as independent modules nor are the three indicators of linguistic competence reflected in the contents of translation-related modules. Even when analysing the source text(s), more attention is paid to the features of texts instead of the enhancement of pure

⁴¹ The indicator ‘Subject area knowledge’ was newly introduced as an independent module (Key Concepts in Corporate and Commercial Law) in Newcastle’s programme in 2014/15 cohort. The learning outcomes of this module have been introduced in Figure 3.2. In previous cohorts, subject area knowledge was mainly associated with two modules of specialised translation, where students were encouraged to developing “sufficient background knowledge in at least two subject areas of professional translating” (<http://www.ncl.ac.uk/module-catalogue/module.php?code=CHN8030>).

⁴² The module named ‘Cross-Cultural Pragmatics’ of MATIS in Manchester was not offered in 2014/15 cohort, but offered in previous years. However, this module is research-oriented, paying more attention to theoretical input rather than solving concrete tensions or misunderstandings in cross-cultural communications. More details are discussed in the following parts.

language, or differences between A and B languages. In the module content at Manchester and Leicester, linguistic competence is rarely mentioned. Although course designers from The Translating and Interpreting programme at Newcastle University stress the significance of English language input, relevant modules are not offered; instead, improving English language ability runs through students' self-practices.

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

In theory, students who study an MA translation programme should already have a higher level of language abilities. That is to say, language enhancement should not be one of the teaching targets. Instead, at postgraduate level, emphasis should be put on translation competence and professional issues to become a qualified translator. However, for the English-Chinese language combination, matters may be more complicated. Firstly, Gile (2010, p.18) did particular research on Chinese students' English levels, and concluded that the vast majority of students enrolled in English/Chinese translation and interpreting courses in both China and the UK are native speakers of Chinese whose acquaintance with foreign languages is usually on the basis of language courses at school. Their needs for language enhancement are relatively

much higher than those of their counterparts in the west. Secondly, despite the fact that students who study translation courses in the UK have more opportunity to be immersed in the English language and culture, a major enhancement in language competence cannot be realised in a short period of time. Thirdly, both English and Chinese for translators and interpreters differ from conversational English and Chinese. If an independent module on ‘Advanced English for Translators’ were established, experienced tutors who are native English speakers could help students develop their linguistic ability associated with communication tasks at translating and interpreting level. Finally, from the perspective of the market, accurate understanding of the source texts is always a very important indicator when assuring quality of translators’ work (see Chapter 2: market standards).

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

Normally, students would not have problems in understanding their native language, in our case Chinese. But producing equivalent and idiomatic Chinese is also indispensable in the process of English to Chinese translation. Students who study MA translation programmes (both in China and the UK) are mostly English major graduates, who have received limited

education about Chinese languages and cultures at undergraduate level. Similar to the point proposed above, Chinese translation language, especially for written translation, differs from conversational Chinese, which indicates that an English-Chinese translator also needs to have strong writing abilities in Chinese.

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

The second aspect of table 3.8 which stands out is that a ‘research and theory’ unit is fully embedded in the curricula of all the three cases. For instance, the three core modules (Translation and Interpreting Studies I; Research Methods in Translation & Interpreting Studies I; Research Methods in Translation & Interpreting Studies II) of MATIS in Manchester are designed to provide students with knowledge of contemporary theories of translation and interpreting, with a broad range of methods to conduct independent research in the area of

translation and interpreting, and with critical thinking ability to solve potential difficulties as well as to review and reflect on their own tasks. Moreover, Leicester's programme deems all the modules as research and theory-oriented. Even the professionally-oriented programme in Newcastle includes a 'research and theory' unit offering two theory-based core modules (Translation Studies and Research Methods in Translating and Interpreting). Based on the description above, it can be concluded that this method of designing mode coincides with UK universities' long tradition on research.

In addition to the two aspects discussed above, the three cases have different emphases regarding the remaining competences: translation competence, professionalism and extra-linguistic competence. Initially, 5 out of the 6 indicators of translation competence (table 3.8) are included in all the three cases in the UK, except for the ability to translate from A to B. This indicates that developing students' translating skills is the consensus among the three translation programmes, even though they have different methods to fulfil this. Newcastle's programme, Stage 2 for example, arranges two core modules (specialised translation from B to A/A to B) to enhance students' translation competence. Meanwhile, another five optional modules regarding translating in different contexts (audiovisual/literary/drama/international organisations) are provided. The MATIS in Manchester also offers students opportunities to study and practice different aspects of translation. This programme puts all the practical translation units in optional modules and divides these units into various areas such as science and technology, commerce, audiovisual and literature. As mentioned previously, all the modules included in Leicester's programme are theory-oriented, but course designers of this programme still cannot exclude translation competence completely due to the pressure of job seeking. Therefore, they try their best to add practice-based units into the module content, including the voluntary workshop for practical translation.

It is also worth pointing out that, from table 3.7 and 3.8, only Newcastle's programme contains Chinese to English translation in its curriculum, offering an independent module at Stage 2. Moreover, in the module 'Translating I' at Stage 1, Chinese into English translation tasks are also very common. But for the other two cases, there is a different situation. Translating from Chinese (A) into English (B) is neither part of the practical exercises in classes of professional translation nor a module at the MATIS in Manchester and Leicester's programmes⁴³. This shows that translating from A to B is still a controversial issue. According to Hatim (2005, p. 164), the consensus in most European translator-training organisations is that translating into the mother tongue is the 'normal' direction. Nevertheless, in real settings, translating into the major foreign languages is very much in demand, where native speakers of these languages are a small population (ibid, p.167). In China, with increasing communications in business, trade, technology and other sectors, the need for much translation into English is especially obvious⁴⁴.

It is also clear that the importance of computer-aided translation tools (indicator 5 of translation competence, table 3.7), which is highly demanded in the market, has received increasing attention. Both Newcastle's programme and MATIS in Manchester offer relevant modules with the aim of familiarising students in the use of technologies needed in the translating process, ranging from terminology research to document production. Leicester's programme does not provide students with such a separate module to deal with technological tools for translators, but the interview revealed that a short course on SDL Trados has been involved in this programme in order to enhance their students' employability. More specifically, similar to the translator's workshop, this SDL Trados short course is another voluntary element of this degree in Leicester. A series of introductions are designed, and a certificate exam is also included. If

⁴³ The Leicester programme used to require students to finish translation assignments both from and into their mother tongue every week, but cancelled translating exercises into their foreign languages since the 2013/14 cohort because students complaining that there were too many assignments to finish every week.

⁴⁴ More details on translating from Chinese into English are discussed in Chapter 4: the Chinese case studies.

students pass the exam, they will be awarded the level 1 certificate of SDL Trados. Clearly, all these three cases have realised the efficiency of using computers or technological tools to provide professionally presented documents (translated texts) in this modern world.

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

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

In our own context, based on the findings in tables 3.4/3.5/3.6, subject area knowledge included in the curricula of the three cases is mostly related to the second dimension. For example, the

MATIS in Manchester has grouped all the practice-oriented translation options under the section of optional modules, including translating for different contexts. Subject areas range from audio visual translation, and commercial translation to scientific and technical translation, and translating for international organisations.

In addition to the two core modules which are designed for English-Chinese specialised translation practices, Newcastle also offers optional modules regarding subject area knowledge, such as ‘Drama Translation for Translators and Interpreters’; ‘Translating for the European Union’s Institutions’ (newly introduced); ‘English-Chinese Subtitle Translation’. In this way, students become familiar with as many specialised translations as possible. Moreover, Newcastle also has one module in relation to the first dimension. This programme, in collaboration with Newcastle Law School, set up for the 2014/2015 cohort an independent module entitled ‘Key Concepts in Corporate and Commercial Law’, which mainly covers “basic legal terms and concepts, particularly in the areas of contract and company law”⁴⁵; but also place some emphasis on issues in legal translation.

Due to the fact that Leicester’s programme contains fewer practice-based units in its curriculum compared to Newcastle and Manchester, it is reasonable for this programme not to have many modules concerning subject area knowledge. For example, in the module of ‘Translation Studies Option’, written genres (e.g. advertising material; literary prose; news media texts and poetry) and multimodal texts (e.g. vocal music; dramatic texts; websites) are covered, but in view of the syllabus outline and key reading texts, critical analysis of the above genres and texts is the main teaching content (Postgraduate Handbook MA in Translation Studies 2013-14, p. 14-16). In the practice-based translators’ workshop, though students are encouraged to

⁴⁵ This content is required from Newcastle’s module catalogue at: <http://www.ncl.ac.uk/module-catalogue/module.php?code=LAW8049>.

produce short pieces of translation on a regular basis, the chosen texts are general texts instead of specialised ones⁴⁶. Apart from the texts for translating purposes, students are strongly encouraged to critically think about their translating processes. The critical-based questions show/suggest that learning through reflecting rather than learning by practising is the main method for this workshop.

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

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

However, the issue of subject area knowledge (specialisation) enhancement is controversial. As Gouadec points out (2007, p.349), universities are not vocational schools, but places for research and theory. Thus, students may have to develop their own knowledge of subject areas

⁴⁶ Detailed teaching contents of the translators’ workshop cannot be accessed openly; but the course director has kindly provided the author with internal materials for research purposes.

or translation experience for certain domains either through internships or during the first few months after they start practising as translators. Graduates with a too narrowly defined specialisation would run the risk of being excluded from certain market sectors on the grounds that their specialist profiles would not fit in. Hence, how much weight should be given to subject area knowledge in a university-based translating course needs to be considered by course designers.

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

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

(2012, p.24-25)

In the three case programmes, some of the above topics are included in the modules such as translation theory, or history of translation studies, but not displayed as independent modules. Possible modules such as ‘Translation and Language Teaching and Learning’, ‘Translation and Discourse Analysis’ are rarely seen in the curricula of the three chosen cases. But concepts and knowledge of the above areas proposed by Munday appear in modules like Translation Studies

(e.g. MATIS in Manchester) because there are always overlaps between Translation Studies and Linguistics, Literature, and more.

As regards the third indicator of extra-linguistic competence, only MATIS in Manchester offers an optional module called ‘Cross Cultural Pragmatics’. The other two cases, Newcastle’s and Leicester’s programmes may include relevant knowledge of cross-cultural communications in their teaching materials or along with the explanation of certain translation exercises, but neither of these two programmes offers an independent module on this. However, the module covered in Manchester is research-oriented and is not language specific. Although knowledge of cultural orientations and broader theories of cross-cultural communication are touched upon, this module as a whole, from the perspective of its contents, teaching method and assessment, is intended to develop students’ research expertise in the field of intercultural communication. More specifically, this module aims to “enable students to engage with some of the main theoretical traditions in socio-pragmatics, socio-linguistics, ethnography and linguistic anthropology, with particular emphasis on theories which offer productive ways of looking at translation and interpreting events” (MATIS Programme Handbook, 2013-14, p.31). Nonetheless, this module fails to discuss solving tangible problems occurring during the process of cross-cultural communications, let alone discussing the role of translators and interpreters on such occasions (e.g. diplomatic occasion; business negotiations). So to what extent can we make cross cultural communication more practical or target-oriented? We may find illuminating answers from the perspective of professional needs according to *the National Occupational Standards in Translation UK*: cross cultural communication can be understood as familiarity with the cultures of the languages to which translators translate, their conventions for communication, and the implications for localising translated texts. Kelly offers a similar

opinion, suggesting that for translators, it is essential to “acquire competence (know-how) in their working cultures’ perceptions, myths, beliefs, values, stereotypes, and so on” (2005, p.74).

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

Firstly, Newcastle’s programme offers a compulsory module concerning the translating profession (see table 3.6). This ‘Professional Issues in Translating and Interpreting’ module⁴⁷, offering an over-arching framework is intended to develop students’ professional skills. There are two main aims for this module: the key career-management skills needed to work in the translating and interpreting professions as well as the professional characteristics of work in key translating sub-fields. In addition, this module is team staffed, and each team member has his/her own expertise. As regarded in/by the interview, the module convenor is an editorial theorist, who specialises in poetry and literature. Two other professionals specialise in Law and Medicine, and an expert who runs an agency is also in the team. S/he can introduce how people are employed and paid. In sum, this module is led by one in-house staff member and another

⁴⁷ The details regarding this module are summarised based on the website information and the conversation with the course director. Please consult its website for further information:
<http://www.ncl.ac.uk/postgraduate/modules/module/SML8010/>

three professionals who deliver career structures, working methods, professional organisations, professionalism and ethics. The rationale for designing in this way is to provide students with a wider variety of expertise because all the staff members have their own areas of interests and expertise.

Apart from introducing professional issues to the students, Newcastle's programme contains a section named 'consulting informants' in the translating module (s), which is intended to help students learn how to consult colleagues or seniors in their future work. Consulting informants, in fact, is a reflection of the market needs, for any translators who work professionally may get stuck with difficulties. To surmount these, consulting someone is always a useful method. Although the internet is a useful medium to identify information, a vis-à-vis consultancy can be more reliable. Moreover, 'consulting informants' is a method that indirectly enhances students' interpersonal skills, which is another indispensable capability required by the translation market (see Chapter 2).

Secondly, MATIS in Manchester behaves different in dealing with professional issues. Relevant knowledge in certain domains is included in modules of specialised translation. In 'Translating for International Organisations', for example, the specific context and practices of translating for international organisations (IO), such as the European Union (EU) and the United Nations (UN), are introduced to students who are interested in working for such an organisation. In this module, varied tasks required of IO translators (i.e. précis writing, web translation) as well as careers as a translator for an IO are thoroughly presented (MATIS Programme Handbook, 2013-14, p.32). This programme, as mentioned previously, has introduced a new optional module in 2014/2015 cohort called 'Translation Project Management and Professional Ethics', aiming to familiarise students with typical professional practices in the translation sector and giving students an opportunity to assume and practise

various roles (e.g. freelance translator, translation project manager, translation reviser, post-editor of machine translation). Meanwhile, a range of theoretical approaches are introduced in this single module to help students to conceptualise the translation sector and their prospective role within it, to understand the importance of professional ethics and to empower them as reflective professionals (MATIS Programme Handbook, 2014-2015, p.38).

Finally, despite the fact that Leicester's programme is theory and research oriented, and offers fewer practice-based modules, course designers still cannot entirely neglect the importance of professional requirements. But compared to other two cases, professional input in Leicester's programme only serves a complementary role to the core theoretical modules. All the relevant knowledge and activities are included in the translators' workshop. The interview revealed that it is known that in the translators' workshop, designers explain certain issues from the professional world, such as the workflow of a free-lance translator, ranging from providing a purchase order to the details of charge. But professional issues like 'professional ethics' (indicator 2 within Professionalism, table 3.8) and 'continuing professional development' (indicator 4 within Professionalism, table 3.9) are not introduced to students. Indicator 3, 'client education', is partially mentioned.

From the perspective of teaching and methods, students are encouraged to organise different groups by themselves and take different roles, and use screen recording software to record their performances for reflective work in the near future. Actually, role-play is a very welcome teaching technique, and a survey has revealed that it is "used in 62% of training programmes" (Harris and DeSimone, 1994, p.151). When applying role-play to translation activities, it can be understood as students assuming different roles for different tasks. Within a small group, roles are allocated to mimic professional situations. To be more explicit, one student may act as the client/commissioner, another as the terminologist, the translator, the project manager, or

the financial assistant to perform a mock translation work flow. This, to some extent, is an effective way for students to understand working situations in the translating profession. However, with reference to this type of activity, attention should be paid to make sure that roles are switched; otherwise, some students tend to take on a role that they are good at and will never try other characters. In this situation, teachers serve as guides and consultants who can help set the stage for learning events in which students will be immersed in professional translating roles by experiencing realistic simulated activities.

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

3.4 Professionally or Theoretically Oriented Approaches to Translation Teaching

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

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

Another case, the MATS in Leicester contrasts with Newcastle's programme, being theoretically oriented in both course aims and module content (see 3.2 and 3.3). Also, in conversation with the course director of the MATS in Leicester, it was revealed that practical

skills for translators are not the most important target for this programme; instead, translation theory, intellectual learning or reflective learning matter more. In this regard, ‘theory’, ‘research’ and ‘reflective learning’ are three key words for Leicester’s programme.

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

The Strategic Plan for the University of Manchester (2015/2020 version) shows that the University of Manchester focuses strongly on research and leadership. For example, world-class research is one of their strategic visions. Also, “to make The University of Manchester one of the top 25 universities in the world by 2015 and to remain thereafter a world-leader in the quality of the higher education we offer...” is a core part of their mission. An institution’s development plan may shed some light on every single discipline. Translation Studies is no exception. The impact of the university’s strategic plan might be another implicit factor when designing the course content for the MATIS programme. It is true that both the University of Manchester and its language-related disciplines (including Translation Studies) are excellent in research. In the recently published Research Excellence Framework (2014), University of Manchester ranked in the top 5 in terms of overall research achievements, while the school of

arts, languages and cultures was confirmed as a leading centre for the study of the arts, languages and cultures (including TS) in the UK.

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

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

(MATIS Programme Handbook, 2014-2015, p. 33)

From the above description, the teaching content of this module relies heavily on instructor’s exposition rather than on students’ own practice of translating scientific texts. Moreover, teaching activities of this module also demonstrated this knowledge-based teaching. This module is delivered through a combination of lectures and language-specific tutorials. Of these, there are 11 lectures open to all language combinations, whilst only 4 language-specific language tutorials are offered for students to focus on practical translation work (ibid, p.33).

Due to the limitations of students having different language combinations, it is easier to run more lectures which can fit every student in.

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

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

3.5 Chapter Summary

To conclude, establishing, maintaining, and evaluating connections between curricula and research are quite normal among British Universities, which is more theory-based. Integrating current research accomplishments into the teaching and learning process has many benefits. Healey, in support of research-driven curriculum content, argues (2005, p.67) that “students are likely to gain most benefit from research, in terms of depth of learning and understanding,

when they are also involved in research, for example, through various forms of active learning”. In so doing, students become confident in their ability to apply concepts while gaining professional experience which in return benefits the subject and faculty (Kaiser-Drobney, 1997).

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

Of course, some scholars have shown their concerns about going too far down the vocational road. Peach (2000), for instance, warns that professionalism within the universities may cause the explosion of vocational subjects, decreasing the prominence of academic knowledge. However, applying market needs to the current university-based curriculum does not mean the

elimination of research or academic skills. There is no doubt that education received in universities means far more than merely acquiring working skills needed in the profession. It is not an apprenticeship. On the contrary, “professionally-oriented courses must be supported by theoretical analyses of the process involved (models as the outcome of research programmes) and the models should be grounded in a clear perception and understanding of professional realities and constraints” (Gouadec, 2007, p.368). Actually there is no need to worry about the status of ‘theory’ in translator training programmes. Professionally oriented research has already found its place in translation theories, feeding appropriately into the applied branch of translation studies proposed by Holmes and Toury (Munday, 2008). To be more precise, market research, in the field of business studies, has been recognised for several years and is used as one of the most common types of research in commercial curriculum development. It is consumer-oriented research about the customer and what the customer wants (Clements, 2007, p.45). With reference to translation studies, solid research projects about the translation profession still need to be established. For those subjects with a strong practical character, developing new research models about market needs may actually enrich the academic areas.

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

Chapter 4 Analysis of the Current Curricula in the Chinese MTI Programme

4.1 Introduction

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

The MTI Programme, established as a professionally-oriented degree course, has a very specific aim to ensure its graduates become high calibre professional translators to serve the nation's economic, social and cultural development. This aim could be achieved through 'training' by providing students with a significant amount of transferrable employability-related course components. From the perspective of our three cases, they have each formulated their own objectives and adopted different strategies to train professional translators. It can be seen from the analysis in this chapter that the MTI programme at Peking University (PKU) and the MTI programme at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (GDUFS) both in possession of more resources tend to have a higher degree of employability related (professional) issues, whereas the MTI programme at Central China Normal University (CCNU) as well as other under-funded programmes have the opposite tendency. The tension between education and training, or between theory and practice, is still extant in their curricula.

This chapter comprises five parts. Section 4.2 introduces the establishment and development of the professional degree in China, which is an outstanding example to demonstrate the tension between academic requirements and the industry needs in the Chinese HE sector. The core aim

of this type of degree course is to cultivate more application-oriented practicing experts in almost every sector in China, in which the MTI Programme is the representative of the translation and language sector. In the subsequent two sections (section 4.3 and 4.4), the curricula of the three case studies is discussed from the perspectives of course aims, module content, internship and other professional activities. A number of examples are offered along with the discussion in order to determine: 1) to what extent the course aims and the module content are aligned with the professional needs; 2) the specific features of each MTI programme in this study. Section 4.5 concludes this chapter and prepares for the in-depth comparison in Chapter 5.

4.2 Introduction to the Postgraduate Professional Degree⁴⁸

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

The Professional Degree has been issued in China since 1990, and is designed to meet the professional requirements in pertinent industries. The Professional Degree is equally as important as the more research-oriented Academic Degree, but is differentiated in course objectives. The Professional Degree aims at cultivating practical and professional talents for the market. Currently, the Professional Degree includes three levels: bachelor's, master's and doctoral degrees. According to the latest statistics, there are 39 subjects at master's level of which Master of Business Administration, Master of Public Administration and the Master of Law are the best-known representatives⁴⁹.

⁴⁸ The information on the Professional Degree in China is summarised from the official website of the China Academic Degree and Graduate Education Information, which can be accessed at: <http://www.cdgd.edu.cn/xwyyjsjyxx/gjil/>

⁴⁹ Please refer to the appendix 5 for the full list of professional degrees at master's level in China.

Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI) in China

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

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

Within this framework, the “Plan of Setting up Specialties for the Master Degree of Translation and Interpreting” (hereafter ‘the official guiding plan’) was issued. This plan is divided into seven sections: aims; admissions; length of study; training mode; course design; dissertations; degree conferring. In principle, MTI programmes should design their own curriculum on the basis of the official guiding plan. The secretariat of the MTI Committee, the executive body, was established at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies.

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

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

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

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

Table 4.1 Course Aims Suggested in the Official Guiding Plan

Programme	Course Objectives
The MTI Programme (In general)	• MTI graduates to be qualified and high-level interpreters and translators in different fields with professional integrity, language competence, and also with a good command of interpreting and translation skills and a wide range of knowledge.

	• To provide students with opportunities to develop the skills, qualities, knowledge and experience to play a vital role in the enhancement of China's global competitiveness • To serve the nation's economic, social and cultural development
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Table 4.1 shows that the MTI Programme is purely application-oriented, while theoretical components are almost absent from its aims. As a professional degree course, the aims and objectives of MTI programmes should be distinct from the academic-oriented MA course which places more emphasis on translation skills, research methods and skills, and translation theories. MTI programmes, in contrast, should be designed to develop students' translation skills and competences, subject area knowledge and intellectual capacity to understand issues, ideas and values of humanity (Zhong and Mu, 2008; Mu and Wang, 2011). Moreover, in the global context, China has been involved in numerous transnational interactions and exchanges in fields such as culture, business, information, technology and academic research, which requires large-scale translation-assisted services (Tang and Gentzler, 2008). Therefore, in addition to building students' language and translation competences, it is also essential to develop their understanding of knowledge in highly specialised fields or domains. In addition, as China is now playing an increasingly important role in the world affairs, interpreting China into other languages, especially the world language English, and vice versa, has assumed a new significance. Effective communication with the rest of the world is therefore vital for the country's further development in all spheres of life (e.g. economic, political, and cultural areas). In this sense, translators and language experts are largely needed to help bridge the cultural gap

during these communications. The MTI programme is then given a role to play with in this national strategy.

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

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

Table 4.2 Course Aims of the MTI/MLA Programme at Peking University

Programme	Course Objectives
The MTI programme at PKU ⁵⁰	The core objective of the MTI Education Centre of Peking University is to prepare its students for their future careers as professional translators and interpreters in humanities and social sciences, focusing on the enhancement of their translation skills and work ethic, as well as the accumulation of career-related experiences and a strong awareness of modern language service technologies. The programme provides quality training to students with the stress on broadening their intellectual horizons and the breadth of their knowledge in order to qualify them in various fields of translation (especially Humanities and Social Sciences) at professional, practical and advanced levels.

⁵⁰ The content of the course objectives of the MTI PKU is from the programme prospectus (hard copy) which was provided by the director of the MTI education centre of Peking University for research purposes.

The MTI programme at PKU⁵¹ (since 2013)	In this intensive two-year's postgraduate course, we aim to: • improve your bilingual competences (English-Chinese), transferrable skills between these two language, and practical competences to use language technologies • build your practical language administration and management competence through engagement with business • develop your translation skills to meet the requirements from the translation accreditation tests • produce high calibre managers and administrators who can successfully work in the language services industry
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The MTI programme at PKU has shifted its course aims since the September in 2013. It is now the Master of Language Administration (MLA), and is also the first of its kind in China. More specifically, training professional translators was the core focus of the MTI programme at PKU. It had the aim of developing students' translation skills and cultivating a professional perspective through a mix of teaching, teamwork, and opportunities for gaining career advice and work experience. Furthermore, translation and language technology was also given much attention in this MTI course. From the programme brochure it is clear that a cross-disciplinary pathway; Computer-Aided Translation, was jointly established by the MTI education centre and the department of language and information engineering at Peking University in 2008. It was hoped that the close cooperation and sharing of educational resources between the two

⁵¹ The content of the course objectives of the MTI programme at PKU stems from the online course flyer and programme specification, which can be accessed at: <http://mti.sfl.pku.edu.cn/show.php?contentid=440> (2012) and <http://mti.sfl.pku.edu.cn/show.php?contentid=507> (2013).

institutions could prepare students for high-value employment in the field of language technologies and localisation. This pathway was the first of its kind in China to fully incorporated CAT tools and knowledge of IT hardware and software into the translation curriculum.

The core aim of the MLA pathway is to nurture managers and language administrators working in the language services industry (see also table 4.2). This new pathway at Peking University has been established in response to the burgeoning of language services in China. As defined in its online programme specification⁵² and in conversations with the director of the MTI education centre, we know that at present, the total gross value of language service industries worldwide is roughly 3.3 billion US dollars. This number grew 12% each year between 2010 and 2013. China, nevertheless, has only a 7% market share. With the rapid process of globalisation in China, there will be far more space for language services. According to the statistics from China International Publishing Group, there are altogether 13000 companies registered as ‘Language Services’. The rapidly changing market indicates that there is huge demand for professional experts who can work in the language services industry. In line with market demands, the course designers of the MTI programme at PKU are considering shifting its training focus from professional translators to “translation project manager, senior translator, marketing manager, technical manager and other position” (Wang, 2012, p. 67). In short, the MLA programme prepares its students to become experienced managers who can work in the language services industry, and beyond.

The second case study in the Chinese context, the MTI programme at GDUFs, shares the same course aims as the official guiding plan, listed in table 4.1; however, the past two to three years have also seen numerous optimisations and innovations of the programme. More specifically,

⁵² Please consult the website at: <http://mti.sfl.pku.edu.cn/show.php?contentid=507>

five specialisations have been established within the MTI programme, namely MTI Conference Interpreting, MTI Community Interpreting, MTI Commercial Translation, MTI Legal Translation, and MTI Media Translation. Of these, the first two specialisations belong to the Interpreting pathway; while the latter three are translation-oriented. The main points of the aims and objectives in the three specialisations are displayed in table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Course Aims of the MTI programme at GDUFS

Programme	Course Objectives
MTI GDUFS	• MTI graduates to be qualified and high-level interpreters and translators in different fields with professional integrity, language competence, and also with a good command of interpreting and translation skills and a wide range of knowledge. • To provide students with opportunities to develop the skills, qualities, knowledge and experience to play a vital role in the enhancement of China's global competitiveness. • To serve the nation's economic, social and cultural development
MTI Commercial Translation	• This specialisation aims to provide students with essential knowledge and skills to become highly skilled, professional and practical translators and interpreters in the field of business and commerce. • Graduates from this specialisation are equipped with an understanding of international business and

	management. They are expected to successfully deal with all types of commercial documentation. They can also develop their career paths as in-house translators in the commercial sectors and transnational companies.
MTI Legal Translation	• This specialisation aims to provide students with essential knowledge and skills to become highly skilled, professional and practical translators and interpreters in the field of law. • Graduates from this specialisation are equipped with a critical approach to understanding law. They are expected to successfully deal with all legal or legally binding documents. They can also develop their career paths as in-house translators in the Court of Justice, international organisations, law firms and transnational companies.
MTI Media Translation	• This specialisation aims to provide students with essential knowledge and skills to become highly skilled, professional and practical translators and interpreters in the field of journalism and mass media. • Graduates from this specialisation are equipped with a comprehensive grounding in the theories, approaches and practical skills of studying and

	understanding media and communication process. They are expected to successfully deal with trans-edited news or other multimodal tools. They can also develop their career paths as trans-editors and audiovisual translators.
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Table 4.3 shows different prospects and emphasis of the three specialisations of the MTI programme at GDUFS. But first and foremost, it is clear that the course aims and objective of this course are closely linked with China's economic and social development. More specifically, the aims and objectives should fit the government's developing strategies, such as the strategy of 'Chinese Culture Going Out' and the strategy of Chinese firms 'Go Global' (see more in Chapter 5). MTI programmes are expected to make contributions to help promote Chinese culture in other countries and to help bridge language and cultural gaps in the internationalisation process of Chinese firms.

Opinions have been expressed that universities do not have to concern about professional specialisation because universities, being distinct from vocational schools, are places for research and theory. Students can acquire specialisation through work placements or during the first few months of their career (Gouadec, 2007, p. 349). However, given the large-scale demands for professional translators in almost every sector in China, course designers of the MTI programme at GDUFS believe that it will benefit graduates' career development if more specialised course aims and module content can be offered. If MTI students have one or two foci regarding subject area knowledge, it might be easier for them to find translation-related jobs in pertinent specialised domains. Generic training for translators is not enough to meet the current market demands in China. Moreover, the MTI programme at GDUFS is also

considering opening up another pathway of ‘Management in Translation and Localisation’ (Zhao and Mu, 2013), in response to the rapid development of the language services industry.

The MTI programme at CCNU claims its training focus to be professional-oriented, and they have designed a series of modules, in collaboration with professional translators (or equivalents) to fulfil this aim. However, from an overall viewpoint, this course still has some vagueness in defining course objectives, in that there is no distinct difference between its new MTI programme and its traditional MA in Translation Studies. Table 4.4 demonstrates the course aims and objectives of its MTI course.

Table 4.4 Course Objectives of MTI CCNU

Programme	Course Objectives
MTI CCNU	This course provides students with opportunities to learn a wide range of history and theories of translation in China and the West, and to apply these theories to practice. This course expects their graduates to be able to conduct research in Translation Studies as well as to conduct different practical translation tasks. Graduates should also be able to serve the nation’s economic and social development. More specifically, this course aims to: 1) develop students’ comparative linguistic abilities (English and Chinese competences and transferrable abilities)

	2) provide students with solid translation competences and encyclopaedic knowledge so as to translate texts and documents in various subject areas 3) enhance students' knowledge of translation theories
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Table 4.4 shows that the aims and objectives of the MTI programme at CCNU are not as specific as the other two case studies. There is no specialised field in its programme prospectus that students can develop as their future career paths. Instead, this programme prepares its students to work in a range of different careers. Moreover, we can see that aims 2 and 3 are similar to the aims of the translation programmes in the UK, which place a certain amount of emphasis on theoretical components and abstract knowledge. Developing linguistic competence is another important goal in this programme. In section 4.4 we can also see that this theoretical course aim has a profound influence on the design and delivery of its module content.

In view of the course aims in the three case studies above, it can be summarised that the two MTI programmes at Peking University and Guangdong University of Foreign Studies have made positive responses to the challenge of designing professional-oriented translation courses, placing different foci due to their own understanding of the market demands and their available resources. The MTI programme at CCNU, like the majority of the MTI programmes, is struggling with differentiating the MTI course and the MA in Translation Studies. Although nurturing professional translators is one of its aims, theoretical foci still account for a large proportion. As Ornstein and Hunkins (2009, p. 205) argue, designing a curriculum requires a vision of education's meaning and purposes. The specific meaning and purposes will also impact essential concepts, attitudes, and skills. In our context, course aims do influence the

module content and other collaborative activities outside academia. Moreover, to design a curriculum, we must consider how its parts interrelate (ibid, p. 182), so the next section will explore how the course components are organised based on the course aims.

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

The aims and objectives of certain courses are delivered by a series of relevant modules. This section will continue by analysing the modules which are recommended in the official guiding plan and offered in each case programme as well as analysing what competences are included in these modules. More specifically, the alignment between the course aims and module content is explored in order to investigate to what extent course aims influence the design of modules. Moreover, due to the fact that fostering professional translators is the crux of the MTI degree, the ratio between theory-based modules and practice-oriented modules and the reasons for the weighting of theory vs practice are also analysed. Finally, as the MTI programme at PKU and the MTI programme at GDUFS include some degree of specialisation in their courses, it is therefore reasonable to investigate to what extent the ‘specialist skills/competences’ are included in the modules.

4.4.1 Modules Recommended by the Official Guiding Plan

The official guiding plan suggests that the following modules should be embedded in MTI courses (see table 4.5).

Table 4.5 Modules Recommended by the Official Guiding Plan

Modules	Categorisation	Module Names
Core Modules	For All Postgraduates	1) Political Science 2) Chinese Language and Culture
	For MTI Students	1) Translation Theory 2) Translation Theories and Applications 3) Interpreting Theories and Applications
	Translating Pathway	1) Translating Non-literary Texts 2) Translating Literary Texts
	Interpreting Pathway	1) Consecutive Interpreting 2) Simultaneous Interpreting
Optional Modules	General	1) A Second Foreign Language 2) A Short History of Translation and Interpreting in China and the West 3) Translation Appreciation and Criticism 4) Intercultural Communications 5) Contrastive Studies and Translation between English and Chinese 6) Computer-aided Translation
	Interpreting Pathway	1) Sight Translation 2) Interpreting with Specialised Subject Matter 3) Conference Interpreting 4) Business Interpreting 5) Court Interpreting 6) Interpreting for Foreign Affairs 7) Mock Conference Interpreting 8) Interpreting Workshop
	Translating Pathway	1) Technical Writing 2) Scientific and Technical Translation 3) Translating for International Conferences 4) Business Translation

		5) Legal Translation 6) Media Translation 7) Translating Chinese Masterpieces 8) Translation Workshop 9) Localisation and Translation Project Management
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(The Official Guiding Plan, 2011, p. 2-4)

From table 4.5, it is clear that the suggested core modules show a combination of theory and practice, but the vast majority of the optional modules are practice-oriented, which reflects the practical aim of the MTI programme. Moreover, translating for different domains is of paramount importance according to this table (see *optional modules – translating pathway*). Many translation specialists consider that the greater subject area knowledge a professional translator has, the better for the practice of specialised translation (Gouadec, 2007). The normal way for universities to deal with subject area knowledge is to give specialised translation modules (ibid, 2007), and the MTI Programme is no exception, as shown in table 4.5. These subject areas (scientific and technical, legal, business, media) are simply examples which represent the general market needs. Each university could establish more specialised modules in accordance with their available resources to cultivate professionals who can work in areas of greater specialisation. A key area is that of medicine (Pellatt and Liu, 2010). For example, with the aim of training medical translators and interpreters, the Xi'an Jiaotong University MTI programme offers modules dealing with translating health leaflets, medical reports or traditional Chinese medicine (Nie, Chen, and Bai, 2013). Further, compared to the 2007 version of the official guiding plan, translation technology and project management have received greater attention. The module 'Localisation and Translation Project Management' is now

included in the official guiding plan. This is because the localisation service sector now contributes to more than half of the output of the translation industry⁵³ (TAC, 2009). Providing students with basic knowledge in this area is therefore essential. Additionally, modules relating to introducing Chinese language and culture are suggested in this guiding plan. These two modules are ‘Chinese Language and Culture’ and ‘Translating Chinese Masterpieces’, which are adopted in two of our case programmes (the MTI programme at GDUFS and the MTI programme at CCNU). These two modules are in line with the strategy of ‘Chinese Culture Going Out’; however, it could be difficult to generate translators competent to translate Chinese classics to the rest of the world on the basis of these introductory modules alone.

4.4.2 Course Components Explained in the Three Case Studies

Since the modules suggested by the guiding plan are not compulsory, the three case programmes have their own foci when designing their modules. In the MTI programme at PKU, the curriculum of the MTI Education Centre includes mandatory courses, restricted elective courses, and optional courses⁵⁴, and “we also recommend to our students some courses in humanities and social sciences offered by other colleges and departments of the university” (Programme Prospectus, p. 9). The module content of the former translation pathway at Peking University is displayed in table 4.6, while modules offered in the newly established language administration pathway are shown in table 4.7⁵⁵.

⁵³ This information is obtained from the report on ‘The Features of the Translation and Localisation Service Market in China’, which can be accessed at: http://www.tac-online.org.cn/en/tran/2009-10/14/content_3180378.htm (TAC, 2009).

⁵⁴ Mandatory courses are equivalent to core modules in the UK. Restricted elective course means that although these courses are elective, students still need to choose some of them to study. Students do not need to select all the restricted select courses in the list. The same is true for optional courses.

⁵⁵ The detailed information of the module content and the following analysis are summarised from 1) Programme Prospectus (hard copy); 2) the online course flyer and programme specifications, which can be accessed at: <http://mti.sfl.pku.edu.cn/show.php?contentid=440> (2012); <http://mti.sfl.pku.edu.cn/show.php?contentid=507> (2013) 3) the conversation with the course director, who explained the rationales and the detailed content of specific modules.

Table 4.6 Module Content of the MTI programme at PKU

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

Table 4.7 Module Content of the MTI programme at PKU

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

From the above two tables (4.6 and 4.7), we can summarise the following three major characteristics with regard to the module content at Peking University. Firstly, modules offered by the MTI programme at PKU reflect the practical aims required by the official guiding plan,

placing much emphasis on translation practice and translation as a profession. Moreover, it can be seen that modules offered in this course have been updated compared to the official guiding plan. For example, the module ‘Translation and Editing’ was a core module in the translation pathway of the Peking University programme, but was not included in the official guiding plan. The director explained that a number of MTI students do not become translators after graduation; instead, English newspapers and other editorial or publishing houses might be alternative destinations for them. According to Mossop (2006), the work of an editor, which is differentiated from that of a translator, requires skills of editing, rewriting or adapting. Therefore, there might be a situation in which the MTI graduate needs to compile a series of useful documents and then rewrite all the information if he or she were to work for a newspaper office or publishing house. It is then necessary to integrate the employer’s needs into the curriculum to at least familiarise their students with the basic workflow. Offering ‘Translation and Editing’ is based on such considerations.

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

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

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

Table 4.8 Module Content in the MTI programme at GDUFS (Three Pathways)⁵⁶

Module Type		Module Name
Compulsory	All Postgraduates	Political Science
		Chinese Language & Culture
Compulsory	All Translating	On Translation A Foundation Course in Interpreting A Foundation Course in Translation
Compulsory (Pathways)	Commercial Translation	Literary Translation Non-literary Translation Business and Commercial Translation Business Interpreting
	Legal Translation	Literary Translation Non-literary Translation Legal Translation Court Interpreting
	Media Translation	Literary Translation Non-literary Translation Media Translation Media Interpreting
	For All Three	A Short History of Translation and Interpreting in China and Other Countries Intercultural Communications Contrastive Studies and Translation between English and Chinese A Second Foreign Language Translating Chinese Masterpieces Scientific and Technical Translation Documentary Translation Translation Workshop

⁵⁶ The module content of the MTI programme at GDUFS is summarised from: 1) online course information; 2) interview with the course director; 3) internal programme specifications which are permitted to be used for research purposes only.

		Interpreting Workshop Computer-aided Translation Translation in the Subject Area of Tourism
Optional	Commercial Translation Only	Introduction to International Business Translation Appreciation and Criticism An Introduction to Stylistics Interpreting with Specialised Subject Matter Media Translation Translating Legal or Legally Binding Documents
	Legal Translation Only	Forensic Linguistics Legal Document Writing and Translation Stylistics and Translation of Legal Documents Legal Systems in the West and China Commercial and Business Translation Business Interpreting An Introduction to International Business Media Translation
	Media Translation Only	Trans-editing Interviewing, Recording and Editing of News An Introduction to Stylistics Translation Appreciation and Criticism Business Translation Business Interpreting An Introduction to International Business
Internship		

Table 4.8 demonstrates the full list of modules offered at the MTI programme at GDUFs. The following three characteristics can be summarised from this table. Firstly, the module content, which is practice-oriented, is aligned with its course aims. It also includes many modules (both core and optional) suggested in the official guiding plan. Secondly, students of these three pathways can not only develop specialised language skills (e.g. building up specialised vocabulary and expressions and then translating them in the foreign language, and vice versa), but also have the chance to develop specialised background knowledge (González Davies, 2004, p. 167). Modules such as ‘Legal System in the West and China’, ‘Introduction to International Business’ and ‘Interviewing, Recording, and Editing of News’ are offered in this programme in order to help students acquire sufficient basic knowledge to understand the major concepts in specialised translation. In fact, there seems to be a consensus that translators have the duty to convey the underlying messages (e.g. cultural issues) behind the words (e.g. technical terms). Therefore, the more translators know about what lies behind the words, the better they can assure the quality of translation (González Davies, 2004; Pellatt and Liu, 2010). Thirdly, in these three pathways, more modules are available in the legal field for linguistic, translation issues, and background knowledge. Staff expertise could be the most important reason to explain this. The translation programme at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies has a core staff member who is specialised in forensic linguistics and legal translation (see table 5.7, staff member 6). In addition to offering modules in the legal field, this core staff member could also bring other resources, such as collaborations between Guangdong University of Foreign Studies and the legal profession, or international conferences on Forensic Linguistics.

Compared to the MTI programmes at Peking University and Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, our third case study — the MTI programme at CCNU — is relatively conservative in designing modules. On the one hand, the module content relies on the guidelines provided by

the MTI committee. On the other hand, in line with its course aims, the module content of this MTI course also reflects the tension between theory and practice. Table 4.9 displays the list of modules offered at Central China Normal University.

Table 4.9 Module Content of the MTI programme at CCNU⁵⁷

Module Type	Module Name
Core Modules	An Introduction to Translation Theories Practical Translation (English to Chinese) Practical Translation (Chinese to English) Applied Translation Practice Translation Criticism
Optional Modules (Translation Pathway)	Contrastive Studies and Translation between English and Chinese Rhetoric and Writing between English and Chinese Computer-aided Translation Translating Chinese Masterpieces Theories and Applications of Literary Translation A Short History of Translation in China and the West Translation and Culture Sight Translation Subtitling Translation ⁵⁸ News Translation

⁵⁷ The detailed information of the module content and the following analysis of the MTI programme at CCNU are based on the interview with its course director.

⁵⁸ At the time of the interview with the director of the translation department, the module ‘Subtitling Translation’ was not fully established, but they claimed that they can staff this module, and would establish it soon.

	Theories and Applications of Interpreting An Introduction to Linguistics Discourse Analysis Translation Workshop
Others	Internship and Others

From table 4.9 it is clear that the MTI programme at CCNU, although reflecting a certain degree of professionalism, is not as specialised as the other two cases. Moreover, modules included in this programme can reflect part of its aims and objectives, especially aim 2 and 3, but cannot reflect aim 1 (refer back to table 4.4). In short, the module content of this MTI course has the following three characteristics. Firstly, a large number of modules offered in this translation programme have an obvious and inherent link with the longer established disciplines, such as Linguistics and Cultural Studies. For example, four optional modules are related to the field of Linguistics: ‘Contrastive Studies and Translation between English and Chinese’; ‘Rhetoric and Writing between English and Chinese’; ‘An Introduction to Linguistics’; and ‘Discourse Analysis’. Moreover, modules in translating (Chinese) cultures suggested in the official guiding plan can also be found in the MTI programme at CCNU. Secondly, translating literal texts is another specialty in this MTI course. The two core modules: ‘Practical Translation (English to Chinese)’ and ‘Practical Translation (Chinese to English)’ principally deal with literary translation. Another optional module is also offered to introduce theories and practices in literary translation. The rationale for offering such modules is the staff expertise. As proposed by Gouadec, in many countries (and China is a case in point), “literary translation and publishing translations of foreign work are part of the research output expected of lectures who work in language and literature departments” (2007, p. 164). It is true in the case of our

investigation that many staff members in this programme have conducted research in this way (see table 5.9), and have a greater interest in researching literature, linguistics, and cultural studies than in translation studies, especially the applied branch. Finally, as a professionally-oriented degree course, a certain number of theoretical components are included. The academic institution should undoubtedly have full responsibility for the groundwork, and for introducing concepts and abstract knowledge to students, but “how to prepare graduates for the needs of the diverse profession in the rapidly changing market” (Schäffner, 2012, p. 37) in a very theoretical system should be taken into careful consideration by the course designers.

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

In chapter 3, we applied the integrated map of market standards from the Europe, the UK and China to calibrate the course components in the UK cases in order to investigate how the module content reflects the balance between academic and professional pedagogies (see table 2.4 and table 3.7). In this chapter, we will continue to use these indicators in the Chinese context so as to summarise the features of the Chinese MTI courses. Table 4.10 shows how the modules in the official guiding plan and in the three case studies reflect market demands.

Table 4.10 Competence-based Curriculum Map of Case Studies in China

Competences	Indicators ⁵⁹	Official Guiding Plan	Peking University	Guangdong University of Foreign Studies	Central China Normal University
Linguistic Competence	1	•	•	•	•
	2	•	•	•	•
	3	•	•	•	•
Translation Competence	1	•	•	•	•
	2	•	•	•	•
	3	•	•	•	•
	4	•	•	•	•
	5	•	•	•	•
	6 ⁶⁰		•	•	
Professionalism	1	•	•	•	•
	2		•		
	3		•		
	4		•		
Research ⁶¹ Theory	1	•	•	•	•
	2		•		
	3				
Extra-linguistic Knowledge	1	•	•	•	•
	2	•	•	•	•
	3	•	•	•	•

⁵⁹ Please refer back to table 2.4 and table 3.7 for the full content of each indicator.

⁶⁰ One aspect of the six indicator localisation is included in the module content of the MTI programme at PKU, but aspects, such as audiovisual translation, multimedia translation and technical writing, are not included. The basic concepts and knowledge of audiovisual translation is introduced in the MTI programme at GDUFs.

⁶¹ Indicators 2 ('Independent research ability') and 3 ('Critical thinking ability') of the 'Research Theory' section are not standards generated from the market, but are updated from table 3.7 in that despite the professional aim, the MTI programmes are still established within universities. Therefore, it is necessary to include requirements from the academic world to calibrate the module content.

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

Bilingual Competences and Contrastive Linguistics

It is summarised from table 4.10 shows that all the three indicators in the first section ‘linguistic competence’ — especially indicator 2 and 3 — are included within the framework of the MTI Programme, but are entirely absent in the UK cases. As regards the Chinese cases, course directors of both the MTI programmes at Peking University and at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies expressed the importance of enhancing native language competence for MTI students, arguing that although the B language (which here refers to English) is the training focus, it does not mean that MTI students neglect their A language competence (which here refers to Chinese). Moreover, “the study of two languages in contrast in an attempt to identify general and specific differences between them” (Munday, 2012, p. 14) is of paramount significance in translation activities. However, the real situation is that most students who study translation still imitate Chinese expressions in their Chinese to English translation tasks, which produces unacceptable English and sometimes cannot be understood by native English speakers. From this perspective, it is necessary to enhance the comparison and contrast between these two divergent languages. Modules such as ‘Chinese Language and Culture’ and ‘Comparison and Translation between English and Chinese’ are offered in many MTI programmes, and this is because the MTI programme at CCNU can staff them (also see table 5.9: staff expertise of the translation department at CCNU).

Translation Competence

From table 4.10 it is clear that the ‘translation competence’ is well embedded in the module content of the official guiding plan and of the three case programmes. They offer relevant

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

Extra-linguistic Knowledge

We also see from table 4.10 that all the three indicators (subject area knowledge, interdisciplinary knowledge and cross-cultural communications) of the extra-linguistic knowledge are fully embedded in the official guiding plan and in the three cases. Firstly, from the perspective of the market, "translation commissioners tend to rank specialised knowledge in a given subject areas as more important than translation skills themselves" (Kelly, 2005, cited in Sharkas, 2013, p. 52). This ideal is agreed by most course designers of the MTI programmes in China, and we can see that all the three cases offer modules regarding subject area knowledge or translating specialised texts. For instance, the MTI programme at PKU offers a series of

modules in other disciplines such as law, management, psychology and economics. The MTI programme at GDUFS has three specialised pathways and pay much attention to the areas of law, commerce and media. Although the module content of the MTI programme at CCNU is less practical and professional, a module such as ‘News Translation’ is still offered. The second indicator, interdisciplinary knowledge (referring to linguistics; literature; cultural studies) is also given attention in the three selected cases. More specifically, modules such as ‘Applied Linguistics’ and ‘Language and Culture’ are offered in the MTI programme at PKU. The MTI programme at GDUFS provides students with knowledge of forensic linguistics. Regarding the MTI programme at CCNU, at least five modules are related to linguistics, literature and cultural studies (see table 4.9). Thirdly, cross-cultural communications are not offered as independent modules in the three cases, but are included in the language and culture related modules.

Research and Theory

Translation theories are taught in all the three translation programmes. The MTI programme at CCNU even offers more than one theoretical module. The course designers of these three programmes do realise the importance of translation theory, which can provide “their graduates with the tools to ensure that they are capable of maintaining and upgrading their competences throughout their professional working lives” (Way, 2008, p. 89). However, the other two indicators (critical thinking and research methods) in the section ‘Research/Theory’, which are mainly achieved by ‘education’, are almost absent in the Chinese cases. Only the MTI programme at PKU offers a module named ‘Searching and Writing’ which is similar to research skills/methods in the UK cases, but in terms of the module content, practical methods on how to search and synthesising a wide range of resources are the main target. The other two cases do not offer any such modules. This phenomenon can be aligned with the practical aim

of the MTI Programme which is more skills-based, and has reflected the differences between the practical MTI course and the research-based MA Translation Studies.

Professional Issues

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

Moreover, the second indicator ‘professional ethics’ — or codes of conduct for translators — is included in the module ‘Translation Profession and Translation Management’ of the MTI programme at Peking University (Peng, 2009), but is still missing in the guiding plan and in the other two case studies. In fact, numerous organisations worldwide, such as the United Nations, the European Union and the American Translators Association, have formulated codes of conduct for translators. For example, it is clear that translators should not take on work that might be beyond their real ability. In other words, “when contacted about an assignment they should check the language and situation to ensure that it is within their capabilities” (Phelan,

2008, p. 39). To draw up guidelines for other professionals who work with translators is also important because many people are not aware of the role of the translator. Additionally, effective communication and cooperation with other professionals, clients, translation companies and colleagues are also important components of professional codes of conduct.

This study also believes that ethical questions should be present throughout training, both explicitly and implicitly, and understood in the broadest possible sense (the translator's social responsibility, ideological manipulation of text and so on). In fact, the issue of professional ethics is often entirely absent in training programmes (Kelly, 2005; Zhu and Qi, 2011). Where it is included, it is often in the form of an isolated seminar or public lecture. The situation is true regarding the MTI programmes in China, although this degree course is purely professionally oriented.

4.4.4 Enhance Students' Employability via Internships and Professional Engagement

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

In China, the MTI programme follows this method to implement internship programmes.

Internship is a core component required in the MTI programme, constituting 2 credits of the total 38 credits required for graduation. More specifically, the MTI Committee requires its member universities to find appropriate internship base for the students.

According to the director of the MTI programme at GDUFS, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies has set up five internship bases for its MTI students: China Import and Export Fair; China-ASEAN Expo; Huawei Technologies Co., Ltd.; China Foreign Languages Publishing Administration; and four governmental foreign affairs offices. Of these five types of internship bases, China-ASEAN Expo, Huawei Technologies Co., Ltd., and China Foreign Languages Publishing Administration are the three most stable and fixed bases.

China Import and Export Fair, also known as the Canton Fair, is held biannually in Guangzhou every spring and autumn, with a history of 55 years since 1957. The Fair is a comprehensive one with the longest history, the highest level, the largest scale, the most complete exhibit variety, the broadest distribution of overseas buyers and the greatest business turnover in China. In terms of work placement in translation and interpreting, working in this fair as a translator or interpreter can be regarded as a perfect mock drilling before entering the job market, providing especially beneficial for their business negotiating skills during the process of translation.

At the 7th China-ASEAN Summit on October 8, 2003, former Premier Wen Jiabao of the People's Republic of China proposed that a China-ASEAN Expo be held annually in Nanning, Guangxi, China⁶² from the year 2004 onwards. His initiative was welcomed by the ASEAN leaders and was written into the Chairman's Statement released after the Summit. The Chinese Premier also suggested that a China-ASEAN Business and Investment Summit be held

⁶² Guangxi Province borders Guangdong Province where Guangdong University of Foreign Languages is located.

simultaneously with the China-ASEAN Expo. This has become a fixed internship base for Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. The People's government of Guangdong Province supports this financially. Students can have one one-month internship period each year.

Another fixed internship base, Huawei Technologies Co., Ltd., is a leading global ICT Solutions Provider, whose headquarters are located in Shenzhen City, which is 150 km from Guangzhou. The daily routine work of a translation intern in this technology-based company might be translating scientific and technical texts. For example, technical data sheets might be routinely encountered. According to Byrne, "this type of text provides detailed product information relating to a product's composition, properties and applications as well as other information relating to product safety, legal considerations and environmental issues" (2012, p. 82). It is important for interns to be clear about this type of text's subject matter, category, function, typical target audience and how the text will be used before undertaking their translation tasks. Working as a translation intern in Huawei is not only a good opportunity to get to know the real flow work for an in-house translator, but is also useful for gathering experience in translating scientific and technical texts. Even in the early 21st century, it was estimated that "scientific and technical translation accounts for some 90% of global translation output" (Kingscott, 2002, p. 247). For the time being, scientific and technical translation is still the core force in international trade in many respects (Byrne, 2012, p. 5). Hence, the internship opportunities in a technically-oriented company may improve graduates' employability if they wish to work as translators.

China International Publishing Group is another fixed internship base for Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. In this internship, students may learn how to work as editors or revisers, especially in the industry of translation and language service. Unlike literary translators, whose job is mainly "negotiating rather carefully with source-text authors", and

also distinct from non-literary translators, who work with non-professional writers most of their time (Mossop, 2006, p. 27), an editor or reviser in translation area (except for newspaper agencies), is correcting the translated text to fit society's linguistic and textual rules and achieve the clients' goals. Also, the editor or reviser acts as a language therapist who improves the translated text by eliminating confusing structures due to the different habits of use of different languages, in order to ensure the suitability of the text for its future users (2006, p. 17). Working in a leading language publishing organisation in China enables students to develop all sorts of competences other than languages, such as trans-editing, proofreading, or even news interviews and the work flow of the press industry. Students may resultantly have broader scope when they choose their future careers.

The final internship bases, the foreign affairs offices of Guangdong Provincial Government, of Guangzhou Municipal Government, Zhongshan Municipal Government, and of Shenzhen Municipal Government, are more governmental based. In such organisations, translating official documents might be the daily routine. Mayoral argues that the official translator "is a person who complies with the requirements established by local legislation. They should be competent in the fields of economic and legal translation, and they must consciously assume responsibility for all the consequences and liabilities of their function as public authenticator" (2003, p. 4). In addition, the official translator in China may need to master all kinds of expressions with Chinese characteristics. They also act as political and cultural mediators during international exchanges in such agencies. In spite of the fierce competition, working for provincial and local foreign affairs offices is still another ideal pathway for MTI students' careers.

In terms of distributions of internships bases, it is clear that internship opportunities on the MTI programme at GDUFS closely relate to regional markets and university's own resources. It is

well known in China that Guangdong University of Foreign Studies has a competitive advantage regarding foreign languages, international trade and translation. This is also one of the reasons why its MTI programme can staff many high-level and diverse internship bases. In addition to the positive perspectives of internship bases in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, the question remains as to whether these internship bases accommodate all of the students⁶³. Even if the answer is yes, how to guarantee quality may be an important issue which needs to be considered by policy makers if they would like to perfect their programme.

In China, the uneven geographical distribution of education resources does have an impact on the MTI courses. The third Chinese case in this study — the MTI programme at CCNU — has only developed three internship bases: Trancn Information Technology Co., Ltd. - Wuhan Division; Foreign Language Teaching and Research Publishing Co., Ltd; fand Xinhua News Agency-Hu Bei Division. More specifically, Trancn mainly deals with translation and localisation. It is an ideal internship place for translation students where student interns not only have access to different sorts of texts to be translated, but also are able to experience the work-flow of a translator from a comprehensive viewpoint.

However, Trancn is also an internship base for BTI students at Central China Normal University. Opportunities may therefore become very limited. Moreover, there is a “bilingual programme” in Foreign Language Teaching and Research Publishing Co., Ltd, which assigns translation tasks to students. The translated works might be published in the future. When it comes to Xinhua News Agency-Hubei Division, there might be a risk that, in comparison to its headquarters, there might not be many translation opportunities as it mainly deals with local news. According to the director of the Translation Department at Central China Normal

⁶³ There were 128 students (both translating and interpreting pathways) enrolled in the MTI programme at GDUFS in 2013.

University, they are doing their utmost to build up six or more internship bases. Of course, they also encourage students to find internship opportunities themselves.

If work placement is not possible for every student or still needs more time to be perfected in certain education institutions, there is a wide range of activities which can be carried out to stimulate student awareness and learning about the profession. The following two are only a few possibilities, which can also be combined with systematic work placement programmes in training (Kelly, 2005, p. 93). First, it is advisable for MTI programmes to establish contact with the outside world by means of projects which involve professional translators, bilinguals with an aptitude for translation, and professionals belonging to different fields of specialisation of the texts that the students translate and discuss in the classroom, **in order to** offer authentic translation projects which might be carried out for NGOs or other charity organisations. Second, it might be useful to include as many real life situations as possible in the programme for students to have the chance to live — however slightly — in the professional world (González Davies, 2004, p. 18), so as not to be lost once leaving the campuses. If possible, it is also pivotal to invite experienced practitioners or field experts to give lectures about all the relevant professional fundamentals in the field of translation for the purpose of helping students acknowledge current issues in the field of translation and interpreting.

A New Model of Internship: the case of the MTI programme at Peking University

It is interesting and rewarding to discover that the MTI programme at PKU differs from the above internship models. It has an innovative way to organise its internship. At the very beginning, the MTI programme at PKU cooperated with Xinhua News Agency, China Translation and Publishing Cooperation, and *Can Kao Xiao Xi* Newspaper, among others, to build up its internship bases. However, the feedback from student interns has not been as

satisfactory as expected. In such work places, they have their specific work flow. The interns sometimes not only cannot offer any help but may even cause ‘trouble’. The translation style produced by an intern might be quite different from the regular and fixed format in these organisations. At this point, the internship bases will ask their employees to modify and revise interns’ works, which definitely adds to their employees’ work load, and actually disturbs the original work flow as well. The internship bases have to arrange students to do very basic administrative and documentary work, which is of course opposite to the objectives of the MTI internship scheme.

In order to improve its internship scheme, the MTI programme at PKU has set up a work studio named ‘Peking University Boya Language Services’, which functions as a collaborative platform for translation practice for both MTI and CAT students. It is a non-profit agency completely operated by students, like a simulated enterprise. It has general manager, marketing director, technical director, in-house translators and freelance translators. To be more precise, if a student would like to set up his/her own business after graduation, he/she might bid for the role of the general manager to gain some managerial experience. Peking University Boya Language Services is a simulated enterprise, but it still has strict entry requirements when recruiting its staff.

It seems that Peking University Boya Language Services is an effective self-created internship base, but policy makers of the MTI programme at PKU do not consider it valid in all sense. It is only a non-profitable simulated organisation, therefore is not legally admitted. For example, the ‘manager’ cannot sign contracts and they cannot pay taxes if they provide real language services for society. Hence, policy makers plan to transform it into a real company. It is difficult to launch a company at Peking University due to administrative regulations, but the Vice Chancellor of Beijing Normal University shows a strong interest in this unique internship base.

Therefore, with his approval and support, the two universities have decided to work together to register a real enterprise, which will benefit MTI students in both universities. Subsequently, ‘Boya Muduo Language Services Company’ has been finally established.

The director of the MTI Education Centre at Peking University suggests that this enterprise focusing on language service aims not only to provide internship opportunities, but also to foster highly qualified language administration talents. The money earned by this company will be used to provide scholarships for students as a reward. Recently, Boya Muduo, together with other two companies, has successfully bid for a project worth more than 1 million RMB. The students can start translating work within this project and have very positive attitudes. Most of the other internship bases such as Xinhua News Agency or China Daily have contracts with more than one university, but Boya Muduo is different from them as it has more specific goals and narrower objectives. The internship model of the MTI programme at Peking University has provided another possibility for internship base construction, but this model is quite unique and bold, and not every other university can imitate this because it needs policy support, money, networks, highly motivated staff and students.

In view of the above illustration of the internship bases incorporated in the three cases, it can be summarised that students in these three case programmes have different internship opportunities. The MTI programme at GDUF, due to its reputation, location and available resources, has established a variety of internship bases for its students to gather hands-on experience. Although not many internship bases are established in the MTI programme at PKU, students can take the initiative to start a new business or project with the careful guidance of the supervisors and with the support of existing companies in the language services industry. Compared to these two programmes, students of the MTI programme at CCNU have less internship opportunities, and actually most of them need to find internships themselves. The

underlying reasons for these differences are due to the different levels of education resources, which will be thoroughly discussed in Chapter 5.

4.4.5 The Principle of ‘Same Aim but Divergent Curricula’

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

All three of the cases in this chapter have their own features. Specifically, the MTI/MLA programme at PKU is linked with the wider language services industry, and is dedicated to producing qualified managers for the industry. The MTI programme at GDUFs, based on its abundant resources and teaching experience in the field of foreign languages and translation, has the aim of preparing its students to work in specialised fields such as commerce, law and media, and offers relevant modules to fulfil this aim accordingly. Despite the fact that the MTI programme at CCNU is partly professional, its aims and module content are well interrelated with its strongest disciplines such as linguistics and culture.

An example which can reflect the above principle is the MTI programme at Beijing Foreign Studies University. As introduced in Chapter 1, the ‘Reform and Opening-up Policy’ was put into effect in 1978. Beijing Foreign Studies University, on behalf of the Chinese government and the United Nations (UN), then launched the UN Translator Training Centre in 1979. A

great number of high calibre translators and interpreters received intensive training from this centre, most of whom work for the UN, for other international organisations, and for the Chinese government agencies. Despite the fact that this UN-funded programme was discontinued in 1995, Beijing Foreign Studies University continued to train translators and interpreters in a newly established Graduate School of Translation and Interpreting (GSTI), the first home-grown programme of its kind in mainland China (Wang and Mu, 2009). The later established MTI courses are also included at GSTI.

Due to its special relationship with the UN, the aims and module content of the MTI programme at Beijing Foreign Studies University has reflected the flow work of translators and interpreting working in the UN and other international organisations. As Cao and Zhao (2008) explain, multilingualism is one of the foundations of the United Nations (UN) and has been practiced throughout its history. The normal case is that translators at the UN should master two or more working languages. In light of this tradition, the module ‘simultaneous interpreting between A, B and C languages’ has long been offered in Beijing Foreign Studies University, giving it a competitive advantage in China (Zhou, 2012, p. 163).

China also has many other types of universities, such as teachers’ universities, universities of science and technology, universities of business and economics and more. They may therefore have special focuses concerning their training goals and curriculum. Beijing Jiaotong University, for example, has offered modules like comparisons of technical texts and translating documents on railway engineering. The MTI programme at Beijing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics focuses on scientific and technical translation. Meanwhile, both knowledge of science and technology and technological tools for translators have been given more attention in its curriculum (Qian and Yang, 2013, p. 49-53). Furthermore, the MTI programme at the University of International Business and Economics, benefiting from its

leading disciplines in economics, finance and international business, has a special training focus on business and commercial translation.

4.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter provides readers with different prospects and emphases of the MTI programmes in China with the help of the three case studies. The distinct characteristic of the MTI programme at PKU is its cross-disciplinarity, and this programme is the first one in China to foster language administrators by linking translation and language industry with the world of management. The MTI programme at GDUFs aims to prepare its translation students to work in more specialised fields, and offers relevant modules to help consolidate students' knowledge and skills. Unlike these two programmes, the MTI programme at CCNU is trying to balance the theoretical content and professional needs, which in fact represents the approach taken by most institutions in China. Moreover, in view of the above findings, it can be concluded that economic and geographical factors have a strong influence on the design and delivery of the MTI courses. There are more demands for translation services in the capital Beijing and the economically developed Guangdong province, therefore the MTI programmes at PKU and GDUFs can build up a better relationship between the university and the industry. The internship bases offered in these two universities are outstanding examples to illustrate this relationship. In addition, the reputation and the type of educational establishment may also have an impact on the MTI courses. Foreign language universities may have a higher calibre of staff to teach professional issues in translation, and may have more opportunities to build up university-business partnerships. These factors, deemed as education resources, will be further analysed in the comparison chapter (Chapter 5).

Chapter 5 Context and Comparison of Translation Programmes in China and the UK:

Market Forces, Global Positions, and Curriculum Content

5.1 Introduction

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

This chapter is organised as follows. Section 5.2 provides readers with information on the British and Chinese HE sectors in the context of neo-liberal globalisation, with a particular focus on how the HE sectors are placed differently. In short, the three main characteristics for current UK universities are: internationalising the UK's higher education sector, requiring that research achievements have more impact, and linking HE to employability. The HE sector in China has been expanded, decentralised, and commercialised over the past years. More importantly, the HE sector has become a significant part of China's wider development strategy

(e.g. the construction of soft power). Section 5.3 discusses in detail the current tension between education and training in universities and how this tension has related to the subject area of translation studies, and section 5.4 undertakes empirical analyses, using examples to demonstrate how differently the translation programmes in these two countries have responded to market forces. Section 5.5 concludes this chapter.

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

5.2.1 The Implementation of Neo-liberal Ideals

Advocated by the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank, neoliberalism⁶⁴ was founded on “a belief in the supremacy of the market over state intervention”, and “seeks to bring about societal changes by creating conditions that allow free competition” (Harland, 2009, p. 512-513). To be more precise, since the imposition of free market policies in the 1980s⁶⁵, this new economic structure, mainly characterised by the opening of markets, government deregulation and wholesale privatisation, has come to dominate international affairs. Moreover, due to the collapse of the former USSR and the end of the Cold War, the world was no longer polarised between the US and Russia. Instead, international business and trade between different countries have become more frequent since then, and these regular exchanges has boosted ongoing global economic growth. Meanwhile, free trade in business have boosted the free trade in ‘minds’, and international mobility between the HE sectors in different countries have become more popular than before.

⁶⁴The principles, applications and limits of neoliberalism are not the key discussion points. This study will pay particular attention to the impacts of this neoliberal reform on the HE sectors. The UK and China are two in-depth case studies.

⁶⁵ According to Giroux (2002), neoliberal ideology reached a critical point in the late 1980s with the major reforms of the Thatcher government in the UK and the Reagan government in the USA.

Despite resistance, neoliberal political and economic reform has had a profound influence on higher education (Harland, 2009, p. 512). In this context of neo-liberal (economic) globalisation, higher education policies in many countries (e.g. Australia, Canada, China, Germany, New Zealand, Singapore, Sweden, the UK and the US) are shifting to neo-liberal orientations, with a redefinition of relationships between the university, the state, and the market (Yang, 2009; Ma, 2013). Furthermore, the concept of ‘knowledge economy’ was first put forward by the United Nations in 1990, which indicated that universities should make knowledge more useful for the economy. Traditionally, knowledge was primarily aimed at the development of individuals, but after neo-liberalism, knowledge is required to make a greater contribution to economic development. In a sense, “knowledge became recognised as a commodity that could provide economic wealth and also be traded” (Harland, 2009, p. 513). The HE sector, in relation to knowledge production and distribution, cannot be immune to the international context.

Driven by neoliberal values, universities worldwide, including the two case studies (the UK and China) in this study, are under a multitude of pressures from global economic competition. More specifically, market forces have had a major impact on university strategies, on research purposes, on teaching and learning methods, and on the delivery of pertinent education programmes. For instance, universities in both countries have realised the importance of the connection between knowledge and business sectors. Despite different approaches, both countries are internationalising their universities⁶⁶. However, due to different national contexts and global positions, each country has formulated different (or partly different) strategies in their HE sectors to cope with this global pressure. The following discusses how British and

⁶⁶ Recruiting international students to study in the UK is an important agenda for the UK government (also discuss this point in the following sections). In China, there are two dimensions regarding internationalisation of universities. Firstly, more and more Chinese students are likely to study abroad. Secondly, China welcomes sino-foreign universities, partnerships and projects.

Chinese universities are responding to market forces within different national contexts and global positions.

5.2.2 Impacts of Neo-liberalism on UK Universities

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

After the adoption of the free market policy in the 1980s and when “resources failed to keep pace with high rates of inflation” (Willmott, 2010, p. 131), the Thatcher government decided to make cuts in university funding. In addition, the policy of ‘full-cost university tuition fees’ was introduced. Thus, the ‘free’ university education was replaced by a systems of student loans. This policy indicated that the previous ‘foreign aid’ strategy had been transferred to ‘foreign trade’ in the HE sector in the UK. From 1980 onwards, the government decided to make UK higher education more competitive (1980 – 1997) and to build a globally-competitive, knowledge-based and higher education services sector (1997 – 2010 or till now) (Robertson 2010). Many government reports were released to demonstrate the importance of the HE sector to boosting economic growth in the UK. For example, it was clearly stated in the *White Paper on Education: Meeting the Challenges* (1987) that the HE sector should serve the nation’s economic development more effectively, and that it was necessary for the HE sector to build

up closer relationships with the business sector. The subsequent *Education Reform Act* (1988) regarded universities as also achieving for the wider social and national good. *The Dearing Report* (1997) also stressed that the HE sector should increase its contribution to the economy and its responsiveness to the needs of business. These education policies led to the adoption of the marketization strategy of the HE sector in the UK.

In addition to tangible market demands and economic factors, the changing world order has also had an influence on the development of the HE sector in the UK. After the end of World War II (especially in the post-Cold War era), the power status of the UK and the USA was ultimately reversed, with the former declining to the position of a second rate power and the latter ascending to the position of a superpower. In world affairs, the UK, clinging to the special relationship with the USA, is now the USA's most capable and reliable ally. This transition of power within Anglo-American relations has affected the UK's foreign affairs agenda, signifying that economic growth, instead of political influence, is now the nation's top priority. It can also be seen from the government's official website that the UK government now "works to promote and protect UK interests internationally, and works with other countries to make progress on issues of mutual concern like trade, climate change, security and economic development"⁶⁷.

We can acknowledge that hard power like military and economic strength influence international politics. But sometimes intangible attractions rather than military force or economic sanctions work more effectively. Soft power, defined by Nye (2005, p. 34), "is the ability to get what you want through attraction rather than coercion or payments. It arises from the attractiveness of a country's culture, political ideals, and policies". Due to its history,

⁶⁷ This statement is quoted from the official website of the UK Government
<https://www.gov.uk/government/topics/foreign-affairs>

culture, the global language of English, attractive tourist sites and the free market for investors, the UK has been very competitive in terms of soft power. According to the influential IFG-Monocle Soft Power Index, the UK ranked 2 in 2010, and ranked top in 2012 (see table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Soft Power Index Results in 2012

Rank	Country	Score	Rank	Country	Score
1	UK	7.289	21	New Zealand	4.249
2	USA	6.989	22	China	4.237
3	Germany	6.484	23	Portugal	4.217
4	France	6.472	24	Ireland	4.160
5	Sweden	5.752	25	Poland	3.817
6	Japan	5.613	26	Singapore	3.759
7	Denmark	5.598	27	Mexico	3.590
8	Switzerland	5.553	28	Russia	3.564
9	Australia	5.534	29	Israel	3.437
10	Canada	5.417	30	Thailand	3.347
11	South Korea	5.350	31	Czech Rep.	3.346
12	Norway	5.327	32	Chile	3.285
13	Finland	5.267	33	Greece	3.260
14	Italy	5.186	34	South Africa	3.117
15	Netherlands	5.161	35	Argentina	3.062
16	Spain	4.981	36	India	2.776
17	Brazil	4.675	37	Malaysia	2.606
18	Austria	4.650	38	UAE	2.416
19	Belgium	4.556	39	Egypt	2.351
20	Turkey	4.263	40	Indonesia	1.739

Source: 2012 ifG-Monocle Soft Power Index, cited in McClory (2012, p. 11)

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

Table 5.2 The Anholt-GfK Nation Brand Index in 2013

Anholt-GfK Nation Brand Index 2013: Immigration & Investment ranking		
2013 rank	Nation	Score change from 2012
1	United States	-0.58
2	Canada	-0.40
3	Germany	-0.22
4	United Kingdom	-0.28
5	Switzerland	-0.21
6	France	-0.26
7	Australia	-0.11
8	Sweden	0.33
9	Japan	-0.40
10	Italy	-0.15
---	---	
21	Brazil	-0.26
25	Russia	1.04
31	China	-0.14
42	India	-0.78

Source: <http://www.gfk.com/news-and-events/press-room/press-releases/pages/nation-brand-index-2013-latest-findings.aspx>

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

In view of the above, the HE sector in the UK has now become a key element of the wider global knowledge economy, with the expectation that teaching and research should generate impact in response to society's economic, social and political needs. Driven by these strategies,

internationalising the UK's HE sector, requiring that research achievements have more impact, and linking HE to employability are becoming three main characteristics for current universities in the UK.

International Education in the HE Sector

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

After many years' development, the UK is now the second most popular destination in the world for international students (Great Britain. Parliament. House of Commons, 2007). "There were 302, 680 students from outside the EU registered as students in UK universities, representing around 70% of all international students" (HESA Students, 2013; Universities UK, 2014, p. 27). The substantial number of international students make great contributions to the UK economy in both tuition fees and living expenditure. As Cemmell and Bekhradnia (2008) note, "UK universities receive on average 8 per cent of their total income from international students. This income is as important as, for example, the funding they receive from the Funding Councils for research – and there are 10 institutions with twice this level of dependence on international fee income". Moreover, over 75% of estimated income in 2011 (£13.6bn) is derived from the tuition fees and living expenses of students physically studying

in the UK (Great Britain. Department of Education, 2013). Living expenses also boost the economic development of the surrounding areas, like university partnership accommodation, grocery stores, book and stationary shops, and more. Thus, “the contribution of students to university cities and regions is an important part of a university’s impact” (Universities UK, 2014, p. 18) and brings direct economic value to the UK.

Apart from recruiting international students, some UK universities also take measures to broaden the dimension of international education, aiming at seizing the HE market abroad via opening up transnational campuses⁶⁸, or JV universities. So far, according to the QS statistics (2012)⁶⁹, “most branch campuses have been clustered in the Gulf region, particularly in the United Arab Emirates, which with 37 has more than any other country. However, more campuses are now opening further east, particularly in Singapore, which has 18, and China, with 17. These are just the highest densities; on a smaller scale, branches are appearing in every part of the world – from South Korea to Greece, Mexico to Rwanda, and many other countries in between”. Universities UK (2010, p. 19) estimate that “there are between 50 and 70 overseas universities with bases in the UK”. These models of transnational education, apart from projecting economic value and recognised reputation, can also allow the UK HE sector to bid for and engage in overseas-funded research projects⁷⁰. More broadly, this model enables UK universities to develop partnerships with overseas counterparts and local businesses, which can facilitate international knowledge transfer and spill overs. Another important benefit which

⁶⁸ This includes the University of Nottingham China Campus/Malaysia Campus, Herriot-Watt University Dubai Campus, University of Central Lancashire Bangkok Campus, University College London (UCL) Australia Campus, etc.

⁶⁹ QS official website:

<http://www.topuniversities.com/student-info/choosing-university/university-branch-campus>

⁷⁰ For example, the University of Nottingham’s presence in China enables them to bid for Chinese Government research funding. In particular, according to the news report, “a partnership between the The University of Nottingham, Wanli Education Group (WEG) and Ningbo Municipal Government has successfully raised more than 21 million RMB (£2.3 million) for research into areas related to the marine economy industry” (<http://www.nottingham.edu.cn/en/news/2015/21m-rmb-for-universitys-marine-economy-research-in-ningbo.aspx>).

cannot be underestimated is that the overseas campuses have the function to attract students to the institution's campus in the UK for further study, from which the institution itself and the UK economy will derive additional value (Great Britain. Department of Education, 2013).

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

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

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

As Schofield (2011, p. 12) claims, “in the UK there is a strong tradition of research in all subjects, and most of the UK's long-term, curiosity-driven and strategic research is carried out in HE”. In recent years, due to the neoliberal-driven practices, researchers are encouraged to share knowledge with others outside of their institutions, and then to form partnerships outside

the world of academia. Policy makers of universities are also keen to establish sustainable university-business partnerships to maintaining success of their institutions on a global scale.

These partnerships are also known as Knowledge Transfer Partnerships (KTPs), which support UK businesses wanting to improve their competitiveness, productivity and performance by accessing the knowledge and expertise available within UK universities and colleges. Knowledge transfer is currently an increasing priority for universities, and is also a major expectation of government (Schofield, 2011, p. 31).

These knowledge exchange activities with the industry and business sectors have dual benefits. Universities, on the one hand, may obtain resources, credibility and opportunities; On the other hand, business sectors may gain at least six benefits: latest knowledge, talent, ideas, capacity, research expertise relevant to its business and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)⁷¹. More specifically, through working with universities, companies have access to research expertise. They will gain knowledge about the latest developments. Meanwhile, research is able to help companies find new ways of addressing challenges which are nearer to the market, and to help companies improve businesses processes and efficiency. Human capital is another important benefit as business use the recruitment of graduates and research staff as a primary way to access the latest research and skills (Russell Group Strategic Report, 2010, p. 8-16).

Knowledge transfer is not only associated with science-related subjects, but also embedded into research projects in the arts and humanities. The Arts and Humanities Research Council (AHRC)⁷², a renowned national funding agency supporting both arts and humanities research, has of course formulated relevant strategies of knowledge transfer in its strategic aims (AHRC Vision and Strategy, 2007-2012). Fulfilling this aim will involve strengthening the impact of

⁷¹ By definition, CSR means the contribution of business to social and environmental welfare.

⁷² Please consult its official website for more information: <http://www.ahrc.ac.uk/Pages/Home.aspx>

arts and humanities research by encouraging researchers to disseminate and transfer knowledge to other contexts where it makes a difference, and by raising the profile of arts and humanities research and thus achieving the aim as an effective advocate for its social, cultural and economic significance (ibid, p. 13-15). Moreover, in the latest annual report and accounts of the AHRC, it is stated that “the AHRC supports arts and humanities researchers in their engagement with the UK’s vibrant creative economy, helping to develop new IP (Intellectual Property), innovative products and services, and new business models in this rapidly changing field” (2013, p. 16).

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

This progressive tightening of the coupling between research and industry has also influenced teaching. As research-led teaching is quite prevalent among UK universities, research-led teaching within the framework of KTPs may equip graduates with the personal and professional skills that employers need (Russell Group Strategic Report, 2010, p. 3). The Russell Group has conveyed in its strategic report the importance of enhancing students’ employability through daily teaching, arguing that this upgraded teaching method may turn out students who are

independent and critical thinkers, effective communicators, and professionals with transferrable skills demanded in the marketplace, indicating that the Russell Group is mixing the old and new priorities.

In the meantime, Professor Rebecca Boden from Roehampton University Business School⁷³ and Professor Maria Nevada from Manchester Business School have raised their concerns about the necessity of incorporating employability into university degrees which should be a target for the whole university, in line with the neoliberalism of the higher education. They believe that “producing workers so that we can compete in the global knowledge is also a legitimising discourse” (Boden and Nedeva, 2010, p. 37-38). Hence, to make university courses (both at undergraduate and postgraduate level) more professional seems to have become the consensus among most UK universities, though the execution of this varies tremendously in different institutions.

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

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

⁷³ At the time of writing and publishing their article, Professor Rebecca Boden worked at Cardiff School of Management.

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

5.2.3 Impacts of Neo-liberalism on Chinese Universities

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

The Expansion of the Chinese HE sector (from Elitist to Mass Education)

The expansion of the HE sector is one of the most prominent changes resulting from the implementation of neo-liberalism in education. From 1949 to the late 1970s, the HE sector in China was based on the former USSR model. In this context, all HE relevant resources and policies were controlled by the state and very few senior high school students (less than 5%) could be enrolled in universities (Wu and Zheng, 2008; Yao *et al.*, 2010). At that time, government agencies such as the Ministry of Education (MoE) and agencies in charge of

infrastructure (steel and the railway)⁷⁴ provided students with tuition and accommodation fees, and jobs were also guaranteed for students who completed designated degree courses (Wu and Zheng, 2008). However, since the 1990s, the government has decided to expand its HE sector to keep pace with expansion in industrialization and rapid developments in the science and technology sectors (Wang, 1999, p. 157).

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

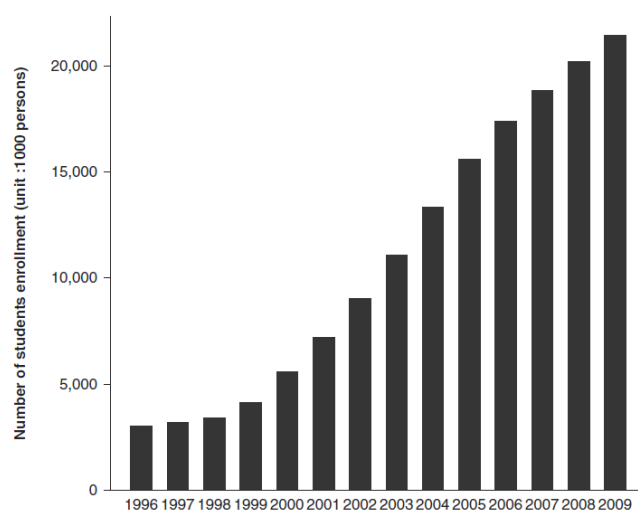


Figure 5.1 Enrolment in tertiary education in China (unit: 1, 000 persons)

Source: National Bureau of Statistics of China (2006; 2010), Cited in Li et al (2012, p. 138).

⁷⁴ In the past, some universities in China were not run by MoE. Instead, they belonged to the government agencies in charge of agriculture, steel, the railway, finance, etc. (Wu and Zheng, 2008).

Moreover, the number of universities nation-wide also saw significant growth from 1022 to 1912 institutions between 1998 and 2007 (Chen and Wu, 2011, p.15), and as of April 2012, there are altogether 2138 national colleges and universities (MoE, 2012). This rapid expansion in numbers of both students and universities signals that the Chinese HE system has been transformed from elite to mass (Pretorious and Xue, 2003; Wu and Zheng, 2008; Yao *et al.*, p. 2010). This sudden large expansion, on the one hand, was favoured by parents, students and employers. More and more students have the opportunity to enter into universities, and the expansion also “contributes to national economic growth, since better-educated educated workers create more production” (Yao *et al.*, 2010, p. 840). On the other hand, however, Chinese universities were not well prepared for the unexpected phenomenon and therefore faced pressure due to a shortage of facilities (Du, 2000, p. 159) and public funding. In particular, the HE expansion in both volume and speed cannot be supported by the central government’s allocations to education. The government related agencies were no longer able to afford to pay every student’s tuition fees and living expenditures. Instead, students (in most cases their parents) need to pay their own tuition fees. Furthermore, the funding mechanism of the HE sector has been reformed so that the MoE — the representative of the central government — only funds a small number of prestigious universities, while the great majority of normal universities are funded and managed by local governments. Therefore, with the continual decline in the central government’s allocations to education, educational financing and provision has relied heavily upon the financial abilities of local governments and individual contributions (Mok and Lo, p. 2007).

The Decentralisation of the Chinese HE System

This has brought about another reform: the decentralisation of the Chinese HE system. In particular, the MoE is only in charge of 107 national key universities (recognised as ‘Project

211’ and ‘Project 985’⁷⁵). Local governments are expected to be responsible for support all non-key universities (Huang, 2005). These 107 prestigious universities are research-oriented and are expected to become internationally competitive. Most of them are located in directly governed city regions⁷⁶ and some rich cities and provinces (e.g. Shanghai and Guangdong). While the rest non-key universities, in terms of numbers, far outweigh national key universities⁷⁷, many of them are located in less developed regions with reduced access to education resources.

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

⁷⁵ According to the China Education Centre, “Project 211 is the Chinese government’s new endeavour aimed at strengthening about 100 institutions of higher education and key disciplinary areas as a national priority for the 21st century”. “Project 985 is a constructive project for founding world-class universities in the 21st century conducted by the government of the People’s Republic of China. On May 4, 1998, President Jiang Zemin declared that ‘China must have a number of first-rate universities of international advanced level’, so project 985 was launched. In the initial phase, 9 universities were launched in the project. The second phase, launched in 2004, expanded the programme until it has now reached almost 40 universities” (<http://www.chinaeducenter.com/en/cedu/ceduproject211.php>).

⁷⁶ In China, there are four directly governed city regions: Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai and Chongqing. They share the same function as provinces and are directly managed by the central government.

⁷⁷ Until 2012, there are 2031 non-key universities while the number of key universities is 107.

workers (Yao *et al.*, 2010). Secondly, as Wan (2006) summarises, the supply of graduates greatly exceeds demand in major cities and coastal provinces.

Commercialisation, Privatisation and Diversification of the HE Sector

Another impact of the neo-liberal policy on Chinese HE system is the commercialisation of universities. Owing to the fact that marketization of higher education has become the dominant trend all over the world (Zhou, 2005), China also responds to these market ideologies from several aspects. With the adoption of the socialist market economy system, the HE sector in China are increasingly affected by market forces. As a result, private education institutions, Sino-foreign universities or other partnerships with new funding patterns have emerged, which clearly suggests that China's education has been going through this process of marketization. These new forms of universities, on the one hand, provide high school students with more HE choices and opportunities. On the other hand, closer links between education and the market are built up as these types of universities are not entirely run by the state but also owned and operated by companies and other entities (Li *et al.*, 2012).

In addition, the expansion of students in regular HE institutions has stimulated the increase in postgraduate candidates. More and more students decide to pursue further study after graduation due to the problem of unemployment (Wu and Zheng, 2008). In order to address this problem, in line with the nation's rapid economic development, the professional degree (mainly at master's level), regarded as a typical example of the closer relationship between education and the market, was established in 1990 and has been expanded greatly in the past two decades. Nowadays, there are 39 subjects at master's level (Appendix 5), including our target the MTI Programme. This professional degree is designed to meet professional requirements in pertinent industries. The professional degree, equally important as an academic degree which is more research-oriented, aims at cultivating more skilled labour for the market

nationally and internationally. Seen in this light, driven by market forces, the HE provision in China has clearly been diversified and developed through various forms and methods. (Wei and Zhang, 1995; Lin *et al.*, 2005; Mok, 2005; Levy, 2006; Mok and Lo, 2007).

Higher Education as Part of China's Wider Development Strategy

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

The Chinese government has taken many measures to achieve this goal. In 2007, the then CPC General Secretary Hu Jintao, spoke vehemently and convincingly to the 17th Communist Party Congress about the importance of constructing the country's soft power. Five years later, during the opening ceremony of the 18th CPC National Congress in November 2012, Hu, in his keynote report⁷⁸, reiterated the necessity of consolidating cultural soft power of the country under the section of 'developing a strong socialist culture in China'. This strategy remains an

⁷⁸ Full text of Hu Jintao's report at 18th Party Congress can be accessed via <http://www.globaltimes.cn/content/744879.shtml>

important issue under the government of President Xi Jinping⁷⁹. According to a report by Xinhua Net, “president Xi Jinping has vowed to promote China’s cultural soft power by disseminating modern Chinese values and showing the charm of Chinese culture to the world”⁸⁰ (2014). In fact, China is blessed with a wide spectrum of cultural resources that help produce soft power: natural wonders, cuisines, traditional medicine, literature, arts, philosophies and folk religions (Zhang, 2009). China also has had “attractive traditional culture, such as Confucian values of social harmony, ritual, filial piety and compassionate rule spread to influence much of East Asia” (Nye, 2012, p.154). In line with Wang’s (2013) argument, culture, as a pillar of soft power, can inspire desire and duty and thus persuade people to cooperate. As Nye (2005, p. 41) also proposed, “when a country includes universal values and its policies promote values and interests that others share, it increases the possibility of obtaining its desired outcomes because of the relationships of attraction and duty created”. All these facts and statements demonstrate the significant role of soft power in a nation’s sustainable development. Apart from enhancing the overall strength and international competitiveness of Chinese culture, the current Chinese government wants more say in international affairs, indicating that effective communication with the rest of the world is also vital for the country’s further development in all sphere of life.

There are many ways to promote Chinese culture and policies in other countries. Media coverage is an effective way to promote the core Chinese cultural values globally. For instance, the channel CCTV News (originally CCTV 9) of China Central Television serves as an important channel to promote Chinese culture and language by broadcasting reports and stories

⁷⁹ To better understand China’s national policy of promoting cultural soft power, an article reported via Xinhua News Agency (the state press agency of the People’s Republic of China) can further explain this strategy. (http://news.xinhuanet.com/english/china/2014-01/01/c_125941955.htm)

⁸⁰ Full text of Xinhua Report can be accessed via http://news.xinhuanet.com/english/china/2014-01/01/c_125941955.htm

in English. This is part of a broader effort at ‘soft power rise’ and is believed to be an effective way of increasing China’s global influence (Zhang, 2009, p. 111).

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

Apart from interacting with the media and Chinese firms, education can and should play a pivotal role in making China become more internationally competitive. Clearly, the government realises the critical role of higher education in the projection of soft power (Yang, 2010) as exchanges among universities and among countries, international cooperation and joint research, and academic staff and students’ mobility may also have an impact on the construction of a nation’s soft power, and on the promotion of a nation’s values (Nye, 2005; Li, 2013). Despite criticism from political and academic circles that Confucius Institutes (CIs)

might jeopardise the academic integrity of higher education (Yang, 2010; Chey, 2007; Starr, 2009), the establishment of the CIs is an outstanding example of promoting Chinese soft power via the HE sector. Affiliated within each university in different countries, the CIs provide students and staff who are interested in China with a platform to understand Chinese perspectives by learning Chinese language and culture (Starr, 2009). This is commonly regarded as a tool to enhance China's soft power (Gil, 2008).

In addition to CIs and other exchange programmes in the HE sector, are there any connections between translation programmes and the promotion of Chinese culture? The answer is definitely yes. The process of translation between two different written languages is, in some sense, a process of cultural exchange and transfer. Moreover, political dialogue, people-to-people dialogue, and economic and financial dialogue between China and the rest of the world happen almost every month, in which English-Chinese translators, interpreters and bilingual experts are the messengers. Therefore, translation is given a key role in this national mission of promoting soft power. The translation programmes established in the HE sector (at both undergraduate and postgraduate level) are then expected to respond to this national strategy. In particular, policy makers and scholars hope the translation programmes' teachers can develop students' cultural awareness and out-going translation competence so that more and more Chinese masterpieces, and political and cultural values can be translated and be introduced to people from the rest of the world. Meanwhile, cross-disciplinary research and practice between translation studies and other subjects should be carried out in the HE sector as translation should also play a role in other sectors such as economics, finance, publishing, science and technology, commerce and more (Huang, 2011; Zhou, 2012; Wang, 2012; Xu, 2012). These are advocated in order to fit translation education into the national strategy.

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

5.3 The Tension between Education and Training

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

In this section, the relationship between education and training will be initially discussed. The findings of this discussion will then be used to assess translation programmes in this respect,

and investigating the different tensions between education and training faced by translation programmes in the UK and China, but mainly within British models.

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

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

(Bernardini, 2010, p. 19)

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

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

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

provide world-class postgraduate research and training as a vital, integral part of the overall research activity of the University[...]. Superb postgraduate research and training is a core function of a research university, both in contributing to present research excellence and as an investment in future success.....

(The University of Manchester, 2011-2012)

Moreover, ‘training’ and training-related words (e.g. skills; profession) also frequently used in a variety of degree programme specifications. The Translation and Interpreting MA course at Newcastle, for example, “covers both professional and academic training”⁸¹ in the teaching and learning of translation and interpreting. The MSc in Sustainable Energy and Entrepreneurship at Nottingham University claims that it “provides students with advanced skills and vital training in renewable energy, energy efficiency and business”⁸². The underlying message of these examples is that training is no longer understood in the narrow sense of short-term training or vocational apprenticeship. Instead, with the proliferation of the marketization of current universities, the concept of training together with all its different facets (skills; professionalism; market-driven method) is largely adopted in university settings. For example, phrases like ‘transferrable skills’ are frequently used in the programme/module specifications.

Be that as it may, the discussion on the dichotomy between education and training has never been resolved. Some, adhering to the classical humanist tradition, may hold the opinion that there should be a dichotomy between education and training, or more exactly, between academia and profession. However, as Kearns argues (2008, p. 192), “to those accustomed to more traditional university curricula, such an approach”⁸³ appears not to permit either

⁸¹ This statement can be found in Newcastle programme’s online profile at:
<http://www.ncl.ac.uk/postgraduate/courses/translating-interpreting-ma.html#profile>

⁸² Quoted from the programme’s online course flyer via:
<http://www.nottingham.ac.uk/pgstudy/documents/brochures/sustainable-energy-and-entrepreneurship-msc.pdf>

⁸³ This approach refers to the academic/vocational dichotomy.

intellectual reflection or a role for research and thus rules itself out of contention for inclusion in university curricula”. Hager and Hyland (2003, p. 274) also provide opinion against this dichotomy, arguing that “such dichotomous theory/practice thinking prevents serious consideration of knowledge peculiar to the workplace, or of the possibility that the workplace might be an important and distinctive source of knowledge. If workplace practice merely involves the application of general theories (taught through formal education), then the details of the workplace remain of little interest to formal education”.

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

For example, both Ulrych and Niska (2010) use ‘training’ to discuss translation and interpreting education programmes, curricula and practices at tertiary level at universities. Also, in her book entitled *A Handbook for Translator Trainers*, Dorothy Kelly (2005) proposes objectives, activities, tasks, projects, syllabuses, and full curricula for implementation on all translator training programmes (referring to degree courses at universities). The case study of the Chinese MTI programme also follows the essence of training, but this professional degree course is also contingent on academic settings. Thus, by linking this situation to the earlier discussions that both ‘education’ and ‘training’ are receiving attention in current universities we know that balancing academic and professional pedagogies can be a possible strategy in teaching translation. Moreover, transferrable skills and employability can be embedded in the curricula

of translation programmes. Training here is not only related to vocational skills. What's more, some translation training courses are "fully integrated into the university systems and thus linked to departments which also conduct research; these tend to include a higher proportion of theoretical elements" (Kelly, 2005, p. 9).

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

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

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

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

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

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

It is important to highlight that the respective models in the UK and Chinese case studies do not represent two extreme poles of education and training. I will discuss below how this tension

is visible in the programmes. In summary, as suggested by Bernadini, “translators need to be formed through a reasoned, timely and thought-out balance of education and training. This long and effortful instructional period is a necessary requirement if we are to form competent professionals” (2010, p. 27). Although differences exist at different levels, this study still insists that it would be good to see them as “integrated, sequential wholes, one part of which is necessary, and comes first, and the other accessory” (Bernardini, 2010, p. 28).

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.4.1 Comparison of Course Aims

For both long-term and short-term courses, it is obvious that formulating course objectives is the very first step in designing a course. In the UK, although one consensus in most translation programmes is to foster professional translators, the specific course objectives vary from one context to another due to different institutional policy and constraints. For example, university systems within a strongly academic tradition will not formulate their overall aims in the same way as those with a more vocational tradition (ibid, p. 23). This difference can be exemplified by Russell Group universities and post-1992 universities (e.g. former Polytechnics)⁸⁴, respectively. Although the distinction between old universities and polytechnics is fading away, the post-1992 universities still aim to “produce graduates in vocational disciplines and applied research — as if “vocational” and “applied” were straightforward labels” (Scott, 2012)⁸⁵. That is to say, aims and objectives of courses in post-1992 universities are more profession-oriented. In contrast, due to the fact that Russell Group is “a group of twenty universities with the best research reputation in the country and who receive a large proportion of the government’s research funding” (Armstrong, 2008)⁸⁶, courses in a Russell Group university are more research-oriented.

The above difference between ‘research’ and ‘profession’ has varying degrees of impact on the delivery of pertinent courses. This is also true with translation programmes, which are usually under the management of school/department of modern languages and/or cultures, belonging to the field of Arts and Humanities. In particular, translation programmes offered at post-1992

⁸⁴ This term specifically relates to “the former polytechnics, central institutions or colleges of higher education that were given university status by John Major’s government in 1992 (through the Further and Higher Education Act 1992)—as well as college that have been granted university status since then”. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/New_universities)

⁸⁵ Full article containing this quotation can be found out online at (<http://www.theguardian.com/education/2012/sep/03/polytechnics-became-universities-1992-differentiation>)

⁸⁶ Full article containing this quotation can be found out online at <http://www.jobs.ac.uk/careers-advice/working-in-higher-education/1135/what-is-a-university-in-the-uk>

universities pay much attention to practical translation and skills required in the translation industry. Here, two of the post-1992 universities (University of Westminster and Middlesex University) can be justified as good examples. According to the official website⁸⁷ of Translation and Interpreting MA course at Westminster, this course will provide students with professional training aimed at the translation and interpreting markets, and an opportunity to build on their existing language skills to develop a career in those sectors. Middlesex University, on the other hand, has classified its translation programmes into different specialised domains⁸⁸ (see table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Translation and Interpreting Courses at Middlesex University

Level	Type
Undergraduate Courses	Diploma in Legal Translation Diploma in Medical Interpreting Translation and Interpreting BA
Postgraduate Taught Courses	Business and Legal Translation MA Audiovisual and Literary Translation MA
Postgraduate Research Courses	Master of Philosophy (MPhil) Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)

⁸⁷ Full information of Translation and Interpreting MA at Westminster can be found out at: <http://www.westminster.ac.uk/courses/subjects/languages/postgraduate-courses/full-time/p09fptai-ma-translation-and-interpreting#overview>

⁸⁸ More information of Interpreting and Translation Group at Middlesex University can be found out at: <http://www.mdx.ac.uk/courses/Film-media-and-English/interpreting-and-translation>

Table 5.3 exhibits a full cycle of university-based translation programmes at Middlesex University. These courses have different focuses at different levels. The Business and Legal Translation MA, for example, aims to “provide students with the opportunity to gain an insight into the needs of a professional translator in a globalised world where businesses, institutions and governmental organisations require more translation work”. It also covers “fields of translation that are particularly in demand, opening up increased career opportunities and providing students with the competencies and skills to maximise their employability”⁸⁹. Reflected in the above two cases, translation programmes at post-1992 universities, in line with other disciplines, are also profession-oriented. Enrolled in these courses, students have clear objectives to develop their professional skills in the translation profession. Also, enhancing students’ employability is an important goal. In so doing, generic theories are given less attention.

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

On the MA in Translation and Interpreting Studies at Manchester, for example, three out of four course aims (except the second one) are very professionally oriented (see table 3.1).

⁸⁹ The programme overview of Business and Legal Translation MA at Middlesex University can be found out at: <http://www.mdx.ac.uk/courses/postgraduate/business-and-legal-translation>

Nevertheless, the more detailed learning outcomes seem to be unaligned with these four aims. More specifically, five out of six learning outcomes are relevant to abstract knowledge in translation and interpreting studies, or to relevant pragmatics and cultural studies. There is only the sixth learning outcome (see table 3.1) relating to practical translation and interpreting, which is presented as “specific translation and/or interpreting practices and the role of the translator and/or interpreter in various sectors of economic activity including the audiovisual media, publishing, localisation, commercial and international organisations, depending on the chosen pathway” (MATIS Programme Handbook, 2013-2014; 2014-2015). This misalignment on the Manchester programme indicates that Manchester has the vision to make its programme more professional, but due to several constraints (e.g. staff expertise; available resources), it is still difficult for Manchester to identify an effective professional model to fulfil its aims. The MA in Translation Studies at Leicester, referring back to table 3.2, has a clear research focus. Specifically, three of the four aims are related to translation studies, theories and research methodologies. Only one aim is designated to teach students a set of skills appropriate to translating different text types, which is more professionally oriented. Based on the analysis in Chapter 3, it has been established that this research focused course aim is also reflected in pertinent learning outcomes, module content and teaching methods.

The other case study—the translation programme at Newcastle University—uses quite a different system in cultivating professional translators. This course aims to teach students high-quality translating and interpreting *skills* to help them enter the translating or interpreting profession in fields such as technology, commerce, international relations and journalism⁹⁰ upon completion of their period of study⁹¹. The reasons why the Newcastle programme is

⁹⁰ Based on the interview with Newcastle programme’s programme director, these four subject areas are only examples, not specialised translation pathways.

⁹¹ The profile of Translating and Interpreting MA at Newcastle University can be found out via its website at: <http://www.ncl.ac.uk/postgraduate/courses/translating-interpreting-ma.html#profile>

responding to the professional world more radically are twofold. Firstly, it has a long history of teaching English-Chinese translators and interpreters (since 1997). During the process of its course development, it gradually gained much experience in designing aims, contents, teaching activities and assessment. Secondly, there is a team of teachers who are English-Chinese bilingual and bicultural experts in the translation and interpreting programme (Chinese strand) at Newcastle. They have sufficient knowledge of the Chinese market and Chinese students' needs. As Chinese students are the largest group in the three case studies, considering their needs and their home country's market demands becomes necessary. Therefore, experience and abundant resources differentiate the translation and interpreting programme at Newcastle from its peer programmes in the UK.

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

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

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

However, course objectives of the MTI programme at Central China Normal University (CCNU), the third Chinese case study, have reflected the tension between theory and practice. On the one hand, the professional aim is recognised by this programme. For example, it aims to provide students with solid translation competences and encyclopaedic knowledge so as to translate texts and documents in various subject areas (see table 4.4). On the other hand, however, translation theory and linguistics are also two key concerns. This is partly because many staff specialise in the area of translation theory and linguistics (see table 5.9). Moreover, similar to many other MTI programmes, the traditional MA in Translation Studies still has impacts on the MTI courses. The distinction between theory and practice is not executed in every MTI programme.

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

Thirdly, as discussed in Chapter 4, curriculum design of the MTI programme in each university is advised to follow the policy of ‘same aim but divergent curricula’. In China, there are different types of universities such as comprehensive university, foreign languages university, teachers’ university, university of science and technology, to name but a few. This categorisation is mainly on the basis of each university’s strongest disciplines, and sometimes

the tradition of each Chinese university also affects its MTI course. In terms of MTI programmes, designing specific course aims in line with the university's strong subjects is suggested by many scholars in China (Qian and Yang, 2013; Mu and Wang 2011; Wang, 2010; Zhou, 2012). For instance, foreign language universities may nurture professionals working in foreign affairs areas (such as Beijing Foreign Studies University), whilst universities of science and technology may hope that some of their students to apply translation skills in scientific fields upon graduation (such as Huazhong University of Science and Technology). Moreover, the MTI programme at a university specialised in economics and law (e.g. Zhongnan University of Economics and Law) aims to nurture future legal translators, business interpreters or court interpreters. Concomitantly, it is advised that such a programme should design modules like commercial translation, translating contract, or translating legal documents.

The MTI programme at GDFUS can exemplify this 'diversity'. To be more precise, according to the case study of the MTI programme at GDFUS (Zhao and Mu, 2013, p. 78-85) as well as the interview with its course director, it is clear that the MTI programme has now adjusted its training focuses to five specialised pathways: Conference Interpreting, Public Service Interpreting, Business Translation, Legal Translation, and Media Translation. Of these, Business Translation, Legal Translation and Media Translation belong to the translation pathway. The students who graduates from Business Translation are expected to work as in-house translators, language experts and/or cultural consultants in multinational companies or other business settings. As for the pathway of Legal Translation, it aims to prepare its students to enter careers in, for instance, law firms, international mediating agencies or to conduct judicial translation for the legal department of an organisation. The MTI in Media Translation, as another categorisation, would like its students to work in international news agencies and global TV channels to transmit news bulletins to millions of people in the world (Bielsa and

Bassnett, 2011, p.10). As clarified by Gouadec (2007, p. 49), media translation could include voice-over, subtitling and over titling, and dubbing and also new techniques such as media description. Therefore, producing translations in these new forms could be other career choices for the Media Translation graduates.

Despite the fact that some universities have made good progress in specialising their course aims, the vast majority of the MTI programmes, as criticised by Professor Weihe Zhong⁹² at the annual conference of the MTI education, seem only to copy and paste the suggestions from the guiding plan which is merely a template. A lack of specificity in the aims and objectives is a common challenge confronted by many MTI programmes (Cited in Ping, 2013, p. 50-52).

Another important feature of the MTI programmes is that this postgraduate course has been designed to serve the needs of the nation's economic and social development (the official guiding plan, 2007; 2011). In particular, the national policy and the changing market demands may have impacts on the design and development of the MTI programmes. In section 5.2.3 we argued that as a rising power, the Chinese Administration stressed the need to enhance Chinese culture as part of the country's 'soft power' (Zhang, 2010). From this viewpoint, it is necessary to educate and train competent translators who can help promote Chinese culture and values in other countries, and this aim has been recognised and achieved in several MTI programmes (e.g. the MTI programmes at Beijing Foreign Studies University; Beijing International Studies University; Guangdong University of Foreign Studies; China University of Foreign Affairs; Beijing Language and Culture University).

⁹² Professor Weihe Zhong is the deputy director of China National Committee for MTI education as well as the vice chancellor of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. As he is fully involved in the process of designing the Chinese BTI programme, MTI programme and the future DTI programme, his comments need to be given careful consideration.

Moreover, as China continues to offer more economic opportunity (Greenaway and Rudd, 2014), so the opportunity to exchange and trade with the rest of the world grows. Large businesses start to establish internal translation or language services departments for operating language services. Sinopec Group⁹³, Baosteel Group Cooperation⁹⁴ and Huawei Group⁹⁵ are three examples. Sinopec Group has even ranked the top 1 among the 50 best firms in China towards internationalisation in 2014 (Wang, Sun and Miao, 2014). They all use in-house translators and interpreters. Specifically, translators, interpreters and language experts work in the Foreign Affairs Bureau (Office) in both Sinopec Group and Baosteel Group. The Bureau (Office) mainly coordinate international communications, international exchanges and foreign affairs carried out by these two companies. Huawei Group, on the other hand, owns a translation centre to deal with product translation, localisation and foreign affair issues. Additionally, many other firms outsource their translation tasks to language services companies. In this vein, language services cover a large market in today's business life (Johan, 1998).

These changing demands from the regional or national market have aroused attention from various parties (e.g. universities; translation and language services firms; Translators Associations of China). Firstly, there are more and more frequent dialogues and exchange events between the universities and professionals from the language services firms. The more recent conferences or forums in the field of TS have also shifted their themes from translation and/or interpreting to language services. For example, the theme of the 6th China Translation

⁹³ Sinopec Group, founded in 1998, is a huge state-owned petroleum and petrochemical enterprise in China. According to the Sinopec Annual Report in 2011, Sinopec was still the largest Chinese-based multinational enterprise in 2010 and also ranked among the top 10 in Fortune Global 500.

⁹⁴ Baosteel Group Cooperation is a typical enterprise arising from China's reform and opening-up. The construction of Baosteel commenced on the bank of Yangtze River in north Shanghai on December 23rd, 1878, only one day after the closing of the Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh CPC Central Committee. After over 30 years of development, Baosteel has grown into China's most competitive iron and steel group with the highest level of modernization. At the end of 2012, Baosteel had a total of 130,401 employees located all across the world.

⁹⁵ Huawei Group was established in Shenzhen of Guangdong Province in China in 1987 as a small size private-owned firm. However, after many years' development, by 2002 the firm had become a global IT giant mainly providing solutions, products and services.

Profession Forum (2014) was ‘language services in the context of globalisation: idea, technology and innovation’⁹⁶. Another closed-door and small-scale forum on ‘Languages Administration Education’ was also held in Peking University⁹⁷.

Secondly, the MTI programmes at two universities with abundant resources (Peking University and Beijing Normal University) began to consider shifting their orientations from educating professional translators to language administrators and managers. In order to enhance graduates’ employability and to diversify their graduate destinations, these two universities have established a Master of Languages Administration (MLA) under the structure of the MTI programme. The core aim for this new postgraduate course is not restricted to fostering translators only. Instead, the interview (see Chapter 4) with the director of the MTI programme at Peking University revealed that this new course aims to prepare their students to become qualified translators, multi-lingual experts, project managers of language services companies, technology specialists, and language consultants to meet the current and future industry needs. Students who study on this course are expected to have strong written translation competency into the native and foreign language, to have knowledge on managing translation workflow, to be proficient in a variety of key business areas such as globalisation, accounting, marketing, business economics and international business strategy, and to be able to communicate effectively with everyone involved in the business process and translation process. This new MLA programme, on the one hand, has taken a pioneering role in innovating the MTI programme. Peking University and Beijing Normal University have provided feasible examples for other MTI courses who want to follow them. On the other hand, this new

⁹⁶ The China Translation Profession Forum is a nation-wide conference held each year in May or June in which academics and professionals are brought together to exchange experiences and ideas on the development of translation education and industry in China.

⁹⁷ This conference has brought academics who teach translation, academics who teach MBA courses, and professionals from departments of the translation/foreign affairs/language services in various organisations to discuss the feasibility of the MLA programme and how to optimise the curriculum. The author of this study was invited by Peking University to attend this forum in June, 2014.

orientation is also a reflection of the increasing demand for language-related services, as bilateral or multilateral exchanges happen so frequently in almost every sector in China.

In line with the above discussion, it can be summarised that there are mainly three differences between these two countries in delivering their translation programmes. Initially, the UK cases prefer to provide students with abstract knowledge in TS in the first place, and then encourage them to think and reflect on what they have learnt in class. Professionalism is one of the course aims in most UK translation programmes, but they are still struggling to balance the proportion between theory and practice. Chinese MTI programmes aim directly to encourage students to practise a lot in order to confidently enter into the professional world upon graduation. Secondly, In China, translator education is linked with the nation's economic and social development (e.g. promoting cultural influence via translation), while the translation programmes in the UK are not designed to enhance the UK's international influence but to follow the UK higher education ethos of helping student's individual development. Finally, due to the fact that the MTI programme is still in its early stage and all the relevant systems and regulations need to mature, it is reasonable to accept the changing objectives of certain member universities. Translation programmes in the UK, in contrast, are relatively more stable, and there could be slight amends when necessary. The language services industry is such an example. In China, the burgeoning language services sector has also stimulated the education and training of high calibre language administrators. In the UK, the situation is slightly different. Many companies operating translation and interpreting use the words 'language services' in their names, whose services usually include translation and interpreting, British sign language, language assessment, language training, transcription, and intercultural consulting, among others (e.g. Language Services Associates⁹⁸). According to the report

⁹⁸ The official website for language Services Associates is: <http://lsaweb.co.uk>

provided by the Common Sense Advisory⁹⁹, there are 12 British companies out of the top 100 language services providers, accounting for 12% of language services in the world¹⁰⁰. We can see that the language services industry is existing and developing in the UK, but it is interesting to recognise that few translation programmes, however, have courses focusing on the broader areas of language services.

5.4.2 Comparison of the Module Content

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

As shown in table 3.5, in Leicester, only one module covers some issues in translation practice; all the rest are research-oriented. In addition, a workshop focusing on practical translation is offered, but it is only voluntary and offered fortnightly. From the perspective of alignment, the module content totally matches the theoretical course aims in Leicester's programme. But if Leicester would like to educate professional translators, at some stage, it could be

⁹⁹ The Common Sense Advisory is an independent Massachusetts-based market company, aiming to provide independent research to help companies profitable grow their businesses across borders, languages and cultures. Full information can be consulted at: <http://www.commonsenseadvisory.com/AbstractView.aspx?ArticleID=5505>

¹⁰⁰ The 12 UK firms who are doing business in the language services industry are: SDL; RWS Group; the big word Group; Semantix; Capita Translation and Interpreting Limited; Alpha CRC LTD; Lingo24 Ltd; Translate Plus Limited; Wordbank; TranslateMedia Ltd; Sandberg Translation Partners/STP Nordic; Language Connect. (www.commonsenseadvisory.com).

comparatively difficult, as so few practice-modules are included in this programme, not to mention providing students with professional skills which are required by the translation and language services market.

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

In Manchester, modules are divided into two categories: practice-oriented and research-oriented (see table 3.4). All the compulsory modules are research-oriented (45 credits), accounting for 25% of the total course credits; whilst optional course units are in total 75 credits. The majority of the optional units are practice-oriented, but according to the description in the programme handbook (MATIS Programme Handbook, 2014/15, p. 17-18), two or more¹⁰¹ research-oriented modules are still offered in the optional course units. The dissertation, which is written in summer and is more research-oriented, counts for 60 credits. As discussed in

¹⁰¹ The optional modules can be slightly changed each year according to the staff expertise or other possible reasons. For example, two research-oriented modules ('Cross-Cultural Pragmatics' and 'Audiovisual Translation II') are not offered in 2014-15 academic year, but a new research-oriented module ('Translation and Media Culture') is included (MATIS Programme Handbook, 2014/15, p. 18).

Chapter 3, students have two options to choose from: 1) a written thesis on a topic focusing on “a research area of translation or interpreting studies”; 2) “a specific translation/interpreting task plus critical analysis” (ibid, p. 17). Both types expect students to show a clear evidence of “an ability to critically evaluate existing research on the object of the study as the basis for identifying and defining new fields of research” (ibid, p. 60). As a result, even if all the chosen 75 credits optional modules are practice-based, research-oriented units still outweigh the practice-oriented in the MA Translation and Interpreting programme at Manchester.

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

As discussed in Chapter 3, the learning outcomes and course aims are not always aligned in MATIS, and the same is true for the module content. Theory-based units always take up a high proportion. However, it is important to highlight that the MATIS is making efforts to try to bridge the gap between theory and practice, though the progress is slow. The provision of Translation Project Management is such an example, though it is newly launched and needs more time to make it fit market standards and students’ needs more. But this has at least

signalled that the MATIS has realised the necessity of incorporating more professional units into its curriculum.

The translation programme at Newcastle University, however, provides us with a different phenomenon. Its course, in general, includes more practice-oriented modules than theory-oriented ones (see table 3.6). Although training professional translators is the primary goal of the Newcastle programme, it is not a pure vocational short course. In fact, students are also provided with two or three theory-based modules¹⁰² (both compulsory and optional) in order to form “a deeper understanding of the principles underlying various practical and professional issues in translation and interpreting, thus enabling them to become (a) more reflective and self-improving translator and/or interpreter” (Newcastle Module Catalogue, 2015)¹⁰³.

As noted above, the translation programme at Newcastle University clearly regards developing translating and interpreting skills that are required in the market as the top priority, and uses translation and interpreting theories to enable students to learn through critical reflective practice. Two thirds of its modules are practice-based, and moreover, there is an independent module covering current issues in the T&I profession, which is merely included within other modules in UK programmes. In terms of teaching content, as also discussed in Chapter 3, there is more practice than the input of abstract knowledge. The ideal of ‘learning by doing’ is actually embedded within Newcastle’s modules.

It is also important to point out that the T&I programme in Newcastle does not belong to the majority group in the UK. In fact, most translation programmes (especially those entitled Translation Studies) in the UK, similar to the other two case studies, face the pressures between

¹⁰² Theory-based modules at Newcastle programme include: *Translation Studies I & II*; *Research Methods in Translation and Interpreting*; *History of Translation*, and more. Full information regarding programme modules may be found at: <http://www.ncl.ac.uk/postgraduate/modules/4040.htm>

¹⁰³ This information is acquired in the module description of *Translation Studies II*. The website is <http://www.ncl.ac.uk/postgraduate/modules/module/SML8008/>

education (theory) and training (practice). However, as shown in their course objectives and module content, these programmes nowadays endeavour to establish a 50/50 balance between research and application.

We mentioned previously that all institutions in China that offer MTI programmes are expected to establish purely professional courses, but when it comes to specific institutions, the MTI committee cannot guarantee that practice-based modules outweigh theory-based modules in every institution. From the perspective of the official curriculum suggested by the official guiding plan (revised version in 2011), the vast majority of the modules focus on translating texts in different subject areas, including business and commerce, foreign affairs, law, science and technology, media and project management.

In Chapter 4, we have examined all the modules suggested by the MTI committee, and it is implied that pure theory-based modules are very few. There is only one theory-oriented module in the compulsory module list, and there are fewer than five optional modules targeting translation history and theories. However, the guided plan is only advisory rather than regulatory. Each institution is ought to behave differently in designing its own course. Viewed from our three case studies, modules at the MTI programme of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies are the most practical (see table 4.8), whilst modules at the MTI programme at Central China Normal University are the least (see table 4.9). The MTI programme at Peking University sits in the middle (see tables 4.6 and 4.7).

The MTI programme at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, as a leading promoter of the MTI project (Wang and Mu, 2009), aims to prepare its graduates for the rapidly changing market, and the module content also reflects this professional maxim. Besides, both course aims and module content of the Guangdong University of Foreign Studies programme are in line with the suggestions from the official guiding plan, but pay more attention to

professionalism and specialisation. Thus, practice and profession are the two key words to describe this programme, and theory and research complement them (Zhao and Mu, 2013). Modules offered in this programme also reflect this ideal.

As introduced in Chapter 4, this programme has decided to establish three pathways targeting translating in different subject areas, namely Legal Translation, Media Translation and Commercial Translation since September 2013. In so doing, in addition to translating general texts, modules on translating texts (e.g. legal or legally binding documents) in the above specialised fields are included in each pathway. Moreover, general knowledge (e.g. Media; Broadcasting; Trans-editing News) in which subject areas is also taught in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (see table 4.8). The purpose of designing the programme in this way, as explained by the course director, is to prepare students to become high calibre translators/interpreters in specialist fields.

It is also acknowledged that professionalism is another important aim for the MTI programme in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. However, there is not a single module regarding all the relevant professional issues including professional ethics. Instead, the professional units are scattered through outreach activities, such as inviting professionals to give public lectures. Since this has already been analysed in previous chapters, we will not go into detail here. But it is still necessary to point out that it could be more convincing if the MTI programme in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies can schematise all the professional issues and group them as a whole in the curriculum.

In Chapter 4, we have seen a well thought out combination of theory-oriented and practice-oriented modules offered at the MTI programme of Peking University. In addition, the MTI programme at Peking University has always tried to build up a cross-disciplinary programme. Its module content also reflects these two features. In the previous cohorts, computer-aided

translation modules took up a comparatively large proportion. More recently, since the MTI programme at Peking University is now admitting students to study languages administration, modules in this programme have been reorganised. Modules like ‘Economics’, ‘Project Management’, ‘Business Ethics and CSR’, and ‘Human Resources Management’ are included in this programme, and modules targeting translation skills are still there. Obviously a solid collaboration with business studies has been set up at Peking University.

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

As regards the MTI programme at Central China Normal University, there are more theoretical modules offered than practical modules. In addition, in its core modules, linguistics accounts for a big proportion, and moreover, translating literary texts is the main target in modules like ‘Translation Theories and Applications’. Thus, there turns out to be a discrepancy in course objectives and course delivery. If we compare its modules and course aims, most of its modules (see table 4.9) are in fact aligned with aim 1) (comparative linguistic abilities) and aim 3) (translation theories), but especially aim 1). The main reasons in designing in this way could be two folds. Firstly, linguistics and English/American literatures are the strongest subjects at the school of foreign languages of CCNU where its MTI programme is located, and most of its staff have research interests in these two areas (see table 5.9). It is thus relatively easy to staff modules relating to linguistics, theories and literatures. The second rationale is related to the student profile. In conversations with the course director we found that the MTI students’ linguistic competences are lower than expected. As such, offering modules regarding language enhancement will help students understand the source texts more accurately and then produce more qualified target translations. But the other two Chinese cases provide more translation skill-based modules than language enhancement ones. Back to the UK cases, pure language-relevant modules are not offered though some course directors realise the importance of language competence to become a qualified professional translator.

In addition, as discussed earlier in this study, it was acknowledged that translation is an effective means to promote cultural soft power. This is reflected in the module content. It is suggested in the official guiding plan (2007; 2011) that modules like ‘Chinese into English translation’, ‘Chinese Language and Culture’, ‘Comparison and Translation between English and Chinese’, and ‘An Anthology of Chinese Masterpieces in English Translation’ should be offered in corresponding MTI programmes (see table 4.4). In view of the three cases in China,

both the MTI programmes at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies and Central China Normal University offer similar modules. Other MTI programmes like that at Beijing Foreign Studies University (Zhou, 2012) and Beijing Language and Culture University also set up modules on translating Chinese classics. It is worth pointing out that the necessity of offering modules which are related to translating Chinese culture is realised by policy makers, scholars and some universities, but this is in a pilot stage. In fact, many factors such as programme aims, staff expertise, available resources and students' aptitudes hinder the setting up of such modules. It is necessary for all parties (policy makers, teachers, students, and agencies) to make joint efforts to optimise the module content.

In comparison, we see that the tension between theory and practice, and research and product still exists in UK programmes in terms of the weighting of theory vs practice in the module content. The fact is that theory-based modules still outweigh practice-oriented modules, and more abstract knowledge than specific skills and techniques are taught in class. However, influenced by the market forces, these postgraduate courses have to build students' practical translation competence through provision of profession-related modules and through engagement with business. In this case, practice-oriented modules complement theory-oriented ones. In China, integrating as much as professionally-oriented modules in the MTI programmes is the expectation from the perspective of policy makers. In fact, the MTI programmes with more resources (e.g. staff expertise; professional engagement) have a higher degree of professional issues included in the module content (e.g. the MTI programmes at PKU and at GDUFs), whereas other under-funded programmes do the opposite (e.g. the MTI programme at CCNU). Despite differences in each MTI programme, the general features of the module content can be summarised as follows. First of all, teachers of the MTI programme intend to teach specific skills needed in the market, so there are more skill-based modules included in

this degree course. Secondly, many translation tasks are in fact carried out in specialised domains, and in China a vast majority of sectors need translators. In this case, we see that a number of modules on cross-disciplinary areas or subject areas are provided in some MTI courses. Moreover, in line with the cultural diplomacy proposed by the Chinese Administration, modules on Chinese language and culture are also included in several MTI courses.

5.4.3 Comparison of the Ethos of Teaching

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

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

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

(Russell Group Teaching Strategy, 2010)

On the other hand, although the Russell Group is confident of its teaching strategy and teaching standards, these ambitions may not be 100% fulfilled in every member institution due to many variables. If we regard these ambitions as visions or hopes, the situation could become more realistic.

Although the third case study is not a Russell Group member university, teaching in the University of Leicester still relies much on the research. In its 2010-2015 Strategic Plans, for example, the very first line is about research-informed teaching:

Ensure that teaching is inspirational and informed by research in order to ensure that all students are offered the benefit of an education at the forefront of knowledge in their discipline.

(University of Leicester, 2010)

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

- Deepen students' understanding of the knowledge bases of disciplines and professions, including their research methods and contemporary research challenges and issues

- Build students' higher-order intellectual capabilities and enhance their skills for employment and lifelong learning
- Develop students' capacity to conduct research and enquiry
- Enhance students' engagement and develop their capacity for independent learning

(Teaching-Research Nexus, 2009) ¹⁰⁴

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

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

¹⁰⁴ The full article regarding the benefits of research-led teaching on students can be consulted at: <http://trnexus.edu.au/index.php?page=benefits-for-students>

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

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

If we ask how research achievements in translation, interpreting or intercultural studies could benefit students in their learning experience, the answers, on the basis of the programme outcomes (see section 5.4.1) of the MA in Translation Studies at Leicester, could have many strands. First, students are able to have a systematic understanding and critical knowledge of (but not limited to): 1) the history of translation studies; 2) translation theories; 3) research paradigms and methodologies in translation studies. Second, students will be familiar with concepts at the forefront of the academic discipline of translation studies and with pertinent concepts in a related discipline. Third, students will gain abilities of critical analysis, including the ability to evaluate critically current research and advanced scholarship in the discipline of translation studies and, where appropriate, propose new hypotheses; the ability to evaluate methodologies and develop critiques of them and, where appropriate, propose new methodologies; and the ability to demonstrate originality in the application of knowledge, to name but a few (MA in Translation Studies Programme Specification, 2013-14).

It cannot be denied that this research-led teaching method could cause problems. Due to the fact that the research-led teaching method requires that teaching content should stem from cutting-edge research rather than from the teachers’ personal practical experiences or

preferences, one possible challenge here could be that too many theories are included in the daily teaching. For instance, from both the programme handbook and the interviews with two course directors at Manchester and Leicester, it was found that up-to-date research in translation studies is largely taught in class. In other words, teaching content fundamentally depends on module convenors' research expertise. Correspondently, in terms of format, lectures or large group presentations are dominant in these two programmes, supported by several practice-based or language-specific workshops or tutorials.

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

Table 5.4 Staff Members' Research Interests at Newcastle¹⁰⁵

Staff Member	Research Interests
1	Translation/Interpreting Studies; Reflective Learning; Autonomous Learning; Educational Psychology and Philosophy
2	The cognitive resource allocation in language interpreting, including consecutive interpreting and simultaneous interpreting.

¹⁰⁵ There are altogether 7 core members of staff in the translation and interpreting team at Newcastle University. However, table 5.4 only consists of research interests of 6 people due to incomplete information provided online. The newly recruited member of staff only provides teaching summary in her profile page. For more information, please go to the website: <http://www.ncl.ac.uk/sml/>

3	Poetry Translation - especially how poetry translators translate and how they work with others, creativity and style, and the social/ethical role of the poetry translator. South Slav (ex-Yugoslav) Area Studies, especially in the fields of modern poetry, culture and identity, with a specific interest in Bosnia and Serbia.
4	Teaching Chinese and Translation; Corpus Linguistics and Word Combination in Both Chinese and English; Cross-cultural Communication
5	The Interpretation of Numerical Values; Chinese Numbers and Numerology; Numbers in Chinese Culture, Education and Environment; Translation Theory and Practice, including transcreation and re-writing, and paratext
6	Interpreter and Translator Education/Course Design/Pedagogy; Testing/Assessment and Quality Assurance Issues of Interpreting Examinations

Table 5.5 Staff Members' Research Interests at Manchester¹⁰⁶

Staff Member	Research Interests
1	Translation/Interpreting and Conflict; Translation/Interpreting and War; Translating/Interpreting and Citizen Media, especially in the context of the Egyptian revolution; Ethics in Translation Research and Translator/Interpreter Training; Application of Narrative Theory to Translation and Interpreting Framing & Contextualization Processes in Translation and Interpreting; Activist Communities of Translators/Interpreters (e.g. Babels, Tlaxcala, Translators for Peace, ECOS, etc.); Translation/Interpreting and Protest Movements; Corpus-based Translation Studies
2	Translation and Memory; Memory Studies and the Distant Past (the Middle Ages); Translating for International Organizations; French-English Translation of 19th and 20th Century Literature; Intercultural Communication
3	Conference Interpreter Training; Online Resources for Interpreter Training; Training Interpreters Working into a B Language; English

¹⁰⁶ There are 9 core members of staff at the translation, interpreting and intercultural studies team in the University of Manchester. However, table 5.5 only summaries research interests of 7 staff due to incomplete information provided online. One member only provides teaching summary, and only personal contact details offered for another member. For more information, please go to the website: <http://www.alc.manchester.ac.uk/subjects/tis/>

	Enhancement for Professional Interpreters; Interpreting between Spanish and English; Interpreting for the EU
4 ¹⁰⁷	Conference Interpreting
5	The Socio-technical Practices of Translation, from a range of perspectives and in a variety of settings; Ethnographies of translation; Translation of science; Volunteer translation
6	Audiovisual translation; Forensic Application of Spoken Discourse Studies; The interface between Forensic Linguistics and Translation Studies.
7	Theory and Practice of Public Service and Conference Interpreting; Intersubjectivity; Sociology of the Workplace; Interpreting in Social Service Contexts; the Neutrality of the Public Sphere; Migrant Rights; Third Sector Organisations; Capacity Planning, Interpreting in Situations of (Violent) Conflict.

¹⁰⁷ Staff 4 is the only Mandarin native speaker in the core teaching team.

Table 5.6 Staff Members' Research Interests at Leicester¹⁰⁸

Staff Member	Research Interests
1	The Role Played by Translation in Contexts of Migration (especially in relation to Italy); Issues of Gender(s) and Sexuality in Translation
2	Interpreting Expertise and Cognitive Skills Acquisition; Self-regulation of Professional Interpreters and the Concept of Deliberate Practice; Community Interpreting; Ethnographic Research of Non-professional Interpreters in Religious Settings; Intercultural Mediation; Research Methodology
3	Translation Theory; Translation Studies; Translation and Language; Translation and Philosophy; Hans Christian Andersen's Language and Literary Production in Danish and in Translations into English.
4	The Translation of the Qur'an and Arabic Literary Texts into English; The Linguistic Challenges that Translators of these Two Genres (Arabic and English) Come Across and the Total Effect of Their Choices on Their Respective Output
5	Process-Oriented Translation Studies where translation is seen as a cognitive human behaviour that can be planned, managed, described and reflected upon; Translation Revision Processes; Translation Pedagogy

¹⁰⁸ For more information, please go to the website: <http://www2.le.ac.uk/departments/modern-languages>

These findings shown in tables 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6 suggest that interdisciplinarity¹⁰⁹ has become a distinguishing characteristic of current research trends. As proposed by Munday (2012), scholars in our field tend to carry out interdisciplinary research projects, but translation studies primarily adheres to the longer-established disciplines, such as linguistics, modern languages and language studies; language teaching and learning; cultural studies (especially gender studies); and philosophy (of language and meaning, including hermeneutics and deconstruction and ethics). This preference for researching primarily on general cultural and linguistic theories in the TS field, proposed by Munday, is also demonstrated in tables 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6.

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

¹⁰⁹ The role of an interdiscipline in academic society, defined by Willard McCarty in his paper ‘Humanities computing as interdiscipline’ (1999), is explained thus: “A true discipline is.....not easily understood, funded or managed in a world already divided along disciplinary lines, despite the standard pieties...Rather it is an entity that exists in the interstices of the existing fields, dealing with some, many or all of them. It is the Phoenician trader among the settled nations. Its existence is enigmatic in such a world; the enigma challenges us to rethink how we organise and institutionalise knowledge” (McCarty, 1999, Cited in Munday 2012, p. 23).

This is partly because the arts and humanities have a common idea that “they understand themselves to be an education not primarily structured around the imparting of skills and competences” (Martin, 2003, p. 301). Moreover, TS is mostly established within the schools/departments of modern languages and/or cultures in the UK (see appendix 3), where the theoretical arts and humanities tradition is still the mainstream. Another possible reason which may be responsible for the gap between research and practice is that “research assessments in the UK (formal external audits and evaluations of individuals’ and departments’ research output) have valued academic articles higher than translations, even translations of whole books. This ignores the fact that the practice of translation is an invaluable, not to say essential, experience for the translation theorist and trainer” (Munday, 2012, p. 25).

In fact, several TS scholars have expressed their concerns about the gap between the translation profession and its academic discipline. One possible means to bridge this gap, suggested by Malmkær (2010), is to ensure that teaching programmes have face validity for members of those professions in which students might seek employment. This opinion has been consolidated by Mackenzie and Schäffner. According to Schäffner (2012, p. 38), “if the aim of translator training programmes is to prepare graduates for the rapidly changing market, we need to ensure we have the required content, teaching methods, assessment procedures, and the teaching staff who are themselves knowledgeable and competent in delivering the programme”. Mackenzie (2010), showing similar viewpoints, stresses the need for course designers to understand the world of professional translation.

The above hope for TS teaching staff proposed by Malmkær, Schäffner and Mackenzie could be achieved in many ways. Firstly, a translation teacher could be a professional translator herself. Secondly, programme designers could invite professionals to deliver presentations or provide placement opportunities for students. Thirdly, teaching staff who conduct research on

market demands, industry needs or translator training towards social needs (Kelly, 2005; Li, 2012) could be another effective means. Furthermore, as analysed in Chapter 2, the market requires trainee translators, if they would like to become professional translators upon graduation, to develop at least the following competences (refer to Figure 2.5) in the universities: language competence, translation competence, professionalism and extra-linguistic knowledge. Thus, research could be conducted on the evaluation of these translator competences, and how to integrate them into daily teaching. These competences required by the industry could then become benchmarks for quality assurance on the translation programmes (Schäffner, 2012) and would in turn enhance teaching effectiveness.

Finally, there seems to be little cross-disciplinary research combining translation and other disciplines (e.g. business, politics, media and law). But in fact, there is a relationship between translation studies and other disciplines. In addition to translating texts from specialised areas (technology; business; literature; science; social science and law)¹¹⁰, translation may have a role in other areas in accordance with the expertise of particular institution. In this context, translation studies have a relationship to a new discipline. At the very beginning of this chapter, we discussed the current convention in most UK universities to promote and react to new links between types of knowledge and technologies. Although we may have seen limited progress in Arts and Humanities in that it is not easy to generate immediate business benefits from research achievements in these disciplines, illuminating exchanges and debates between researchers and the profession could be still promoted. On the one hand, this may help identify specific areas of research innovation; on the other hand, it may provide teaching staff with opportunities to enhance their teaching content and to share best practice with students. From a more practical point of view, knowledge and ideas shared by practising experts may help

¹¹⁰ These six semi-specialised areas are suggested from the market-entry test: Diploma in Translation (refer to Chapter 2). These subject areas reflect the demands of the market to a certain extent.

embed the employability enhancement in the learning outcomes and teaching process of pertinent modules.

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

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

In fact, this method of introducing an element (s) of professionalization into teaching has been advocated by many TS scholars. For instance, in his book *Pathways to Translation: Pedagogy and Process*, Kiraly (1995, p. 72ff) describes an experiment in which all his students are put in a real situation, providing them with a real assignment as group work and suggesting them to work out for themselves what knowledge (or skills) they need to know and how to acquire the necessary resources, under the supervision of the teacher. In this context, the teachers act in the role of consultant. Mackenzie (2010, p. 36) also suggests that in the translation classroom, the teachers can choose texts that have already been translated in a real situation, and in this way, teachers can take the role of client, expert consultant, or language reviser. The students can work in groups and act as different roles involved in the translating process. This real or simulated role-play teaching method has also been supported by Kelly (2005, p. 101-102), advising that “within a small group, roles are assigned to simulate professional situations. One student is the client, another the terminologist, the researcher, the translator, the project manager, the reviser.....” The students can also rotate their roles with their peers to get a comprehensive picture of the work flow in the industry.

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

The second dimension is that the thread of the whole teaching process in MTI programmes is practice. Teachers are advised to pay particular attention to developing students’ translation

competences at all levels (see table 2.4). Concomitantly, it is suggested that critical analysis of translation case studies should be incorporated in the curriculum and to be executed through teaching activities. Additionally, students are required to complete at least 150,000 words translation work or 400 hours interpreting tasks. This regulation indicates that the policy makers of the MTI programme believe practice is the most important way to become professionals. This, in some quarters, is in contrast to the education ideas in the UK. Although some universities (e.g. Newcastle; Leeds; Bath) recognise the significant role of practice in the enhancement of translating and interpreting skills, they do however think it is necessary to provide students with enough knowledge on translation as an academic subject, mainly in a research/theory-oriented way.

The third dimension is to carry out tutor group instruction. As mentioned in Chapter 4, the essence of tutor group instruction relies on the following:

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

(The official guiding plan of MTI Programme, 2011, p. 2)

This tutor group instruction can be understood as a co-operative model. Different parties within both academic institutions and professional organisations are suggested to be included in the team of teaching MTI students. This team teaching model should incorporate in-house

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

In response to the above three suggestions promoted by the MTI committee, our three cases have carried out different plans. For example, as Zhao and Mu (2013, p. 81) explains, most of the core teaching staff of the MTI programme at GDUF are both practitioners in translation and interpreting and researchers in these two areas (also see table 5.5). Additionally, the department constantly invites senior translators and interpreters who work for the UN and EU or other professional organisations to deliver short courses (also see Chapter 4). Many teachers of the MTI programme at GDUF are involved in the process of drafting and designing the official guiding plan. Thus, they acknowledge the importance of professional engagement in this specific degree course from the very beginning. The professional standards of the core teaching staff at GDUF are reflected in table 5.7, which summarises their teaching and researching interests.

Table 5.7 Staff Expertise on the MTI programme of GDUFS¹¹¹

Staff Member	Research Interests
1	Interpreting Studies; Interpreting Teaching and Training; Translation Studies
2	Linguistics; Translation Studies; Cross-cultural Communications
3	Translation Studies; Translation Education and Training; Curriculum Design and Development for Translation Programmes
4	Comparative Linguistics (English-Chinese); Translation Theories and Applications; British and American Literatures
5	Translation Studies; Pragmatics; Discourse Analysis; Business Interpreting
6	The Histories of Translation; Applied Translation; Interpreting Studies; Forensic Linguistics
7	Translation Studies; Functional Linguistics; Business Translation Studies
8	Translation Teaching and Education
9	Literary Translation: Theories and Applications; East-West Poetry
10	Interpreting Theories and Applications; Translation Studies; Cultural Studies
11	Terminologies in Translation; Comparative Translation

¹¹¹ The information on staff expertise at the MTI programme of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies is trans-
 edited from the its official website at: <http://mti.gdufs.edu.cn/lmdh/zxsx/Faculty.htm>

12	Translation Theories and Applications
13	Linguistics and Applied Linguistics; Languages and Translation
14	Practical Translation; Business English; Conference Interpreting
15	Interpreting Theories and Applications
16	Interpreting Studies; Interpreting Teaching and Training
17	Interpreting Applications and Teaching; Interpreting Studies
18	Conference Interpreting; Interpreting Teaching and Training
19	Interpreting Applications and Teaching; Conference Interpreting
20	Translation History in China; Translation Theories; Descriptive Translation Studies; Literary Translation in Late Qing Dynasty; Interpreting Studies; Applied Translation
21	Interpreting Teaching; Interpreting Quality Assessment; Discourse Analysis in Interpreting
22	Interpreting Studies; Corpus-based Translation Studies

As shown in table 5.7, we can see that research on translation/interpreting studies and related issues is the mainstream, though linguistics and literature are not entirely excluded. This is different from some universities in the UK (see table 5.4; 5.5; 5.6) and also its sister programmes in China (see table 5.7; table 5.9) in which some staff still prefer to conduct primary research on linguistics, literature and cultural studies. Another feature demonstrated in

table 5.7 is that attention to the applied branch of TS has been given in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, such as translator education (training) and practical translation in different domains. Also, half of its staff have expertise in conference interpreting and interpreting studies. Through analysis of its staff expertise, it is not hard to acknowledge the reasons why the MTI programme at GDUFS has a higher level of professionalism and holds a leading role across the nation. Furthermore, due to the fact that Guangdong province as a whole is one of the most developed areas in China, frequent business exchanges in Guangzhou and the nearby city Shenzhen have allowed both teachers and students to immerse themselves in the professional world. In this vein, staff expertise may not be a problem for the MTI programme at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies.

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

The MTI programme at Peking University, compared to GDUFS, provides us with a different picture of teaching and learning. If we use the staff expertise as the initial benchmark (see table 5.8), it is clear that translation studies, literature and linguistics are the mainstream.

Table 5.8 Staff Expertise on the MTI Programme of Peking University¹¹²

Staff Member	Research Interests
1	Medieval British Literature; Bibliographical Research; Historical Linguistics
2	British and American Contemporary Novels; Comparative Literature
3	Translation Studies; 19 th Century American Literature; American Poetry
4	Translation Studies; Comparative Cultures (East-West); Shakespeare Studies
5	Chinese to English Translation; Irish Literature
6	Linguistics; Comparative Rhetoric
7	Chinese Languages and Literature
8	Computer-aided Translation; Localisation; Language Services
9	Translation Studies; Linguistics
10	Comparative Literature; Translation Theories and Applications

¹¹² There are two main sources to summarise the staff expertise at the MTI programme of Peking University. The first source is its website at: <http://uicss.cn/mti/3-1.html>, and the second sources stems from the MTI programme's prospectus (hard copy) which is provided by the programme director during the interview.

11	Translation Theories and Applications; Interpreting
12	Business English; English-Chinese Translation; Legal Translation
13	English-Chinese Translation (Both Ways)
14	Computer-aided Translation; Translation Technologies and Teaching; Localisation
15	Practical Translation; Translation Project Management

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

The delivery of teaching content in Peking University does not entirely coincide with the suggestions provided by the MTI committee, but always has a focus on the pertinent industries. As discussed in Chapter 4, the MTI programme at Peking University provides students with a core module on Translation Profession and Translation Management, including topics such as the translation process, the market needs, professional development, professional ethics and client education (Peng, 2009). Additionally, project-based teaching method and authentic tasks are fully adopted in this module, and the module convenor herself is also the managing director

of a translation company. In so doing, students have the opportunity to acquire the hands-on knowledge from an expert. Additionally, as in previous years, the MTI centre at Peking University established a joint CAT programme with the department of language and information engineering; localisation is also a core component in this programme.

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

Although Central Normal University is the first one to establish an MTI programme in Hubei province, and Hubei province has the fourth biggest volume of HE institutions, it is still not easy for the MTI programme at Central Normal University to match/keep up with its sister programmes in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou. It is known from previous discussions that the MTI programme at CCNU has offered a certain number of modules on linguistics-related areas and translation theories (see table 4.9 and 5.3.2), such as rhetoric, comparative linguistics between English and Chinese, and East-West translation histories. However, modules such as professional ethics and translation project management are not yet established. Most of the

professional issues are introduced via teachers' external engagement or public lectures by professional translators. This scenario is observable with the MTI programme at CCNU; indeed, many universities across the nation could face this challenge. The fact is that some universities do not offer modules on certain aspects of professional issues because they cannot staff them. From conversations with the course director it is clear that staff expertise is indeed an important indicator when designing curriculum and teaching content on the MTI programme at CCNU. Moreover, for the CCNU programme, if they cannot staff certain modules (e.g. screen translation), it would be better not to open them rather than establishing a mere skeleton course. The following table regarding staff expertise at Central China Normal University can further explain this issue.

Table 5.9 Staff Expertise on the MTI programme of Central China Normal University¹¹³

Staff	Research Interests
1	Translation Studies; Comparative Linguistics (English-Chinese); Sociolinguistics; Cognitive Linguistics; Language and Philosophy
2	Translation Theories; Corpus-based Translation Studies; Comparative Linguistics (English-Chinese) and Translation
3	Translation Theories and Applications; Comparison between translated books (East-West); Translation Criticism; Translation and Cultural Studies

¹¹³ The information has acquired from the official website of the school of foreign languages at CCNU: <http://wy.ccnu.edu.cn/plus/list.php?tid=110>. However, due to the fact that this page consisting of all the teaching staff working in this school, including the departments of literature, linguistics and teacher training. Therefore, the author of this study has initially checked about each member staff's research interests and group a team of translation teachers, whose expertise is shown in table 5.9.

4	British and American Literatures; Comparative Literatures; Literary Translation
5	Translation Studies; Linguistics
6	Translation Theories and Applications (English-Chinese); Translation Criticism; Stylistics; Pragmatics; Comparative Linguistics
7	Translation and Interpreting Theories and Applications; American History; Comparison of East-West Cultures
8	Translation Theories; Translation Teaching and Training; Cross-cultural Communications
9	Translation Histories; Translation Theories
10	Translation Theories and Applications; Language Aesthetics; Comparison of East-West Cultures
11	Interpreting Teaching and Training; Interpreting Practices
12	Translation Theories and Applications; Literary Stylistics; Narratology; English Language Teaching

Table 5.9 demonstrates that ‘translation theories’ and ‘comparative linguistics’ are the key words in terms of staff’s research interests. This can further explain why translation theory-related modules and linguistics-related modules are largely taught at CCNU. Fan (1994), Chen (1996) and Xiong (2011) have proposed a similar point, arguing that the comparison between English and Chinese languages is the mainstream when teaching translation courses. This

preference suffers from two major drawbacks. Firstly, in terms of theory-related modules and linguistics-related modules, the teachers probably focus mainly on the knowledge input rather than sufficient practice, which makes it difficult to match the second suggestion proposed by the official guiding plan. Secondly, there are small group teaching opportunities (e.g. seminars; workshops; and tutorials). Traditional lectures which rely heavily on teacher-led explanations are still the dominant way (Xiong, 2011, p. 93).

During the interview with the course director of CCNU programme, the author asked questions regarding teaching methods adopted in practical translation or related modules. It is known from the answers that a combination of task-based approach, group discussion and students' presentations are adopted in teaching practical translation. However, for those theory-oriented modules, the teacher-centred method is still included. In addition, due to the fact that they cannot staff modules about translation as a profession, the simulated translation project which is highly recommended by the official plan is actually yet to be established.

Viewed from the above core teaching ideas suggested by the official guiding plan, as well as the plans taken up by the three cases, it is found that in order to fulfil the teaching objectives proposed by the official guiding plan, teachers are required to have a certain amount of teaching experience, to be translation practitioners at the same time, and to be familiar with the work flow of translation projects in the profession. Cao (2012, p. 33) also argues that ideally speaking, MTI teachers should have multiple roles: combining professional translator, experienced university teacher and modern translation technologist, but this is not the real case for MTI programmes. Yet, according to tables 5.5, 5.6, 5.7, at least half of the teaching staff do not have research interests in the 'applied branch of TS', in practical translation or in market needs, which is similar to the situation in the UK. This has also been proven by the figures collected by Ge, Luo and Dong (2011, p. 34) in their empirical study towards the curriculum design of

13 MTI programmes, indicating that half of the MTI teachers lack professional translation experience. Therefore, we cannot expect the teaching content and the teaching methods to be professionally-oriented in most MTI programmes. It is also significant to highlight that there is a discrepancy between the national policy and the practice of member institutions. The professionally-oriented approach cannot be entirely implemented in every MTI programme. In addition to staff expertise, institutional strategies and resources are other key factors in the decision-making process of teaching activities.

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

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

5.4.4 Comparison of Education Resources

As investigated in previous parts of this study, education resources may be the root cause of deciding how to develop a translation programme. By definition, education resources include

two dimensions: external factors such as national education policy, regional economic standards and HE resources, or types of universities; and internal factors like institutional strategic plans, engagement with business, or staff expertise. Both the external and internal aspects are important to deciding the orientation and specialisation of a pertinent course. Using data gathered from online curricula information about the six case studies and the interviews with six course directors, this section endeavours to demonstrate evidence of how education resources are used as strengths and/or constraints in the planning and delivery of translation programmes in China and the UK, respectively.

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

translation programme. This is because translation, as an academic discipline in China, is developed from the subject area of foreign languages (Luo and Mu, 2010).

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

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

The Guangdong University of Foreign Studies is a foreign language university, which has offered courses in translation and interpreting since the late 1970s and now has translation programmes at different levels (BA, BTI, MA, MTI, PHD) (Wang and Mu, 2009). This university also has a team of core academic staff who are combined with research experts and experienced professional translators (see table 5.7). Meanwhile, as one of the most developed areas in China, there is high demand for translators in Guangdong province. Therefore, we can deduce that Guangdong University of Foreign Studies has the most abundant resources in developing its translation courses, establishing internship bases and creating further professional activities.

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

But not every institution can have as many resources as Guangdong University of Foreign Studies and Peking University. The third case study in China is such an example. In terms of numbers, internship bases at Central Normal Universities are clearly fewer than the other two case studies. Currently, it has three internship bases (Trancn Information Technology Co., Ltd.-Wuhan Division; Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press; Xinhua News Agency-Hubei Division) and plans to establish five or six or even more. However, numbers cannot always guarantee quality. From the interview, it is known that there are roughly 30 students for each cohort, and sometimes the number is even higher, for example, there are 38 students in the 2012/2013 academic year.

Now here comes the question. How can these three internship bases accommodate all the students? From the website¹¹⁴ of the Trancn Information Technology Co., Ltd., it is noted that Trans actually cooperates with 68 universities in China. Of these, Trancn-Wuhan Divion was

¹¹⁴ University Partners that Trancn cooperates with: <http://www.transn.com/bencandy.php?fid=46&id=12>

built up partnerships with 16 universities in Hubei Province where Central China Normal University is located. This may severely restricts the amount of resources that can be allocated to each university. Of course, the MTI programme at Central China Normal University encourages its students to find internship opportunities themselves. But the feasibility of the internship bases ought to be taken into consideration by policy makers.

In addition to internships, the connections with professional translators and organisations also benefit from, or are restricted by, education resources. Similarly to the allocations of internship bases, obviously MTI programmes situated in economically developed areas have more advantages than those in remote areas. For example, the MTI programme at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies is able to recruit a team of 15 professional tutors¹¹⁵ at a single time to make contributions to daily teaching, dissertation supervision and provision of lectures/seminars about the translation profession. The MTI programme at Peking University, although building up partnerships with professional translators and organisations in different ways (see also Chapter 4), pays much attention to the professional impulse in its course.

But the MTI programmes established in the less developed regions are confronted with difficulties. The third case study in China, Central China Normal University, can shed further light on this issue. During the interview, a question¹¹⁶ regarding professional presentations or speeches was raised. It is clear from the response that most of the guest speakers or lecturers are academics (professors of TS from sister programmes). The opportunities for inviting professionals to give lectures are relatively few. Of course, Central China Normal University intends to strengthen its MTI programme in the future. Firstly, it intends to invite more

¹¹⁵ Please refer to Appendix 6 for more information about the professional tutors in the MTI programme at GDUFS.

¹¹⁶ The question is “Apart from teaching staff in your school as well as visiting lecturers, do you invite other professionals in translation and interpreting to deliver presentations or speeches?” Please refer to appendices for more information.

professionals to deliver presentations mainly on the translation profession, professional ethics, and professional regulations. Secondly, the staff members do hope to introduce more knowledge of translation in specific subject areas. These hopes can be regarded as complimentary to its core curriculum.

It is necessary to make the point here that Hubei province, where Central China Normal University is located, is not a less developed economic area. Moreover, in their article *The regional division of the higher education sector in China: a spatial analysis*, Chen and Wu (2011) analysed HE development status and potential. Four zones¹¹⁷ are categorised with different stages. Hubei province is in Zone IV. Although there are constraints of local financial conditions on higher education development, Hubei province is not a resource-lacking area in HE. There are a certain number of MTI programmes actually located in Zone II and Zone III, in particular Zone III.¹¹⁸ “are located in western China where both economic performances and higher education development lag far behind the national average” (Chen and Wu, 2011, p. 23). This indicates that these provinces may have fewer opportunities in terms of international exchanges and trades. Instead, domestic development should be the main target for the local government. Therefore, translation and interpreting only have limited roles to play.

According to the latest statistics from the MTI committee, there are 206 MTI programmes in the whole country, and, in line with Chen and Wu’s categorisation of HE regions (ibid, 2011), 61 MTI programmes belong to the provinces of Zone III, accounting for 29.6%, and the vast majority (56) of these 61 programmes were established very recently (2010; 2014). As

¹¹⁷ The four zones are: Zone I: Higher development status and high development potential; Zone II: Low development status and high development potential; Zone III: Low development status and low development potential; Zone IV: High development status but low development potential.

¹¹⁸ Zone III accounts for 16 provinces in China. They are: Chongqing; Hunan; Jiangxi; Shanxi; Sichuan; Anhui; Gansu; I. Mongolia; Hainan; Xingjiang; Hebei; Tibet; Guangxi; Yunnan; Guizhou; Qinghai.

mentioned in previous chapters, the 206 MTI programmes were not established at the same time. In total, there were 5 batches. The first batch is in 2007 (15 MTI programmes), the second batch was in 2008 (25 MTI programmes), the third batch was in 2010 (118 MTI programmes), the fourth batch was in 2011 (1 MTI programme), and the fifth batch was in 2014 (47 MTI programme). This shows that these newly established MTI programmes (third batch to fifth batch) may need attention from the MTI committee in terms of staff expertise, internship bases, and professional engagement. Our case study, the MTI programme at Central China Normal University, belongs to the second batch, and is still struggling with how to make its course more professional, and the newly launched programmes may be experiencing greater difficulties.

It is also essential to point out that Chen and Wu's categorisation provides us with a general picture of distributions of HE in China, but it is not an absolute indicator, and nor are different batches of the MTI programme. For example, there are several universities not belonging to the first or second batch and located in Zone III, but having advantages in foreign languages related disciplines (e.g. Sichuan International Studies University; Sichuan University). However, the major challenge faced by most MTI programmes, as argued by Zhong (Cited in Ping, 2013), is that the professional nature of the MTI programme is not properly understood and acknowledged by many MTI programmes. Also, special attention needs to be paid to the newly established MTI programmes regarding their student admission criteria, curriculum design, staff expertise, and other professional opportunities.

The MTI programme, in general, is not mature and faces several tentative challenges, but it can still be seen to be developing positively. Initially, the MTI committee made every effort to create more opportunities for those programmes that have fewer resources. Secondly, conferences and meetings regarding the development of the MTI programmes are offered very

frequently, both nationally, regionally, and locally. Thirdly, the Translators Association of China organises the training course on Training of Trainers (TOT) each summer, aiming to provide guidance for the teachers from universities or regions with fewer resources. All these efforts may bring out positive prospects for this unique degree course in China.

In contrast, owing to the longer-established HE system in the UK, there are not as dramatic disparities of education resources are not as dramatic between the different regions in China. However, the notion of education resources still has some impact on the design of a course in the UK. More specifically, national policy, institutional strategic plans and staff expertise are the three most important factors, and the first factor has a decisive influence on the latter two. Today, public funding of the HE sector in the UK is “based upon assessments of performance governed by centralised procedures” (Willmott, 2010, p. 138-139). The research excellence framework (REF)¹¹⁹, a peer assessment of the quality of academic research in all disciplines, can be regarded as the ‘national policy’ in the UK context because the results determine whether or not steady funding could be granted to universities as well as their rankings in league tables. Every six years, universities are asked to submit examples of their best research to be assessed by a team of academics and industry experts. Each subject area is awarded up to four stars, and only subject areas that are awarded three and four stars¹²⁰ secure research funding. In general, a top rating can help universities secure research funding, while a poor performance may close a department. It is therefore understandable that research is vital for a university’s sustainable development in the UK.

¹¹⁹ The REF is the new system for assessing the quality of research in UK universities. It replaces the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE), last conducted in 2008 (www.ref.ac.uk).

¹²⁰ Four star is the highest level, which means the research is world-leading. Three star indicates the research is internationally excellent (www.ref.ac.uk).

The addition in 2014 of the new indicator of ‘impact’ (taking up 20% of the overall score) meant that research projects carried out by academics are required to have influences outside academia. To be more specific, research is now expected to have impact on the economy, society, culture, public policy and services, health, the environment and quality of life, within the UK and internationally (REF Report, 2014). Alongside impact, research is also assessed by other two criteria: research output (65%) which is the product of any form of research including publications such as journal articles, books, conference contributions, digital media or exhibitions; and research environment (15%), which refers to the strategy, resources and infrastructure that support research activity in the submitted subject area and contribute more widely to the discipline (REF Report, 2014), including factors such as the number of PhD students within a department (Ratcliffe, 2014)¹²¹.

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

In our own field, all the three cases participated in the recent REF assessment. In terms of both overall performances and the subject area performances¹²², the University of Manchester and Newcastle University ranked higher than the University of Leicester (see appendix 7). Our

¹²¹ This statement is acquired from the Guardian article on REF 2014, which can be accessed via: <http://www.theguardian.com/higher-education-network/2014/dec/17/ref-2014-why-is-it-such-a-big-deal>

¹²² As the vast majority of the translation programmes are included in the school of modern languages and/or cultures, the assessment of the translation unit is embedded in the unit of modern language and linguistics (number 28).

previous analysis showed that the MATIS in Manchester and the T&I in Newcastle have more available resources than the MATS in Leicester in terms of engagement with business and staff expertise. For example, thanks to its strong research capacities as well as the constant engagement with the professional world, the translation programme in Newcastle have a well thought-out balance between teaching abstract theory and meeting professional needs. This resourceful advantage could also be embedded with the staff expertise. In addition to its core academic staff (research and teaching), a team of part time staff drawn from professional translators and alumni who are now experienced translators also makes a contribution to the daily teaching and the further development of the T&I programme in Newcastle. Thus, students admitted to this programme can develop all-around abilities of both criticality and key competences required by a professional translator. Also, they have additional chances to go to international organisations to find out more about the crucial work carried out by translators and interpreters in international affairs. The MATS in Leicester has comparatively fewer education resources. From both the documents and the interview, we acknowledge that this programme does want to make its courses more professional because this is what the market demands. However, the Leicester programme is newly established and is still in the reputation building stage. Also the unit of modern languages in Leicester has not been ranked as highly as the other two cases in the REF assessment. The allocated funding and resources for Leicester are relatively fewer. In this sense, there could be fewer collaborative opportunities for the Leicester programme to connect with the wider professional community, not to mention optimising curriculum content or assisting professional development.

Additionally, universities in the UK are confronted with dual pressures from research and market demands (or student needs). Universities have to motivate their staff to improve their research levels in order to get better results in the next REF assessment. Yet with market forces,

many degree or postgraduate courses are required to be more professional. Thus, teaching content is recommended to be professional-oriented in order to provide students with more employable skills. This is part of the reason why the tension between education and training and between research and profession always exists. The MATIS programme in Manchester in our field further illustrates this pressure. The translation unit in Manchester, as a top ranking unit within a research-intensive university, has been granted more research resources than the other two cases. Notably, this programme has more research experts than professional translators in terms of its core academic staff (also see table 5.8). This can explain that why the priority of the MATIS programme is to maintain its research reputation. Moreover, as a stepping-stone to PhD study¹²³, it is reasonable to place a certain number of theory/research-oriented modules in the curriculum. However, driven by market forces, policy makers have to add professional units to the curriculum in order to meet the market and students' needs. In this sense, practice-based modules and seminars conducted by professional translators are also included in the curriculum, though in these modules or seminars theoretical content still outweighs practical input. From this example, we see that the MATIS at Manchester is trying to find a balance between research pressure and industry needs, and the same is true with many other courses in UK universities.

In summary, this analysis demonstrates that university programmes in both countries are affected by the available education resources. In China, the disparities of economic standards and HE resources in different regions have a profound influence on the pertinent degree course (e.g. the MTI programme). In the UK, the level of available resources to be used to develop a university course is mostly dependent on the university and the subject area's research

¹²³ The number of PhD students in a department is also an assessing factor in terms of research environment in the REF assessment.

reputation. The universities' research level and reputation can attract more students and boost more collaborative projects between and outside academia – or have the opposite effect.

5.5 Chapter Summary

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

Due to different economic and cultural 'statuses' in the global system, the HE sectors and their translation programmes in China and the UK have responded differently. As China is now playing an increasingly important role in world affairs and seeks to increase its influences, the HE sector is expected to make contributions to the country's soft power construction. The translation programmes are also accorded an important role in this national mission. Graduates are expected to be able to play a vital role in the international exchanges in a wide range of fields between China and the world, and to translate Chinese classics into English and other foreign languages to promote Chinese culture and core values in other countries. The UK, on the contrary, has successfully established its reputation over the past years due to its history, language and culture. Economic growth, instead of global influence, is now the nation's top

priority. The higher education sector in the UK is an important sector of economic activity in its own right. Higher education generates more output than many other sectors (Universities UK, 2014). Translation programmes (English-Chinese) in the UK are largely taken by international students, especially Chinese students. Due to the constraints of the visa policies, the vast majority of these students need to go back to their home countries, and they are not expected to serve the UK's political and economic development. This fact notwithstanding, the tuition fees and living expenses paid by translation students and other international students have made a substantial contribution to economic activity in the UK.

As a comparative study, this chapter, primarily based on the collected data and the analysis in Chapters 3 and 4, also compares different curricula design strategies adopted in both countries' translation programmes to bridge the tension between academia and the marketplace, from the perspective of course objectives, module content, teaching methods and education resources. Regarding course objectives there is a clear distinction between China and the UK. The MTI programme in China has the pure practical aim of cultivating professional translators and interpreters working in different subject areas. However, in the UK, translation programmes are still trying to seek a well-balanced relationship between generic theory and the translation profession. Different course objectives can result in different module content. From the perspective of Chinese MTI programmes, translating and interpreting in different subject-specific fields (c.f. foreign affairs, commerce, law, science and technology) is advocated by the MTI committee for incorporation into the curriculum. The sister programmes in the UK, on the other hand, tend to teach students more general skills to be applied in a wide range of areas. It is also essential to point out that the concept of language services firstly appeared in Chinese MTI programmes in line with the rapid development in the language services industry. Two pioneering programmes have already been exposed to this changing trend, and have made

corresponding adjustments regarding their course objectives and module content. According to the previous findings, there is not a single translation programme establishing a language services pathway for its translation and/or interpreting cohort, though language services is well accepted in the market. In terms of teaching methods, the British model as a whole represents research-informed teaching and learning (knowledge priority); whilst the Chinese MTI programme is a pure professional degree course (skills priority). The biggest constraint faced by both countries is the lack of engagement with the profession. This could be a common task if they wished to optimise their courses in the future.

Conclusion

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

In view of the above chapters, we can summarise that this thesis has mainly discussed the following issues. The neo-liberal economic globalisation has had a profound influence on the HE systems in both the UK and China, but due to different academic traditions and national contexts, the HE systems in these two countries have adopted different strategies. For universities in the UK, internationalising its HE sector, building knowledge transfer partnerships, and linking HE to employability are outstanding examples. In China, driven by market forces, some reforms of the HE system have been carried out, such as the expansion of the HE sector, the decentralisation of the HE system, and commercialisation, privatisation and diversification of the HE sector. It has also been found in this study that the UK and China are now placed with different positions in the global context, which has different expectations towards the HE sectors. China, as the rising power and new economy, is now in the process of building an image in international affairs and constructing its own 'soft power', the HE sector (including the translation subject) is then given a significant role in this national mission. Graduates from the translation programmes in China are also expected to make contributions to help promote Chinese cultures in other countries and to help bridge the linguistic and cultural gap in the internationalisation process of Chinese firms. Obviously this is not the case in the UK. As the UK has been very competitive in terms of soft power, brand recognition is not an urgent task for the UK. Its economic and business growth of higher education is more important.

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

Theoretical Contributions and Wider Implications

The research presented in this thesis distinguishes itself as the first and only study so far that seeks to provide both cross-national and cross-disciplinary perspectives in analysing the curricula of the postgraduate translation programmes (English-Chinese) in the UK and China, which has made a highly significant contribution to the academic research of the ‘Applied Translation Studies’. More specifically, this is the first study to explore the relationship between educational content and professional needs in curricula and translation programme design in two different national contexts. The market-driven transformation of the HE sectors and the responses given by the translation programmes are integrated in this study for the first time. The research presented in this thesis has also for the first time to combine translation market demands from the EU (excluding the UK), the UK and China to provide an integrated map of benchmarks for enhancing the quality of translation programmes in different parts of the world.

This study has wider implications for students, for policy makers and for course designers of translation programmes in the UK, China and other regions in the world. Firstly, this thesis has outlined different competences required from the market, and has provided readers with adequate examples of how translation programmes are delivered. In this sense, this thesis could be ‘used’ to help potential students to differentiate between and select translation programmes. Moreover, through the findings, there is an evident need to reconsider course design in response to the market demands. Firstly, the policy makers, especially the China National Committee for MTI Education, could find illuminating examples for the formulation of future policies, and for the optimisation of the evaluation system of the MTI programmes. This study has also provided course designers with a reference framework for the design and development of their own programmes. They may consider how they can fit their translation programmes into a big

world. It is the case that if they understand the global context, they will understand more. In view of the above, the research shown in this thesis can provide universities that want to establish or optimise translation programmes with illuminating examples.

Suggestions for Future Research Directions

This study has made contributions to the field of Translation Studies, especially to the area of translator education. However, there are still interesting topics that require further investigating. Firstly, the fact that many students who study translation and interpreting courses do not intend to be professional translators and/or interpreters, as Li (2012) has suggested. Specifically, many students taking translation courses primarily intend to develop their language skills, and prefer to work in multinational companies or become language teachers after graduation. Li (2003; 2012, p. 108-128) has conducted an empirical study at the Department of Translation of the Chinese University of Hong Kong to gather translation students' attitudes towards becoming translators and/or interpreters. The result has demonstrated that to enter into the profession of translation and interpreting was not the students' first choice. Instead, many of them preferred to work in government departments or private enterprises. This is also true with other translation programmes¹²⁴. Therefore, further studies on the translation graduates' destinations could be conducted, and how to design modules in the translation and interpreting programmes to deal with the requirements of those students who do not want to pursue a career in translation and interpreting could be distinguished and specified in future studies.

¹²⁴ During the interviews with the course directors, the author raised the question regarding graduates' destinations. According to their responses, it is a fact that many students do not work as translators and interpreters after graduation. However, since not all the students kept in touch with the universities, the course directors cannot provide the author with published statistics. Taking into consideration the difficulty in gathering all the graduates' destinations, this study cannot provide conclusive evidence. However, this topic could be carried out as a further research project.

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

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Appendices

Appendix 1: List of Interviewees in the UK and China

Number	Country	Affiliation	Role	Date	Place
1	UK	Newcastle University	Programme Director of MA T&I	09/04/2013	Newcastle
2	UK	The University of Manchester	Course Director of the MATIS	15/04/2013	Manchester
3	UK	University of Leicester	Course Director of the MATS	27/11/2013	Leicester
4	China	Peking University	Director of the MTI Education Centre	25/04/2013	Beijing
5	China	Guangdong University of Foreign Studies	Director of the MTI Programme	09/05/2013	Guangzhou
6	China	Central China Normal University	Director of the Department of Translation	30/05/2013	Wuhan

Appendix 2: A Sample List of Interview Questions

Note: The Chinese students below refer to those who began their studies in 2010/2011, 2011/2012, 2012/2013.

Part One: General questions about programme curriculum information

1 Entry Requirements

It is stated that ‘all applicants (stage 1 and stage 2) will be interviewed and must pass this element of the selection process’, so what qualifications and qualities are you looking for in your students? What is the format and content of the interview?

2 What factors determine your curriculum design of the whole MA Translating (Chinese Strand) programme?

3 Do market standards or demands affect your curriculum design? If yes, what standards do you consider? How do those standards reflect in separate modules?

4 Currently, most Chinese students are more likely to go back to China to hunt for a job due to several reasons, so will you consider the Chinese market as one indicator when designing the curriculum?

5 What are the graduate destinations? Do you have feedback from the market on the performance of your students? Is there any specific data to further explain the situation of the graduates?

6 In your programme overview: ‘this programme enables you to acquire high-quality translating skills so you may enter the translating profession, especially in marketable fields

such as technology, commerce, international relations and journalism”, why do you categorise your programme especially into these four subject areas?

7 What skills and capacities do the designers want the students to develop? How do these specific skills reflect in those modules?

8 Apart from teaching staff in your school as well as visiting lecturers, do you invite other professionals in translation and interpreting to deliver presentations or speeches? If yes, what do you hope them to deliver?

9 It is stated in your website: “Depending on the availability of the market and host institutions, we organise study visits and/or internship work placements for our T&I students. In addition to the study visits to the United Nations Office in Vienna and the Directorate General for Interpreting of the European Commission in Brussels, we help our students to participate in real conference as interpreters, or take up translation assignments, from the market when opportunities arise”. Are these opportunities eligible to every student? If not, are there any selective requirements? In addition to study visits to the International Organisations, would you please specify some other examples and details about internships in local industry or professional organisations?

Part Two: Questions on core modules regarding practical translation

1 Would you please clarify the focuses of the module ‘Translating’ and ‘Specialised Translations’ respectively?

2 Are Chinese to English translation exercises also introduced in the module ‘Translating I’?

3 I have noticed that there is a section called ‘Consulting informants’ in the Translating module, and personally I think this is very useful for students to learn how to consult colleagues or

seniors in their future work and also a method for developing interpersonal skills. So I would like to know the reasons why your department designs this mechanism?

4 Of all these subject areas taught in translation related modules, what are the most difficult ones for Chinese students? Do you have any explanation why this is the case?

5 In English to Chinese and Chinese to English translation, what aspects do Chinese students need to improve most in your opinion?

6 This question is just checking the assessment formats:

In the unseen translation exam, are internet sources permissible in addition to dictionaries?

In the formative assessment, is the translation text chosen by the teacher or by the students individually?

7 What are the marking criteria for this module? Or alternatively, is it possible to provide some marking criteria information?

8 In the description of ‘Translating 1’, there is a sentence stated like this: ‘Lectures provide input of translation theories followed by practical exercises to link theory to practice’. I would like to know are there any overlaps regarding theories with pure theoretical module such as ‘Translation Studies’?

Other Core Modules

1 How do you evaluate Chinese students’ performance in those theoretical modules in relation to others?

2 In the module ‘Information Technology’ or other related modules, do you teach or inform the students the complete work flow of a modern translator? (Translator, proof reader, or project manager)

3 Would you please introduce a bit more information about ‘mock exams’ (exam format, assessing format) in consecutive interpreting or simultaneous interpreting modules? Are those exams making contributions to students’ learning process?

A Specific Module: Professional Issues in Translating and Interpreting

1 Why do you arrange a team of staff (professionals and academic lecturers) to teach this module? What are the advantages? What kind of team work do you get involved with?

2 Would you please explain more about ‘Negotiating with clients’ and ‘professional translating simulations’?

3 There are 39 native Chinese speakers out of 53 students participating in this module. Is the content of your module directly or indirectly related to contemporary Chinese market? If yes, how do you categorise Chinese market into specific domain? If not, do you have any plan to explore Chinese market? What are the indicators? If no plan at all, do you personally think it is necessary to open such courses or incorporate Chinese market into this module?

Dissertation or Translation/Interpreting Project

1 Do Chinese students prefer to choose dissertation or translation project?

2 In translation project, a piece or portfolio of written translation plus commentary is required, so what aspects should be covered in a portfolio of written translation?

3 What are the marking criteria for dissertation/translation project?

Appendix 3: British Universities that Offer Translation Programmes

University	Department/School
Aston University	School of Languages and Social Sciences
Cardiff University	School of Modern Languages
Herriot-Watt University	School of Management and Languages
London Metropolitan University	School of Media, Culture and Communications
Middlesex University	School of Health and Education
Newcastle University	School of Modern Languages
SOAS University of London	Department of Linguistics
Swansea University	Department of Languages, Translation and Communication
University College London	UCL Centre for Multidisciplinary & Intercultural Inquiry
University of Bath	Department of Politics, Languages and International Studies
University of Birmingham	School of Languages, Cultures, Art, History and Music
University of Bristol	School of Modern Languages
University of East Anglia	School of Language and Communication Studies
University of Edinburgh	School of Literatures, Languages and Cultures
University of Essex	Department of Language and Linguistics
University of Exeter	School of Modern Languages
University of Durham	School of Modern Languages and Cultures
University of Hull	School of Languages, Linguistics and Cultures
University of Glasgow	School of Modern Languages and Cultures
University of Leeds	School of Languages, Cultures and Societies
University of Leicester	School of Modern Languages

University of Manchester	School of Arts, Languages and Cultures
University of Nottingham	School of Cultures, Languages and Area Studies
University of Portsmouth	School of Modern Languages and Area Studies
University of Salford	School of Languages
University of Sheffield	School of Languages and Cultures
University of Stirling	School of Arts and Humanities
University of Surrey	School of English and Languages
University of Warwick	School of English and Comparative Literary Studies
University of Westminster	Department of Modern Languages and Cultures

Appendix 4

List of Universities Approved to Run the MTI Programme

In alphabetical order (by school names)

Batch 1 (15 universities, 2007)

Beijing Foreign Studies University

Central South University

Fudan University

Guangdong University of Foreign Studies

Hunan Normal University

Nanjing University

Nankai University

Peking University

PLA University of Foreign Languages

Shanghai International Studies University

Shanghai Jiao Tong University

Southwest University

Sun Yat-sen University

Tongji University

Xiamen University

Batch 2 (25 universities, 2009)

Beihang University

Beijing International Studies University

Beijing Language and Culture University

Beijing Normal University

Capital Normal University

Central China Normal University

Dalian Foreign Languages Institute

East China Normal University

Fujian Normal University

Heilongjiang University

Henan University

Hunan University

Jilin University

Nanjing Normal University

Northeast Normal University

Ocean University of China

Shandong University

Sichuan International Studies University

Sichuan University

Suzhou University

Tianjin Foreign Studies University

University of International Business & Economics

Wuhan University

Xi'an International Studies University

Yanbian University

Batch 3 (118 universities, 2010)

Anhui Normal University

Anhui University

Beijing Forestry University

Beijing Institute of Technology

Beijing Jiaotong University

Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications

Changsha University of Science & Technology

Chengdu University of Technology

China Foreign Affairs College

China Three Gorges University

China University of Geosciences

China University of Mining and Technology

China University of Petroleum

Chongqing Normal University

Chongqing University

Dalian Maritime University

Dalian University of Technology

Donghua University

Fuzhou University

Graduate School of Chinese Academy of Sciences

Guangxi Normal University

Guangxi University

Guangxi University for Nationalities

Guizhou Normal University

Guizhou University

Hainan University

Harbin Engineering University

Harbin Institute of Technology

Harbin Normal University

Harbin University of Science and Technology

Hebei Normal University

Hebei United University

Hebei University

Hefei University of Technology

Henan Normal University

Henan University of Science and Technology

Hohai University

Huazhong University of Science and Technology

Hubei University

Hunan University of Technology

Inner Mongolia Normal University

Inner Mongolia University

Institute of International Relations

Jiangxi Normal University

Jilin Normal University

Jinan University

Lanzhou University

Liaocheng University

Liaoning Normal University

Liaoning University

Ludong University

Nanchang University

Nanjing Agricultural University

Nanjing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics

Nanjing University of Science and Technology

Ningbo University

Ningxia University

North China Electric Power University

North China University

Northeast Forestry University

Northeastern University

Northwest Normal University

Northwest University

Northwestern Polytechnical University

Qingdao University

Qingdao University of Science and Technology

Qufu Normal University

Shaanxi Normal University

Shandong Normal University

Shandong University of Finance

Shandong University of Science and Technology

Shanghai Institute of Foreign Trade

Shanghai Maritime University

Shanghai Normal University

Shanghai University

Shanxi Normal University

Shanxi University

Shenyang Normal University

Sichuan Normal University

South China Normal University

South China University of Technology

South-Central University for Nationalities

Southeast University

Southwest Jiaotong University

Southwest Petroleum University

Southwest University of Political Science and Law

Southwest University of Science and Technology

Southwestern University of Finance and Economics

Taiyuan University of Technology

Tianjin Normal University

Tianjin University

Tianjin University of Finance & Economics

Tianjin University of Technology

University of Electronic Science and Technology of China

University of Jinan

University of Science and Technology Beijing

University of Science and Technology of China

University of Shanghai for Science & Technology

Wuhan University of Technology

Xi'an Jiaotong University

Xiangtan University

Xidian University

Xihua University

Xinjiang Normal University

Xinjiang University

Xinyang Normal University

Xuzhou Normal University

Yangzhou University

Yanshan University

Yantai University

Yunnan Normal University

Yunnan University

Yunnan University of Nationalities

Zhejiang Gongshang University

Zhejiang Normal University

Zhejiang University

Zhengzhou University

Zhongnan University of Economics and Law

List of Universities Approved to run BA in Translation and Interpreting Programs

In alphabetical order (by school names)

Batch 1 (3 universities, 2006)

Fudan University

Guangdong University of Foreign Studies

Hebei Normal University

Batch 2 (4 universities, 2007)

Beijing Foreign Studies University

Shanghai International Studies University

Xi'an International Studies University

Zhejiang Normal University

Batch 3 (6 universities, 2008)

Beijing International Studies University

Beijing Language and Culture University

East China Normal University

Shandong University

Sichuan International Studies University

University of International Business and Economics

Batch 4 (6 universities, 2009)

China Foreign Affairs College

Henan Normal University

Huazhong University of Science and Technology

Hubei University

Shenyang Normal University

Tianjin Foreign Studies University

Batch 5 (12 universities, 2010)

Beihang University

Central China Normal University

Dalian Foreign Languages Institute

Heilongjiang University

Henan University

Jilin Huaqiao Foreign Languages Institute

Jinan University

Nankai University

Northwest Normal University

Qufu Normal University

Southwest Jiaotong University

Wuhan University

Batch 6 (11 universities, 2011)

Dalian University

East China University of Political Science and Law

Guizhou University

Huanggang Normal University

Hunan University of Technology

Jiangxi Science & Technology Normal University

Nanjing University of Information Science & Technology

Shaanxi Normal University

Xi'an Fanyi University

Xiangtan University

Zhejiang University

Appendix 5: Professional Degrees at Master's Level in China

Number	Chinese Name	English Name & Abbreviation	Issue Year
1	金融硕士	Master of Finance (MF)	2010
2	应用统计硕士	Master of Applied Statistics (M.A.S.)	2010
3	税务硕士	Master of Taxation (MT)	2010
4	国际商务硕士	Master of International Business (MIB)	2010
5	保险硕士	Master of Insurance (MI)	2010
6	资产评估硕士	Master of Valuation (MV)	2010
7	审计硕士	Master of Auditing (MAud)	2011
8	法律硕士	Juris Master (JM)	1995
9	社会工作硕士	Master of Social Work (MSW)	2008
10	警务硕士	Master of Policing (MP)	2010
11	教育硕士	Master of Education (Ed.M)	1996
12	体育硕士	Master of Science in Physical Education (MSPE)	2005
13	汉语国际教育 硕士	Master of Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages (MTCSOL)	2007
14	应用心理硕士	Master of Applied Psychology (MAP)	2010
15	艺术硕士	Master of Fine Arts (MFA)	2005
16	翻译硕士	Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI)	2007

17	新闻与传播硕士	Master of Journalism and Communication (MJC)	2010
18	出版硕士	Master of Publishing (MP)	2010
19	文物与博物馆硕士	Master of Cultural Heritage and Museology (M.C.H.M)	2010
20	建筑学硕士	Master of Architecture (M.Arch)	1992
21	工程硕士	Master of Engineering (ME)	1997
22	城市规划硕士	Master of Urban Planning (MUP)	2010
23	农业推广硕士	agricultural extension master (MAE)	1999
24	兽医硕士	Master of Veterinary Medicine (VMM)	1999
25	风景园林硕士	Master of Landscape Architecture (MLA)	2005
26	林业硕士	Master of Forestry (MF)	2010
27	临床医学硕士	Master of Medicine (M. M.)	1998
28	口腔医学硕士	Master of StomatologicalMedicine (S. M. M)	2000
29	公共卫生硕士	Master of Public Health (MPH)	2001
30	护理硕士	Master of Nursing Specialist (MNS)	2010
31	药学硕士	Professional Master of Pharmacy (M.Pharm)	2010

32	中药学硕士	Master of Chinese Materia Medica (MCMM)	2010
33	军事硕士	Master of Military	2002
34	工商管理硕士	Master of Business Administration (MBA)	1990
35	公共管理硕士	Master of Public Administration (MPA)	1999
36	会计硕士	Master of Professional Accounting (MPAcc)	2004
37	旅游管理硕士	Master of Tourism Administration (MTA)	2010
38	图书情报硕士	Master of Library and Information Studies (MLIS)	2010
39	工程管理硕士	Master of Engineering Management (MEM)	2010

Appendix 6: 15 professional tutors hired by Guangdong University of Foreign Studies

WANG Lei, Deputy Director, Guangxi International Expo Bureau

CHEN Shengquan, Director, Translation Department, Huawei Technologies Co., Ltd.

LI Yongzhong, Director, Economic and Trade Bureau of Conghua City

LI Ying, Director, Translation Department, Guangxi International Expo Bureau

MIN min, Deputy Director, Protocol Division, Foreign Affairs Office of Guangzhou Municipal Government

ZHANG Jicheng, CEO, Guangzhou E-say.com

CHEN Dinggang, Officer, Guangzhou LangPro Translation Limited

LIN Weiping, Director, Division of International Communication, Foreign Affairs Office of Zhuhai Municipal Government

LIU Zhenlin, Guangzhou New Bridge Translation Co., Ltd.

QI Ying, Manager, Department of Product Innovation, Division of Strategic Management at Guangdong Development Bank

JIANG Wangyue, Principal Staff Member, Consular Department at Foreign Affair Office, People's Government of Guangdong Province

CHEN Jing, Manager, Interpreting Department, Translation Centre at Huawei Tech. Co., Ltd.

XIE Geng, Leader, Electromotor Soft Transediting Team, Translation Centre at Huawei Tech. Co., Ltd.

ZHANG Lingyan, Leader, Document Transediting Team, Translation Centre at Huawei Tech.
Co., Ltd.

Appendix 7: Excerpted Results of the Rankings in Modern Languages Units

UOA 28: Modern Languages and Linguistics

Number of submissions: 57

	FTE Category A staff submitted	Overall quality profile				
		Percentage of the submission meeting the standard for:				
		4*	3*	2*	1*	U/C
Aston University	18.50	24	38	32	6	0
Birkbeck College	25.45	22	51	26	1	0
University of Birmingham	33.10	16	59	24	1	0
University of Bristol	31.10	29	38	26	7	0
University of Cambridge	96.53	40	42	16	2	0
University of Central Lancashire	10.60	20	43	32	5	0
University of Durham	34.00	25	50	24	0	1
University of Essex	12.60	40	43	14	3	0
University of Exeter	32.00	30	35	24	11	0
University of Greenwich	3.00	7	20	53	20	0
University of Kent	24.70	39	46	15	0	0
King's College London	40.50	26	53	17	3	1
University of Leeds	63.10	31	38	22	9	0
University of Leicester	12.00	5	44	46	5	0
University of Liverpool	21.00	26	46	25	3	0
University of London Institute in Paris	3.00	0	22	25	38	15
University College London	48.47	32	42	21	4	1
University of Manchester	72.50	41	39	16	3	1
Newcastle University	49.97	35	39	22	3	1
University of Nottingham	57.70	26	43	28	3	0
Nottingham Trent University	8.59	23	29	38	9	1
School of Oriental and African Studies	12.35	27	39	26	7	1
University of Oxford	116.75	27	43	23	5	2
Queen Mary University of London						
A - Linguistics	7.55	62	34	4	0	0
B - Modern Languages, Literatures and Culture	31.40	35	39	21	5	0
University of Reading	21.71	27	44	27	2	0
Roehampton University	10.20	17	45	31	7	0
Royal Holloway, University of London	24.50	34	46	19	1	0
University of Salford	10.60	2	25	51	19	3
University of Sheffield						
A - Languages and Culture	33.20	31	41	23	5	0
B - Linguistics	7.00	28	45	27	0	0
University of Southampton	24.50	39	45	16	0	0